AALBORG UNIVERSITY

DENMARK

Teachers' Beliefs and Their Belief Change in an Intercultural Context

CFL Teachers in Denmark

Wang, Li

Link to publication from Aalborg University

TEACHERS' BELIEFS AND THEIR BELIEF CHANGE IN AN INTERCULTURAL CONTEXT

CFL TEACHERS IN DENMARK

BY
LI WANG

DISSERTATION SUBMITTED 2016

AALBORG UNIVERSITY
DENMARK

TEACHERS' BELIEFS AND THEIR BELIEF CHANGE IN AN INTERCULTURAL CONTEXT

CFL TEACHERS IN DENMARK

by

Li Wang (王黎)

AALBORG UNIVERSITY
DENMARK

Dissertation submitted

.

CV

Li Wang taught Chinese language and culture as a student teacher at both Folkeskole (a Danish word combing primary and junior secondary schools) and high schools for one year before she initiated her PhD. She earned her Master's degree in comparative education at Beijing Normal University in 2012 and her bachelor degree in English pedagogy at Tianjin Normal University in 2009 in China. During her university study, she taught English to primary and secondary school students on a part-time basis for 4 years. In 2012, Li Wang started her PhD. research exploring Chinese language teachers' beliefs in the Danish context.

ENGLISH SUMMARY

Teacher belief has gained increasing attention in both the language teaching field and in education in general due to its tremendous influence on teachers' classroom instructions, students' learning outcomes as well as teachers' own learning and development. Beliefs are filtered through how teachers interpret new experiences (Pajares, 1992; Borg, 2006; Borg & Philips, 2009). Changes in teacher belief represent an important dimension in their professional lives. Genuine changes in teachers' practices can only occur through a change in their beliefs. Therefore, understanding teachers' beliefs is critical to improving teachers' classroom practices and student learning experience (Kane, 2002; Wu et al., 2011). However, most research on the beliefs of foreign language teachers has been in the field of TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language), while little research has been conducted on CFL (Chinese as a Foreign Language) teachers teaching in intercultural teaching contexts.

The teaching of Chinese as a foreign language (TCFL) is expanding rapidly worldwide, resulting in a substantial increase in the number of CFL teachers and drawing greater attention from a variety of aspects (Singh & Han, 2014). Existing studies reveal that CFL teachers worldwide, especially native Chinese speaking teachers teaching overseas, face many challenges and difficulties when adapting to the new school context and facilitating students' effective learning. They experience conflicts between their pedagogical practices and beliefs, which are rooted in the educational culture of their homeland, and the new teaching contexts (Orton, 2008; Zhang & Li, 2010; Moloney, 2013).

In Denmark, TCFL is a newly established profession without established practice since studying Chinese has only emerged as a phenomenon during the past decade (Du & Kikebæk, 2012). Many international teachers, mostly native Chinese speaking teachers, and local Danish teachers have been enrolled to fill the increasing need to learn Chinese and who are changing the landscape of foreign language education in Denmark. In order to improve CFL teachers' practices and help native Chinese speaking teachers adapt to the local school culture, it is necessary to learn what CFL teachers with different cultural backgrounds believe and think and how they change their beliefs to adjust to the situated teaching contexts.

The above points led me to focus on CFL teachers' beliefs in the Danish classroom, their belief change during their course of teaching, and the factors that shape CLF teachers' beliefs. The empirical work of the study is driven by two research questions consisting of two sub-questions each:

- What are the factors shaping the beliefs of CFL teachers in the Danish context?

  - What are the factors shaping CFL teachers' beliefs about their roles?
  - How are teachers' beliefs influenced by culture, particularly educational culture?

- How do CFL teachers change their beliefs during their course of teaching in the Danish context?

  - How do native Chinese speaking teachers change their beliefs during their course of teaching in the Danish context?
  - How do CFL teachers change their beliefs during their early years of teaching?

A qualitative study has been conducted to generate empirical data, which includes: (1) interviews with four native Chinese speaking teachers who have been living and teaching in Denmark for a number of years (2) interviews with and classroom observations of twelve native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers at different educational institutions in Denmark (3) classroom observations and narratives of two CFL teachers (one a native Chinese teacher and the other a native Danish teacher).

The conclusions of the study can be briefly summarized as follows:

(1) Teachers hold multiple beliefs regarding the roles of a teacher, students, teaching methods, teacher-student relationships, and what to teach and achieve, which are shaped and reshaped by their past experiences, current contextual factors and teaching practices. Prior experience forms the bases for teachers' initial beliefs. The traditional educational culture and scheme appear to retain their influence on native Chinese speaking teachers' beliefs and affect the way they interpret students and teaching methods, even in an overseas teaching context. They still carry with them the expectation of respectful student behaviour and student efforts in learning, and interpreted Danish students' behaviour from the cultural perspective they were accustomed to in the Chinese context. The differences in the educational cultures between the teachers' home country and their new environment contribute to their current beliefs about teaching methods, whereby these consist of characteristics from both educational cultures.

(2) Teachers' personal experiences, individual cultural backgrounds, and contextual factors all contribute to variations in their beliefs about their roles, including how they understand facilitators, teaching culture and building relationships with students. Contextual factors, such as the prescribed curriculum, academic tests and the availability of adequate teaching resources, influence teachers' perceptions and executions of their roles; these also bring both challenges

and opportunities for teachers to reconcile their beliefs with the realities of teaching and to develop student-centeredness. Teachers' classroom practices and teachers' beliefs are mutually informing in a symbiotic relationship.

(3) Encountering new cultures in a new country and adjusting to the new cultural environment, native Chinese speaking teachers both teach and learn, and during this process many of them develop and change their beliefs from one that is more aligned with their traditional teacher-centred educational culture and belief orientation to a more student-centred one that fits the local school culture. Native speaking Chinese teachers who have been in Denmark for many years have developed their beliefs about their roles from "subject and teacher-centred," "authoritarian," and "spiritual" to "facilitator", "pedagogical professional," "students' partner and friend," "teacher learner," and "cultural worker," which implies that they had become more competent at adapting to the new teaching context. On the other hand, they have developed diverse individualized coping strategies to handle the dilemmas in their beliefs regarding the teacher-student relationship. These teachers' beliefs about teaching methods develops into a complex combination of both teacher-centred and student-centred beliefs emphasizing both communicative, interactive teaching and structural, systematic knowledge transmission with good discipline.

(4) When the CFL teachers started their teaching careers, they were more concerned with their own teaching by adhering to previous experience and beliefs, however they gradually developed a better understanding of the context, including students' needs and characteristics as well as the curriculum. Their beliefs have become more context-dependent and they are better at drawing elements from both subject-matter oriented and learner-oriented belief orientations and different teaching methods to reconcile their beliefs and pedagogical instructions with the realities of teaching. Core beliefs formed in their early years of schooling experience, such as grammar teaching, memorization and group work, stay resistant to change. The teachers underwent different change processes in their beliefs due to different contextual challenges and prior beliefs and experience.

This study contributes to new perspectives of understanding teacher belief in an intercultural context in both theoretical and practical aspects. Theoretically, it strengthens the connections and interplay between teacher belief, past experience, classroom practice and educational culture. It provides insights for foreign language teachers in general, and CFL teachers teaching in different global contexts in particular, especially those who teach in an intercultural context where pedagogical practices and beliefs are different from the ones to which they are accustomed. It sheds light on teacher learning and development in terms of belief change. Finally, this study has implications for the design of future teacher education programs and professional development by addressing teachers' prior beliefs, experience and needs.

DANSK RESUME

Der er stigende opmærksomhed omkring lærerens overbevisninger i såvel sprogundervisning som i uddannelse generelt på grund af den enorme indflydelse disse har på lærernes undervisning i klasseværelset, elevernes læringsresultater samt lærernes egen læring og udvikling. Overbevisninger danner et filter, hvorigennem lærere fortolker nye erfaringer (Pajares, 1992; Borg, 2006; Borg & Philips, 2009). Ændringer i lærerens overbevisninger udgør en vigtig dimension i deres professionelle liv. Ægte forandringer i lærernes praksis kan kun ske gennem en ændring i deres overbevisninger. Derfor er en forståelse af lærernes overbevisninger afgørende for at forbedre lærernes klasseværelsespraksis og de studerendes læring (Kane, 2002; Wu et al, 2011). Forskning i sproglæreres overbevisninger har imidlertid hovedsageligt fundet sted indenfor TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language), mens der kun er forsket lidt i forbindelse med CFL (Chinese as a Foreign Language) lærere, der arbejder i interkulturelle undervisningssammenhænge.

Undervisningen i kinesisk som fremmedsprog (TCFL) er i hastig vækst på verdensplan, hvilket resulterer i en betydelig stigning i antallet af CFL lærere og tiltrækker større opmærksomhed fra forskellige sider (Singh & Han, 2014). Eksisterende undersøgelser viser, at CFL lærere over hele verden, især de indfødte kinesisktalende lærere, der underviser i udlandet, står over for mange udfordringer og vanskeligheder, når de skal tilpasse sig den nye skolekontekst og facilitere en effektiv læring hos eleverne. De oplever konflikter mellem deres pædagogiske praksis og overbevisninger, som er forankret i deres hjemlands pædagogiske kultur, og de nye undervisningskontekster (Orton , 2008; Zhang & Li , 2010; Moloney, 2013) .

I Danmark er TCFL et nyetableret fag uden fast praksis, eftersom det at studere kinesisk er et fænomen, der kun har eksisteret i det seneste årti (Du & Kirkebæk, 2012). Der har været brug for mange internationale lærere, for det meste indfødte kinesisktalende lærere, og lokale danske lærere til at dække det stigende behov for at lære kinesisk, og dette har igangsat en forandring af fremmedsprogsundervisningen i Danmark. For at forbedre CFL lærernes praksis og hjælpe de indfødte kinesisktalende lærere til at tilpasse sig den lokale skolekultur, er det nødvendigt at vide, hvad CFL lærere med forskellige kulturelle baggrunde tror og tænker, og hvordan de kan tilpasse deres overbevisninger til de situerede undervisningskontekster.

Ovennævnte punkter har fået mig til at fokusere på CFL læreres overbevisninger i det danske klasseværelse, deres forandrende overbevisninger i undervisningsforløbet, og de faktorer, der former CFL lærernes overbevisninger.

Det empiriske arbejde ved undersøgelsen drives af to forskningsspørgsmål, der hver består af to underspørgsmål:

- Hvilke faktorer former CFL lærernes overbevisninger i dansk sammenhæng?

  - Hvilke faktorer former CFL lærernes overbevisninger om deres roller?
  - Hvordan er lærernes overbevisninger påvirket af kultur, især undervisningskultur?

- Hvordan ændrer CFL lærere deres overbevisninger i et undervisningsforløb i den danske kontekst?

  - Hvordan ændrer indfødte kinesisktalende lærere deres overbevisninger i et undervisningsforløb i en dansk kontekst?
  - Hvordan ændrer CFL lærere deres overbevisninger i løbet af de første undervisningsår?

For at generere empiriske data er der udført en kvalitativ undersøgelse. Denne omfatter: (1) interviews med fire indfødte kinesisktalende lærere, som har boet og undervist i Danmark i en årrække (2) interviews med og klasseværelsesobservationer af tolv indfødte og ikke-indfødte kinesisktalende lærere på forskellige uddannelsesinstitutioner i Danmark (3) klasseværelsesobservationer og narrativer fortalt af to CFL lærere (én indfødt kinesisk lærer og en indfødt dansk lærer).

Konklusionerne af undersøgelsen kan kort sammenfattes således:

(1) Undervisere har adskillige overbevisninger omkring en lærers rolle, studerende, undervisningsmetoder, lærer-studerende forholdet, og i forhold til hvad der skal undervises, og hvad det skal opnå. Disse overbevisninger er formet og formes kontinuerligt af tidligere erfaringer, aktuelle kontekstuelle faktorer og undervisningspraksisser. Tidligere erfaringer former udgangspunktet for underviseres umiddelbare overbevisninger. Den lader til at den traditionelle uddannelseskultur og -ordning fortsætter med at bevare deres påvirkning på indfødte kinesisk talende underviseres overbevisninger og påvirker hvorledes de fortolker studerende og undervisningsmetoder selv i en udenlandsk kontekst. De forventer respektfuld opførsel og en stor indsats af de studerende i forhold til læring, og fortolker danske studerendes opførsel fra det kulturelle perspektiv, som de var vant til i den kinesiske kontekst. Forskellene på uddannelseskulturerne mellem underviserens hjemland og deres nye omgivelser bidrager til deres aktuelle overbevisninger omkring undervisningsmetoder, hvorfor disse indeholder karakteristika fra begge uddannelseskulturer.

(2) Underviseres personlige erfaringer, individuelle kulturbaggrunde, og kontekstuelle faktorer bidrager alle til deres overbevisninger omkring deres rolle inklusiv, hvordan de forstår facilitatorer, undervisningskultur, og relationsopbygning med studerende. Kontekstuelle faktorer, såsom det foreskrevne curriculum, akademiske eksaminer, og tilgængeligheden af tilstrækkelige undervisningsresurser, påvirker underviserers forståelser og udførsel af deres roller. Dette giver også mulighed for at forsone deres overbevisninger med virkeligheden og udvikle læringsmetoder med den studerende i centrum. Underviseres praksisser i klasseværelset og deres overbevisninger orienterer hinanden i et symbiotisk forhold.

(3) I mødet med nye kulturer i nye lande og i tilpasningen til nye kulturelle omgivelser, både underviser og lærer de indfødte kinesiskundervisere, og i denne proces udvikler mange deres overbevisninger fra at være mere afstemt med deres traditionelle lærercentreret undervisning og overbevisning til en mere elevcentreret forståelse, som passer den lokale skolekultur. Indfødte kinesisktalende lærere som har været i Danmark i længere tid har udviklet deres overbevisninger omkring deres roller fra "fag- og elevcentreret", "autoritær", og "spirituel" til "facilitator", professionel pædagog", "partner og ven af de studerende", "lærende underviser", og "kulturarbejder", hvilket antyder, at de er blevet mere kompetente til at tilpasse sig den nye undervisningskontekst. På den anden side har de udviklet forskellige individuelle tilpasningsstrategier til at klare de modsætninger i deres overbevisninger som opstår omkring lærer-elev forholdet. Disse læreres overbevisninger omkring undervisningsmetoder udvikler sig til en kompleks kombination af både lærercentreret og elevcentreret overbevisninger med fokus på både det kommunikative, interaktiv undervisning og strukturel, systematisk transfer af viden med god disciplin.

(4) Da CFL underviserne startede deres undervisningskarriere, var de mere bekymret om deres egen undervisning ved at holde sig til tidligere erfaringer og overbevisninger. Dog udviklede de gradvist en bedre forståelse af konteksten, heriblandt en forståelse af de studerendes behov og karakteristika, såvel som curriculum. Deres overbevisninger er blevet mere kontekstafhængige og de er nu bedre til at inddrage både fagligt- og elevorienteret elementer og forskellige undervisningsmetoder til at forsone deres overbevisninger og pædagogiske instruktioner med virkeligheden. Kerneoverbevisninger fra deres tid under uddannelse, såsom grammatikundervisning, udenadslære og gruppearbejde forandres ikke. Underviserne undergik forskellige forandringsprocesser omkring deres overbevisninger grundet kontekstuelle forskelle og de forskellige baggrunde og overbevisninger de havde med sig.

Denne undersøgelse bidrager med nye perspektiver på forståelsen af underviseres overbevisninger i interkulturelle kontekster i både teoretisk og praktisk forstand. Teoretisk styrker den forståelsen af en forbindelse og et sammenspil mellem underviseroverbevisninger, tidligere erfaringer, praksis i klasseværelset og

uddannelseskultur. Den byder på indsigt til både fremmedsprogsundervisere generelt og CFL undervisere i forskellige globale kontekster især, og specielt til de som underviser i en interkulturel kontekst, hvor pædagogisk praksis og overbevisninger er anderledes end ens vante overbevisninger. Undersøgelsen kaster også lys over underviseres læring og udvikling i forhold til overbevisninger og forandringer af disse. Slutteligt har denne undersøgelse også betydning for det fremtidige design af læreruddannelser og professionel udvikling, idet den adresserer underviseres tidligere overbevisninger, erfaringer og behov.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

When I started this PhD journey, I did not know that I would face so many difficulties and struggles concerning both the research and my personal development. I did not know that during this process I would encounter so many caring and supportive teachers, colleagues and friends, without whom this PhD thesis could not have been completed.

I express my sincere appreciation to my supervisor professor Xiangyun Du for her tremendous support, care, love, patience and guidance during my PhD journey. She gave me new perspectives on life and work as a successful, independent and determined woman of academia and as a good mother. Thank you for being a mentor, supervisor and family member in my life in Denmark. Thank you for trusting me and giving me the freedom to explore and develop.

I am very grateful to Annie Aarup Jensen, who helped me with guidance and inspiration, particularly in the initial stages of the PhD, who guided me into research on teachers, who worked collaboratively on my first article, and who generously gave both comments and encouragement.

I want to express my sincere thanks to Professors Ann-Dorte Christensen and Palle Damkjær Rasmussen, who provided generous support and care, both in life and in doing research, and who read the 4th article of the thesis and provided many constructive comments and suggestions to help me move forward.

To Mads Jakob Kirkebæk, who recommended the important literature by Borg on teacher cognition in the initial stages of the PhD, who inspired me in research and teaching, and who provided me with knowledge of Danish educational system.

Great thanks go to the headquarters of the Hanban and Confucius Institute for Innovation and Learning (CI) for providing me with such a valuable opportunity to teach abroad and develop both personally and professionally.

I wish to thank all my colleagues at the Confucius Institute and the department for building a cozy, supportive and friendly environment: Ulla Bursko, Youjin, Chunfang, Kevin Dargue, Professor Yiying Wang etc., who have provided generous help in my life and work.

Great thanks to my colleague Niels for helping translate the English summary of the thesis into Danish.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

TABLE OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

MY LEARNING AND TEACHING TRAJECTORY AS MY TIE TO THIS STUDY

My own learning and teaching trajectory prompted my interest in researching teachers' understandings, experiences and minds. I describe my personal background and experience and connect it to my original ideas about the focus of the research. My research interest in CFL teachers' beliefs and practices is a direct result of my own teaching practices and the challenges I encountered after moving from China to Denmark to teach Chinese as a Foreign Language (TCFL) in 2011. I had been educated and had lived my life in China before I came to Denmark. With teaching experience in both educational systems, I have many ideas and experiences to share. However, having been in the Chinese educational systems for almost twenty years, I had never seriously reflected upon it until I started teaching in another cultural context with students from a different linguistic and cultural background. This reflective narrative illustrates how I have changed my teaching philosophies and beliefs and how my experience sparked my research interest in CFL teacher belief.

Learning and teaching in the Chinese school context

In my schooling days, language teaching, like most other subjects, was often authoritarian and in the context of big class sizes and large amounts of assignments. The classroom was often teacher and textbook-centred, and also very exam-oriented. We used to recite and memorize texts, new vocabularies and sentences from the English textbook every day. There were monthly exams on writing, listening and reading comprehension. Our oral English skills were not stressed since these were not assessed in the exams. Teachers often did a lot of grammatical analysis. My interest in learning English began when I had a young female English teacher who constantly created opportunities for us to speak and practice. Unlike other teachers, she encouraged us to interact and to have conversations with other students. I was the top student in the class since I not only achieved high scores in the exams but also actively participated in class. At that time, I believed that a good teacher should help students do well in tests while making the class fun and interesting. In order to be a good English learner, one had to make the effort to learn and do a lot of memorization.

It was in grade 2 in high school that I first anticipated that my future career would relate to the teaching profession after I gave an English lesson to my classmates for my English teacher, who was on leave. As a student, I fully understood that

students were eager to be actively involved. Therefore, I organized the class with a number of activities and interacted with my "students", mobilizing them to do pair work and to participate in oral presentations, etc. The class went very well and finished to my classmates' warm applause. The experience of teaching English gave me the preliminary idea that a teacher can win students' hearts by recognizing their active roles in their learning processes. From then on, the goal of being a professional teacher was deeply rooted in my mind.

Because of my interest in both English and teaching, I took English Pedagogy as my bachelor program at the School of Education in Tianjin Normal University, where most students were expected to become school teachers. The teachers at the institute prioritized the subject knowledge of being a teacher and convinced me that a professional teacher should first be an expert in his or her subject and display a perfect language role model. The teachers taught us different teaching methods such as grammar teaching, communicative teaching, task-based teaching (TBL), and so on. Although they highly recommended the more student-centred approaches to teaching, most of them organized their lessons in a very lecture-based way, leaving few opportunities for students' feedback and questions. Mrs Su was among one of the few teachers holding different teaching philosophies from those with traditional views on teaching. She was an experienced teacher with a very clear idea of where to lead us in the class. She was strict and demanding and nobody could hide in her class. Her lessons were interesting and vivid because there were many varied activities and tasks, such as retelling stories and performing dramas. Su has been my role model on my path to becoming a professional teacher due to her great concern for her students' significant role in the class and her profound knowledge and skills in the subject.

I started my first teaching practicum at a primary school as an English teacher in the last year of my bachelor study. The mentor teacher encouraged me to organize the English class in a very structured and systematic way, following certain steps and learning goals, in order to achieve a high teaching efficiency and high scores. The prescribed textbook was seen as a bible from which I was to derive my lesson plan. Many teachers at the school often displayed very authoritarian attitudes and controlled the students in class in a hierarchical way. The pupils followed teachers' instructions and orders, and they seldom asked questions or voiced different opinions. As a student teacher, I was not as authoritarian as my mentor teacher, but I did place a high demand on classroom discipline. The real life teaching experience confirmed to me that student-centred teaching should be based on the teacher's leading role and systematic textbook teaching. It was from there that I acquired a very linear method of language teaching.

During my master's study, I chose comparative education as my study program because I could learn more about the educational system and practices in Western countries. It opened a window to the outside world and aroused my interest in

different educational cultures and teaching practices. I began to dream about learning and teaching abroad and wondered how teachers taught foreign languages in other countries, where student-centred teaching was prevalent. As far as I knew from my past experience, it should have involved students actively participating in class; it also went along well with the stress on exams, textbook teaching, a high demand for discipline and the teacher's dominating role in the class. However, I still had doubts about what the essence of student-centeredness was.

Teaching Chinese as a foreign language in Danish educational settings: challenges and change

With a curiosity about educational practices and cultures in Denmark and my enthusiasm for teaching, I started to work as a CFL teacher at the Confucius Institute at Aalborg University in August 2011. I first had teaching obligations at secondary schools and then at the university. Teaching has always been a source of inspiration and it brings me joy and a sense of fulfilment. However, the sense of achievement in teaching Chinese at Danish schools did not come easily at the beginning. I spent several months familiarizing myself with the school system, classroom culture and the teaching environment. In the beginning, I could not help comparing the schooling practices and educational culture of both China and Denmark. I focused mostly on the vast differences between what I had experienced in China and my new experience in Denmark, such as the prevalent pedagogical approaches, teacher roles, student characteristics, teacher-student interactions, classroom atmosphere and arrangement. All these differences brought challenges for my teaching and for my prior beliefs, which could be summarised as the following aspects:

Most Chinese courses at the schools, especially those at Folkeskole (primary and junior secondary schools) gave no credits or evaluations to the students. Students were not required to take exams. Even in Chinese courses that were part of credit programs at high schools, exams were not emphasized as much as they were in China, where they were seen by both teachers and students as a priority. It seems to me that the students' learning experience and learning process, instead of their exam results, were more important in the Danish educational culture. At Folkeskole, the Chinese courses were often scheduled at a time when the school had finished as elective interest courses. It put the Chinese program in an embarrassing position as students had a very low level of motivation to put any effort into learning or doing homework after class. Some students had no problems in skipping the class for such reasons as going to a party or doing sports, which surprised me a lot. Without the stress from exams, I, as a teacher, had great difficulty in motivating students and retaining them in the class. My own initial teaching experience told me that my Danish students demanded less teacher talk and more participation in the classroom. Whenever I talked for five minutes, they would demonstrate their impatience by looking at the computer and chatting in class. I realized that I could

not teach the way that I had been taught in China, using lots of repetition and lecturing. Otherwise, students would drop out and the Chinese program would be terminated.

Later, I learnt from my Danish colleagues and students that Danish students, who are culturally and linguistically different from me, have very different learning styles. In Danish schools, students were used to doing lots of group work and project work in a classroom that was characterized by their active participation. It would be unrealistic to expect them to follow my instructions and sit there for 2 hours, passively learning a foreign language which was so different from their mother tongue. I felt a strong need to accommodate my teaching strategy and apply an authentic student-centred teaching approach which was also adaptive to the Danish school context.

With the joint efforts of the CI research team, I started implementing task-based teaching (TBL) in my classes, which was developed from my understanding of the teacher role and student-centred teaching. We designed different types of tasks for students to use in class. Instead of giving them direct answers and controlling the class, I gave students plenty of time to explore and complete communicative tasks with their peers. They were more motivated to learn, for example, the basic new words and sentences needed to accomplish the tasks in groups. When they saw that they could apply the Chinese they had learned in the class to do a task, such as interviewing native Chinese people, they became very engaged. In the process, I extended my role from a mere lecturer to a guide and coach facilitating student exploration. I started reminding myself that if some knowledge could be explored by students' individual or group work, then I should not just impart it directly to them. Students learn more effectively when they take responsibility.

I also came across challenges related to the use of a textbook and what to teach. Due to the different types of courses and the position of the Chinese program in different schools, there were no prescribed or universal textbooks, which made me feel insecure about what to teach. In the first semester, I received a teaching task for 6 lessons (2 hours per lesson) at E high school. The lesson was a general introduction to Chinese language and culture, with a focus on oral Chinese. I received no prescribed textbook to use. Some materials from the Confucius Institute were not appropriate due to the difficulty level and the different target group. I felt that I had nothing to rely on when I was given the freedom to design the curriculum and had no idea about what the contents for teaching should be. As teachers normally receive prescribed textbooks at Chinese schools, all they need to do is to follow the exact sequence of the textbook and deliver the lessons based on it. It was even outside my expectations when the coordinating Danish teacher told me that we had to first consult the students on what they would like to include in the lessons and then incorporate their interests in my overall teaching plan. I realized that the role of the students could be so significant and began to believe that designing a

lesson based on students' needs and interests reflected the essence of student-centeredness.

Instead of delivering the teaching content from a textbook which were fixed and decided by the national curriculum, at the schools where I taught, the contents for teaching and learning could be flexible, and many were negotiated based on an equal dialogue with students and schools. At high schools, I would quite often be informed by the coordinating teacher to include topics that students would like, such as greetings, family, school life, sports, pop culture, shopping, and which were practical and relevant to student life and experience. Moreover, students were more interested in learning oral Chinese and Chinese culture. Chinese characters were seen by students as very difficult, and they did not want to put much time and effort into going in-depth. Regarding Chinese culture, I expected to prioritize a general introduction about Chinese history and geography, for example, to tell students about China's long history and vast territory, of which I am proud. However, these topics were not favoured by the students at all. Students preferred something from which they could see a relevance to their own lives. Maybe that is why many Danish teachers found complementary materials, such as documentaries or news, online for teaching Chinese culture.

It impressed me that in the first Chinese lesson, students would often be more interested in my personal life history than Chinese history. I began to reflect on the purpose of teaching language and culture. Would it be enough to teach students basic daily Chinese and deliver facts and information about China and Chinese culture? My classroom experience told me that teaching should go beyond a one-way transmission of cultural knowledge and facts. The students were interested in interacting with me as a person and what they needed was a competence and awareness that would let them effectively communicate with people of other cultures.

In terms of the interaction and relationship with students, I started to feel a difference as soon as I stepped into the classroom on my first day of teaching. The students addressed their teachers directly using their first names. They were not afraid to voice their own opinions or disagreement. The coordinating Danish teacher treated the students as equal and independent adults and they never shouted at the students. On the contrary, they had polite conversations with them. The relationship between teacher and students was very democratic and relaxing. I was shocked when I saw the coordinating teacher playing cards with the students during the break in my class. I could not help recalling my previous teachers' authoritarian image. I was sure that a good teacher in Denmark must first respect students' roles and opinions. It would be ridiculous for teachers to display their power to gain students' obedience.

At the very beginning, I had the uneasy feeling that students were not giving me enough respect by constantly interrupting me with different kinds of questions and viewpoints. I felt that my professional teacher's role image was being challenged, especially when I could not answer all of their questions. There was one time when a student asked me the total number of Chinese characters. Unfortunately, I did not know the answer. I said that I was sorry and told them I did not know. But I felt very uneasy and a little embarrassed, holding the belief that a teacher should be almighty and able to answer all manner of student questions. Soon, I discovered that the fact that I could not answer was acceptable to students. Later, I learned to ask students to search online for those questions that none of us could answer. When someone had an opinion that differed from mine, I encouraged more students to discuss the matter. Therefore, I gradually unloaded the burden of being a "mighty role model", and I also learned to be more open-minded to the students' different perspectives.

All in all, the challenges I came across in Danish schools pushed me to critically self-examine my own teaching philosophies, beliefs and practices. I realized when I started teaching in Denmark that I already had a well-established set of beliefs that guided me in my teaching and interactions with students. These beliefs were shaped by my previous schooling and teaching experiences. Recalling past experiences, I realize that some of my beliefs about teaching and teacher roles were conservative and traditional, which was not compatible with the Danish schools. But over the course of teaching, I witnessed a surprising transformation within myself. I adjusted my teacher role and adopted a more student-centred teaching approach in order to improve my teaching and to accommodate the teaching context.

At the same time, I could not help asking myself how other CFL teachers, including native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers in Danish educational settings, perceived teaching, the teacher role, teacher-student relationships etc., and what challenges they faced, whether they changed their beliefs about teaching, and what the factors behind their beliefs and belief change were. These questions, derived from practical challenges, became the starting point of my cognitive change about teaching and paved the way to my research on CFL teacher belief. My own experience made me realize that in order to better understand teachers' beliefs and belief change, I have to link their thinking and perspectives in a particular school context, and also include teachers with different cultural and educational backgrounds. With the belief that doing research on teachers will make a contribution to existing research on teacher belief, as well as improve my own teaching, I started the PhD journey of researching CFL teachers' beliefs.

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. RESEARCH BACKGROUND

1.1.1. RESEARCH BACKGROUND OF TEACHER BELIEF

In recent decades, increasing attention has been paid to teachers' mental lives and beliefs in educational research in general and in the field of language teaching in particular. The basic assumption is that what teachers think and believe directs what they do and how they carry out instructions, thus affecting students' learning outcomes and teachers' own learning and development (Kane, 2002; Wu, Palmer, & Field, 2011). Teacher belief is essential for improving educational practices and a key concern in teacher education programs which intend to facilitate the development of teachers' beliefs, practices, and problem solving abilities. Teachers subconsciously rely on their beliefs as they deal with challenges and interpret new situations (Lavigne, 2014). Genuine changes in teachers' practices and educational innovation can only be achieved when teachers' beliefs are changed (Kennedy, 1996). Although the significance of teacher belief has been well documented and argued in a lot of studies, there are still gaps in understanding teacher belief and how it changes.

Firstly, a rich body of literature has reported on the beliefs of foreign language teachers in general, however most studies have been in the field of TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language), while little research has been conducted on CFL (Chinese as a Foreign Language) teachers teaching in intercultural contexts (Gao, 2010; Sun, 2012). There has been little research on CFL teachers' beliefs and their experience in the Danish educational context. Researchers and educators do not know much about what beliefs CFL teachers bring with them when entering the classroom and how they interact with the context. Among the scarce studies on CFL teacher belief, very few have explored non-native Chinese speaking teachers (Ma & Gao, in press). In relation to the field of TCFL, it is necessary and interesting to investigate both native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers' beliefs and experiences in an intercultural context.

Secondly, though many studies on foreign language teachers suggest that beliefs are subject to different factors such as experience and context (Pajares, 1992; Borg, 2006), most of these investigate the interplay between beliefs and the various factors in general ways. How the roles of influential factors, such as different types of experience contextual factors and educational culture, have contributed to teachers' beliefs and belief change has not been thoroughly investigated.

Thirdly, though teachers' belief change is an important dimension in their professional lives, many researchers insist that teachers' beliefs are resistant to change (Kagan, 1992; Peacock, 2001). Some studies suggest that beliefs may change because of the impact from teacher educational programs or teaching practice, for example (Borg, 1999; 2006; Tang et al., 2012). Borg (2009) argues that much existing research on the inflexibility of teachers' beliefs focuses on the content of beliefs. Further longitudinal studies focusing on the processes of teachers' belief change in their situated context is therefore needed for the understanding of the process of learning to teach among teachers (Yuan & Lee, 2014).

1.1.2. TEACHING CHINESE AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE (TCFL) AND CHINESE LANGUAGE (CFL) TEACHERS

With China's rapid growth in its economy and international influence, the increasing worldwide popularity of Chinese makes it 'a newly emergent local/global language of considerable importance' (Singh, 2013, p.405). The teaching of Chinese as a foreign language is rapidly expanding worldwide. Over 500 Confucius Institutes (CI) and about 1000 Confucius classrooms have been established to promote the teaching of Chinese language and culture around the world. According to official data from Hanban (the Headquarters of Confucius Institutes), the number of people who are learning Chinese in the world reached one hundred million in 2014[1]. The number of CFL teachers trained and sent by Hanban to work abroad in 2014 was two hundred thousand[2], not including teachers who were not working at CI worldwide and who were non-native Chinese speaking teachers. The pool of CFL teachers has been growing and has drawn more attention from various aspects with the increasing need for Chinese learning.

Many challenges and difficulties have been reported regarding CFL teachers worldwide, especially native Chinese speaking teachers teaching overseas (Moloney & Xu, 2012). Very few studies have reported the experiences, beliefs and challenges of non-native Chinese speaking teachers. Some of the observed challenges are related to the uniqe features of the Chinese language itself and the contextual factors. Chinese, compared to other foreign languages such as English and French, has been a less-taught subject and was considered a culturally difficult language to learn (Du & Kikebæk, 2012). Teachers had difficulty motivating students, developing appropriate teaching materials to meet students' needs and retaining students (Zhang & Li, 2010). However, the dominating issues were related

---

[1]   Retrieved   December   20,   2015,   from   Hanban's   official   website
http://www.hanban.edu.cn/article/2014-09/30/c ontent_554734.htm

[2]   Retrieved   December   20,   2015,   from   Hanban's   official   website
http://www.hanban.edu.cn/article/2014-09/30/content_554734.htm

to their adaptation to the new teaching environment and the conflicts in their beliefs about teaching and pedagogical values (Wang, 2015; Orton, 2011; Wang, Moloney, Li, 2013).

Though they have a high level of proficiency in the target language and a profound understanding about their homeland culture, native Chinese speaking teachers may be unfamiliar with the local school context and educational culture, including the pedagogical approaches emphasizing the active and central role of the learner (Orton, 2008; Zhang & Li, 2010; Moloney, 2013). Moreover, when teachers start their career in TCFL, they already have well-formed beliefs that direct how they teach, make classroom decisions, interact with students and interpret new teaching situations, for example. (Pajaras, 1992). These beliefs are deeply influenced by their previous life and schooling experience (Kember, 1997; Borg, 2006). Native Chinese speaking teachers' beliefs are profoundly influenced by the Chinese education schema and educational culture in many ways, including the expected role and status of a teacher as an authoritarian, the significance of exams and textbooks, the dominance of the traditional grammar-translation approach and lecture-centred teaching methods (Zhang, 2015).

The mismatch between teachers' preconceived notions and beliefs about teaching and the local students' and teachers' beliefs create barriers to their adaptation to the new school context, which cause struggles and difficulties in their teaching as well as negative effects for student learning (Orton, 2008; Zhang & Li, 2010). A failure to maintain high quality teaching in Chinese will lead to a decrease in student enrolment and the elimination of Chinese programs from schools. Therefore, teacher training and development programs have been developed in some countries to facilitate CFL teachers, mostly native Chinese speaking teachers, in accommodating to the local teaching context. However, teachers' beliefs first have to be brought to the surface and addressed if any change and innovation is to be made regarding teachers (Richardson, 1996). In order to integrate native Chinese speaking teachers into the local school culture, it is necessary to learn what they know, believe and think and how they change their beliefs to adjust to new teaching contexts.

Like many other countries, the foreign language education schema in Denmark has been changing due to the increasing interest in China and Chinese over recent years. Many international teachers, mostly native Chinese speaking teachers, and local Danish teachers have been enrolled to fill the increasing need for Chinese learning (*Article 2*, Du & Kirkebæk, 2012). How do CFL teachers of different cultural backgrounds perceive teaching, students and their role as teachers? What challenges do CFL teachers face in this new teaching profession? How do CFL teachers change their beliefs during the course of their teaching? What factors shape teacher belief and belief change? The intercultural encounters in this new teaching

profession at Danish schools have proposed new questions and issues which call for further research.

1.2. THE PURPOSE OF THE STUDY AND THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study aims to (1) fill in the gaps identified in the research on teacher belief and CFL teachers in the global context given the valuable opportunity for research in the present rise of Chinese language programs; (2) enhance the understanding of teacher belief through in-depth research to uncover the factors shaping the beliefs that teachers from different cultural backgrounds hold; and (3) contribute to teacher education and training by drawing implications from teachers' belief change during their course of teaching.

The research questions that guide this study are:

- What are the factors shaping the beliefs of CFL teachers in the Danish context?

  - What are the factors shaping CFL teachers' beliefs about their roles?
  - How are teachers' beliefs influenced by culture, particularly educational culture?

- How do CFL teachers' beliefs change during the course of their teaching in the Danish context?

  - How do native Chinese speaking teachers change their beliefs during their course of teaching in the Danish context?
  - How do CFL teachers change their beliefs during their early years of teaching?

1.3. THE ORGANIZATION OF THE THESIS

This study is based on four peer-reviewed articles. As such, the thesis is divided into two main parts.

1. A report that provides an overview of this Ph.D. research which includes:

   1. Introduction
   2. Research context
   3. Theoretical underpinnings
   4. Methodological design
   5. Findings and discussions
   6. Contributions and limitations

2. Appendices include:

   1. Four articles included in the study
   2. Interview guide
   3. Co-authorship statement

1.3.1. THE ORGANIZATION OF THE REPORT

The first part includes six chapters. The first chapter provides the general background, research purpose and research questions of the study. The second chapter describes the context in which the study is situated. The third chapter is a critical review of the major literature on teacher belief in which I try to gain a theoretical understanding of teacher belief by regarding it as a system, and relating the belief orientations with belief change and discovering its influential factors. It also examines the current research on language teacher belief and CFL teachers' beliefs. The fourth chapter concerns the methodological design of the study, including research process, data collection and analysis,. It concludes with a reflective note on the methodology used in this study. The findings and discussion of the study are presented in Chapter five. Chapter six concludes the thesis with the contributions of the study to existing research, its limitations, implications and suggestions for future research.

The second part of the thesis are the appendices, which include the published papers in this PhD study; the interview guidelines used in the published articles; and the statement of co-authorship in the published papers connected to the submission of this PhD thesis.

1.3.2. PUBLISHED/ACCEPTED ARTICLES INCLUDED IN THE THESIS

A list of articles included in this research is as follows:

1. Wang, L. & Jensen, A. A. (2013). Cultural influence on Chinese teachers' perceptions and beliefs in a Danish context. In Kirkebæk, M. J., Du, X. Y., & Aarup Jensen, A. (eds.), *Teaching and Learning Culture: Negotiating the Context*. Sense Publishers.
2. Wang, L. & Du, X.Y. (2014). Chinese Teachers' Professional Identity and Beliefs about the Teacher-Student Relationship in a Danish Context, *Frontiers of Education in China*, 9(3): 429–455.
3. Wang, L. & Du, X.Y. (2016). Teachers' beliefs about teacher role in the intercultural context. *System: An International Journal of Educational Technology and Applied Linguistics*. (Accepted).
4. Wang, L. (2016). Narrative inquiry of Chinese as Foreign Language (CFL) teachers' experience and changes in beliefs in the Danish secondary school

context. In Du, X. Y., Liu, H. Q., & Dervin, F. (eds.), *Nordic-Chinese Intersections on Education*. Palgrave Macmillan. (Accepted)

Paper 1 presents the results of a pilot study designed to investigate the beliefs and perceptions of four native Chinese teachers in a Danish teaching context, focusing on how educational culture impacts these perceptions and beliefs. Ethnographic interviews were utilized to explore the perceptions of student characteristics and teaching methods held by four native Chinese teachers who had been teaching in Denmark for many years. This revealed that the teachers' perceptions reflect two different educational cultures which have shaped and are still reshaping their beliefs regarding student characteristics and teaching methods in the Danish context. It suggests that teachers' cultural backgrounds and the new cultural contexts in which they are teaching have caused their beliefs on teaching to develop from a more teacher-oriented approach to one that is more student-oriented. However, their beliefs on teaching methods also imply a complex combination of two competing systems, the "Chinese way of teaching" and the "Danish way of teaching", suggesting that they have had to put great effort into adapting to a new context.

Paper 2 presents a qualitative study of change in immigrant Chinese teachers' professional identity and beliefs regarding the teacher-student relationship in an intercultural context. The results of this study suggest that teachers' beliefs about their roles as teachers and about student-teacher relationships are shaped by both their prior experiences and backgrounds and the current social and cultural contexts in which they are situated. Changes of context (e.g. from China to Denmark) often lead to a transformation of their professional identity and beliefs. Being a teacher in an intercultural context often exposes them to diverse challenges and dilemmas. On one hand, teachers in this study generally experienced a transformation from being a moral and parental role model, subject expert, and authority to being a learning facilitator and culture worker. On the other hand, they developed diverse individualized coping strategies to handle student-teacher interactions and other aspects of teacher professional identity.

Paper 3 focuses on how teachers of Chinese as a Foreign Language (CFL) perceive their professional roles and the factors shaping their multiple beliefs as well as the issues these teachers face that challenge their perceptions of their roles. Empirical data were collected, mainly from semi-structured interviews and participant classroom observations, on twelve native and non-native Chinese speaking language teachers in order to explore their beliefs about teachers' roles and the issues that challenge their perceptions of roles. The study found that most teachers see themselves as combining multiple roles and confirmed that teachers define their roles on the basis of the following perspectives: how teachers plan and conduct teaching activities, what they want to emphasize and achieve in teaching, and their relationship with the students and the work environment. It suggested that teachers'

individual cultural backgrounds, personal experiences and contextual factors all contribute to variations in their beliefs about their roles, including how they understand their facilitator role, teach culture and build relationships with students. Research results also reveal some contextual factors that challenge teachers' beliefs about their roles, including inadequate teaching materials, limited access to professional training and students who lack motivation to learn.

Paper 4 is a case study using narrative inquiry to explore two novice Chinese as a Foreign Language (CFL) teachers' experiences and their belief change in Danish classrooms in their early years of teaching. Participants were one male native Danish teacher, teaching at a high school, and one female native Chinese teacher, teaching at an efterskole. Data collection for this study occurred over two years and included classroom observations, lesson plans, informal talks and audio-taped interviews. This study reveals that the interplay between the working context, teachers' personal experience, the mismatch between their expectations and classroom realities alongside their reflective practice affects the development of teacher beliefs. Teachers start their teaching careers with more teacher-oriented beliefs strongly rooted in their previous learning experiences and generally move their focus away from the teachers themselves, while gradually developing a more integrated view of teaching and the role of the teacher and the students. However, there are shifts of emphasis when faced with different students and academic and institutional requirements. In addition, teachers' belief change is not a linear process, as professional contexts and their prior conservative beliefs may constrain teachers' developing into more student-oriented beliefs. There are some core beliefs about how language should be best taught and learned that were formed in teachers' earlier schooling years and that remain resistant to change.

CHAPTER 2. RESEARCH CONTEXT

2.1. DANISH EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM AND EDUCATIONAL CULTURE

My research interest in CFL teachers is related to the recent rise in Chinese language education in Danish schools. Knowledge of the Danish educational system is required for research on CFL teachers' beliefs and teaching as the system is unique in many ways. The Danish system combines both primary and lower secondary education (grades 0-9) in the Folkeskole system that provides nine years of comprehensive education, together with a voluntary optional tenth year (grade 10) (McNess, 2004). Following this are three years of upper secondary school education and different levels of higher education. The folk schools (Folkeskole) in Denmark place great value on the following aspects: promoting a well-rounded development of the individual students, providing them with the knowledge and skills that will prepare them for further studies, the development of students' cosmopolitan awareness and responsibility and democratic world citizenship (Egekvist, 2012). There are three different types of upper secondary schools (general high school, commercial high school and technical high school), each with a different educational focus. Their educational aims have commonalities in "developing students' creative and innovative skills and critical thinking, personal reflection, independence and cooperation," and also "preparing pupils for participation, joint responsibility, rights and duties in a society based on freedom and democracy"[3].

Teaching and learning in the Danish school system focus on students' personal development and citizen formation (McNess, 2004), rather than "the mastery of knowledge and development of skills for students" (Du & Kirkebæk, 2012, p.15). Teachers have the reputation of building democratic relationships with students, and they value subject competence, citizenship education, democracy and autonomous learning (Dorf et al., 2012; Kelly et al., 2014). In terms of teaching and learning methods, group and project work is very popular in schools with the aim of encouraging students' active participation (Egekvist, 2012). The organization and administration in Danish educational institutions is characterized as being decentralized, which is reflected in the practice of teamwork and democracy in both teaching and learning in the classroom and the teachers' working environment (Egekvist, 2012). Teachers enjoy a great deal of professional autonomy with regard

---

[3] The aims of upper secondary school are available online at: https://www.retsinformation.dk/Forms/r0710.aspx?id=132542#K1

to issues of curriculum content, pedagogical practice and pupil assessment (McNess, 2004).

2.2. FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION AND TCFL IN DENMARK

In Denmark, foreign language learning is highlighted as a key factor in an international education and in cultivating globally competent professionals (TFL, 2011), with a growing variety of foreign languages being implemented as essential elements of internationalization strategies (Egekvist, 2012). English as the first foreign language is taught from grade 3. Students at Folkeskole (a Danish school system combining primary and lower secondary schools) are required to learn German or French as a second foreign language for at least two years. From grade 7, schools offer languages such as Chinese, Spanish and Portuguese, as third foreign languages, with or without certification. At high school, some of the more exotic languages, such as Chinese and Greek, are gaining more popularity, partly due to student interest in learning about the novelty of these languages and their distant cultural differences (Egekvist, 2012).

Though Chinese is not yet a highly ranked foreign language offered at Danish schools, there is still a positive future and a large space for its development with China's rising influential status and Denmark's increasing interest in China and Chinese culture. Three Confucius Institutes (CI) have been set up at three universities nation-wide to promote exchanges between the two countries and the teaching of Chinese language and culture. As a result of these initiatives, there has been an increase in the number of schools offering a Chinese program, and a growth in the number of students studying Chinese at beginner levels. More than 30 upper secondary schools offered Chinese classes in 2011 (Du & Kirkebæk, 2012). The updated official statistics on schools offering Chinese programs and Chinese language teachers are not available due to the increasing rate of growth in the past three years.

In general, Chinese language programs are mainly offered at the following educational institutions: (1) universities: four of the eight universities in Denmark offer Chinese courses as both majors and minors, where teachers are either full-time or part-time lecturers with the qualification to teach at the university level (some are teachers from the CI-affiliated to three Danish universities); (2) upper secondary schools: around 30 of the 150 high schools in Denmark offer Chinese language classes at different levels as part of the curriculum defined by the Ministry of Education as it is officially recognized as one of the third foreign languages students can choose from; teachers at high school are mostly full-time and often teach two subjects besides Chinese; (3) Folkeskole: Chinese classes are mostly offered as elective courses without credits since it has not yet been included in the

curriculum by the Ministry of Education; these courses are taught by part-time teachers, either from a CI or Chinese immigrants; and (4) public and private institutions: Chinese courses are mostly part-time for broad target groups including adult and professional learners, children of immigrant Chinese; these are taught by part-time teachers (either from a CI or Chinese immigrants) (Du & Kirkebæk, 2012, *Article 3*).

2.3. CFL TEACHERS IN DENMARK

The increasing need for learning Chinese language and culture in different educational institutions has increasingly made teaching places available for both native Danish and native Chinese speaking teachers who constitute the largest body of the CFL teacher group. This situation presents opportunities as well as challenges. It is a fact that Chinese language teaching in Denmark is a relatively newly established profession without clearly defined practices. According to the staff of the Chinese teachers' association in Denmark (a self-organized association established in 2011), there were around 40 members in 2015. The CFL teachers are in the explorative process of developing Chinese programs.

In summary, Chinese language teachers can be categorized into four groups according to their backgrounds: 1) Danish native speakers with Chinese as their major and with a master's degree from a Danish university qualifying them to teach in high schools and universities, and who receive obligatory pedagogy in service teacher training a few years after they enter this profession; 2) native Chinese speakers who have lived in Denmark for many years with a first degree from a China university and a master's degree from a Danish university, who are teaching Chinese as a second choice (having studied for another career) and 3) native Chinese speakers with a either bachelor or master's degree in TCFL and professional training in teaching Chinese internationally, many of whom are newcomers and are from the CI; 4) teachers from other countries with an educational background relevant to the Chinese language or China studies (see *Article 3*).

Most CFL teachers at high schools are native Danes who have not received any obligatory teacher education or training until a few years after their entering the profession. Others are mostly native Chinese with years of experience in Denmark. Some newcomer CFL teachers are native Chinese working in the CI or primary and lower secondary schools who face challenges teaching in a foreign context. Three CIs have made joint efforts to provide teacher training programs and seminars to facilitate the exchange of ideas and the native Chinese teachers' adaptation to the new context.

2.4. SUMMARY

This chapter provides the background information to the context in which this research is situated. It reviews the Danish educational system with some factual information and a discussion on the teaching and learning culture in Denmark, which emphasizes a democratic relationship between teacher and students and student-centred teaching methods, such as group work. The increased attention on foreign language education in relation to the internationalization strategy is discussed with an emphasis on the role of Chinese programs in these trends. The increase in Chinese programs and CFL teachers in Denmark implies an emerging need for research.

CHAPTER 3. THEORETICAL UNDERPINNINGS

This section is organized into four main parts. The first part provides a conceptual understanding of teacher belief by defining teacher belief, the belief system and relating belief orientations to belief change. The second part examines how beliefs of teachers, particularly language teachers, have been investigated and recognizes the important role of influential factors, such as experience and context, in understanding teacher belief. The third part specifically examines CFL teachers in the global context. It ends with a summary of the literature review.

3.1. THEORIZING TEACHER BELIEF

3.1.1. DEFINING TEACHER BELIEF

Teacher belief has been extensively researched both generally in education and in the language teaching field from diverse perspectives and with different purposes (Philip & Borg, 2009). A review of recent literature has shown a significant level of complexity of teacher belief because the definition of the term varies greatly and "different terms have been used to describe similar concepts" (Borg, 2003, p.8) The distinct terminology used in this field of study which overlaps with teacher belief in many ways include "teachers' knowledge" (Clandinin & Connelly, 1987, p. 487), "teachers' practical knowledge" (Driel et al., 2001, p. 138), "teacher cognition" (Borg, 2003; 2006) and "teachers' conceptions of teaching" (Biggs, 1989; Pratt, 1992; Kember, 1997). The inconsistency of terminology and lack of clear definition, as Pajares (1992) put it, has impeded the research on school teachers' beliefs (Kember, 1997).

Another important aspect that reflects the complexity inherent to the nature of belief is its complex relationship with knowledge. Though they have been examined as overlapping constructs (Kubanyiova, 2012), differences between these two concepts have been illustrated by some researchers, as can be summarized as below:

Table 1: Comparison between knowledge and belief

Item	Knowledge	Belief
1	"factual and proven information transmitted within an educational system" (Alexander, Murphy, Guan & A., 1998, p. 98)	"aligned with unproven but deeply-held convictions" (Alexander, Murphy, Guan & A., 1998, p. 98)

2	"Knowledge pertains to objective, verifiable fact" (Pajares 1992, p.70)	"beliefs are based on judgment and evaluation" (Pajares 1992, p.70)
3	Acquired through learning, experiencing and observing	Acquired mainly through experiencing
4	Easy to change and develop (Pajares, 1992)	Resistant to change (Pajares, 1992)
5	Objective, emotion-free	Subjective, emotion-related
6	Highly consistent	Can be competing and inconsistent

When teacher knowledge is viewed from a personal constructions perspective based on the connected relation between disciplinary knowledge and personal understanding and experiences, it is closely intertwined with teacher belief (Ennis, 1994). However, "knowledge alone is not adequate in making sense of all teachers' behaviour" which makes it necessary to explore teacher belief in order to "complete the missing paradigm", which is understanding how teachers think about teaching and subject matter, etc. (Zheng, 2009, p. 75).

Teacher belief has been a more commonly used term in the recent years. However, the same terminology has been defined very differently by researchers in this field. Kagan (1992, p. 66) regarded teachers' beliefs as "teachers' implicit assumptions about students, learning, classrooms, and the subject matter to be taught". Freeman (1993, p.488) depicted teacher belief as "teacher's understanding of the school context, the subject matter, or the students".

> "beliefs represent the rich store of general knowledge of objects, people, events and their characteristic relationships that teachers have that affects their planning and interactive thoughts and decisions, as well as their classroom behaviours" (Nisbett & Ross, 1980, cited in Fang, 1996, p.49).

Richards (1998) defines language teacher belief as the

> "information, attitudes, values expectations, theories, and assumptions about teaching and learning that teachers build up over time and bring with them to the classroom (p. 66).

It is difficult to define teacher belief since some researchers have broadened teacher belief to teacher cognition, which is ambiguous and includes a collection of teacher psychological constructs and integrates teacher knowledge with belief (Murphy et al., 2004). Despite this ambiguity, many studies prove some significant features of teachers' beliefs, which are described as follows:

- Beliefs are descriptive, prescriptive and evaluative (Rokeach, 1968; Pajares, 1992).
- Beliefs are implicit and tacit, though we might infer the beliefs teacher hold from their statements and classroom actions (Fang, 1996), there are difficulties in capturing teacher beliefs as they cannot be directly inferred from their behaviours and teachers are not used to articulating beliefs that they are unaware of (Kagan, 1992; Pajares, 1992).
- Beliefs filter the ways teachers "conceptualize teaching and themselves as teachers, and develop explanations for their own classroom practices" (Mak, 2011, p.54), as well as how teachers interpret new knowledge and information (Pajares, 1992).
- There is a strong relationship between teachers' beliefs and teachers' planning and decision making (Pajares, 1992; Van Driels et al., 2007).
- Evidence has shown both consistency and inconsistency between teachers' stated beliefs and what they do in the classroom (Phipps & Borg, 2009; Wu et al., 2011).
- Tensions exist among teachers' competing beliefs (Philips & Borg, 2009).
- Beliefs, especially those established early in life, are relatively stable and resistant to change (Kagan, 1992; Richardson, 1996).

In this research, teachers' beliefs include teachers' personal practical knowledge and implicit personal theories and assumptions about students, teaching methods, the role of the teacher, their relationship with students, teaching objectives, as well as the interplay of all the elements above in a certain context. The definition differs from others' in the following aspects: 1. It emphasizes belief as a system, including different aspects that interact with each other dynamically; 2. It is closely related to teachers' personal practical knowledge and professional identity and self; 3. It sees teacher belief as being cultural, contextual and personal in nature and being influenced by experience, culture and context.

3.1.2. UNDERSTANDING TEACHER BELIEF IN LANGUAGE EDUCATION

Current literature on language teachers' beliefs varies in different aspects: the research focus, aspects of beliefs investigated and data collection methodology (Mak, 2011). Those studies centre on the following themes: different aspects of beliefs (Lavigne, 2014; Ahonen, Pyhältö, Pietarinen, & Soini 2014), relationship between beliefs and classroom practice, student learning, teacher education, their past experience, etc. (Kane et al., 2002; Mak, 2011; Borg, 2006; Zheng, 2009).

Teacher belief exists as a system, which means that they have beliefs about different types and areas of teacher belief with differing intensity. Calderhead (1996) investigated five main domains in which teachers held significant beliefs; these were beliefs about learners and learning; about teaching; about the self and the teaching role, about the subject, and about learning to teach. According to Stevick, Hu and Wang (1998), teachers have beliefs about learners, learning, and the nature of language as a subject matter. In this study, the focus is on teachers' beliefs, prioritizing the following aspects: teacher role, students, teacher-student relationship, teaching methods, and teaching objectives. Williams and Burden (1997) categorize the teacher belief system into four areas: about learners, learning and teaching, and themselves as professionals, which provides a framework for data interpretation in a belief section. Within the whole system of teacher belief, there are connections between beliefs about specific aspects (Van Driel et al., 2009) which interact with each other dynamically (Zheng, 2009). As Pajares (1992, p.327) noted, it was important "to think in terms of connections among beliefs instead of in terms of beliefs of independent subsystems". Teachers have different views on how foreign language should be taught, and what to teach and focus on as well as the teaching aims. Teachers with a traditional view of language teaching, seeing teaching as knowledge transmission, would think and act very differently from those perceiving teaching as a constructive and interactive process (Zheng, 2009) (different belief orientations will be illustrated in the following section).

Teachers' beliefs about teaching objectives and the purpose of education shape their views on professional roles, which in turn shape how they give instructions and see students' roles (Tatto, 1998). If, for example, a teacher believes that language teaching is a one-way information implanting process which serves for evaluation, he or she would take a dominating role in class and see the students' roles as very passive. In addition, teachers' beliefs concerning the teacher and student's roles form the basis of the belief system, since they reflect their overall perceptions of teaching, learning and knowledge (Ahonen et al., 2014). Teachers' beliefs about themselves as teachers –what it means to be a teacher and how to perform in a teacher role– are closely related to teachers' professional identity, which refers to teachers' concepts of their self and their professional role (Lavigne, 2014, *Article 2).* Much research on professional identity reflects teachers' beliefs about the self and the teacher role in various contexts. There are also studies on the beliefs teachers have related to the students, such as their beliefs about the characteristics of students (Lavigne, 2014), the diversity of students (Pohan & Aguilar, 2001) and the age group of students they teach (Bibou-Nakou & Kiosseoglou, 2000; Lavigne, 2014). Teachers' beliefs about teacher and student roles are crucial components in determining their relationship with students and the ways in which language teaching is conducted (Varghese et al., 2005). Therefore, teachers' beliefs about teacher-student role relations reflect their understanding of relational boundaries, closeness and patterns of interaction between teacher and students. Few studies have explored the dynamics of different areas of teachers' beliefs. For a better

understanding of the complex nature of teacher belief, it is necessary to examine the qualitative features of different aspects of teachers' beliefs (Zheng, 2009), which is one of the purposes of this study.

Teachers' beliefs vary not only in type but also in strength (Block & Hazelip, 1995, cited in Kane et al., 2002). It should be noted that different areas of teacher beliefs do not necessarily have the same impact on teachers' actions (Zheng, 2009). Some are core and dominant (Rokeach, 1968), while others are peripheral. The more a belief is connected with other beliefs within the belief system, the more central it is, thus the more it is resistant to change (Green, 1971; Pajares, 1992). However, little evidence from research in both general education and the language education field has shown what constitutes a core belief (Phipps and Borg, 2009, p.381; Borg, 2006), and little is known about which type of beliefs are easier to change and which are not (Zheng, 2009). According to Clark and Peterson (1986), the most resilient and core beliefs are formed based on teachers' schooling experiences as learners while observing their teachers' teaching and are most closely related to the individual's self. The resilient core beliefs of teachers are "situated within a broader system of beliefs about education, society and even human nature" (Richards et al., 2001, cited in Moloney & Xu, 2015, p. 3), and are "implicit assumptions about how learning occurs and about the role of the teacher in enabling this learning" (Wu et al., 2011, cited in Moloney & Xu, 2015, p.3).

3.1.3. BELIEF ORIENTATIONS AND BELIEF CHANGE

Markic and Eilks (2008, cited in Al-Amoush et al., 2013) confirmed a range of teacher beliefs which spans the gap between student-centred and teacher-centred approaches. Teacher-centred teaching is often related to the subject-matter-oriented way of thinking (Billig et al., 1988), which focuses on imparting subject matter and the reproduction of correct information and knowledge by students (Al-Amoush et al., 2013). Teachers with this belief orientation often have more traditional attitudes towards teaching and believe strongly in direct transmission. They see the regulation of students' learning process as their main role and responsibility. A quiet classroom is seen by them as an example of good discipline, which is most conducive to learning (Meirink et al., 2009). In contrast, learner-oriented beliefs put stress on facilitating the students' learning by themselves and on the mutual construction of knowledge (Al-Amoush et al., 2013). These teachers tend to hold firm to the belief that students should take an active role in learning.

These two different belief orientations are considered constructivist beliefs about instruction and direct transmission beliefs about instruction. Teachers' roles are seen very differently in these two belief orientations. Constructivist belief features a view of the teacher as a facilitator of students' learning who gives more autonomy to students; a direct transmission view perceives the teacher as the instructor who

provides direct information and demonstrates solutions (Bramald et al., 1995; Van Driel et al., 2007). Teachers' beliefs about the roles of the teacher and the students in the teaching and learning process are a major dimension in teachers' belief orientations. Teachers who value students' active role are believed to indicate higher levels of belief orientations (Samuelowicz & Bain, 1992).

Entwistle and Walker (2002) described the two poles of belief as a hierarchical structure, with the teacher-focused and content-oriented as the least developed, and the student-focused, learning-oriented as the most sophisticated (p. 341). Whether there are intermediate beliefs between constructive and traditional views is in dispute (Samuelowicz & Bain, 1992). However, some studies have found that many teachers combine elements of both subject-matter oriented beliefs and learner-oriented beliefs in their teaching (Denessen, 1999, cited in Van Driel et al., 2007; Minor et al. 2002, cited in Al-Amoush et al., 2013). Certain teaching beliefs might be more appropriate in different cultural contexts (Kane et al., 2002). Previous studies provide evidence that student-centred belief orientations received more support among teachers who valued students' learning and their opinions (Samuelowicz and Bain 1992). Particularly when teachers' beliefs, including those about the role of a teacher, are explored within the constructivist paradigm, teachers are expected to extend their role from a sole dispenser of knowledge and to endorse a more student-oriented approach to teaching and learning (Holt-Reynolds, 2000).

Many studies focus on the contents of teacher belief rather than on the process of belief change in teachers (Borg, 2003), especially those teaching in a cultural context different from the one they were educated in. Existing studies on belief change are mostly on how teacher education programs change student/pre-service teachers or make comparisons of novice and expert teachers, which generally lack a longitudinal perspective. The task of modifying teacher belief is very difficult (Meirink et al., 2008). According to Pajares (1992), it is more difficult to change beliefs that have been held for a long time than newly formed ones that are still developing. Despite this, it is not necessarily impossible for teachers to change their beliefs. The majority of teacher education and training aims to develop teacher beliefs of teaching that are more sophisticated (Entwistle & Walker, 2002). Some studies have revealed that properly constructed educational programs can potentially move prospective teachers' beliefs away from more teacher-oriented and content-structured ideas towards more learner-oriented content and methods (Markic & Eilks 2013). When teachers move from novice teachers to expert and experienced teachers, there are possibilities for them to become more aware of students' self-regulated learning and gradually develop more sophisticated student-oriented beliefs about teaching as a result of accumulated teaching experience. They tend to think about teaching more from the learners' perspectives (Borg, 2003, 2006, *Article 4*). In order to achieve a change in belief towards student-orientation, there are four procedures to undertake, namely the recognition of the current beliefs, the

evaluation and investigation, the decision to make a change, and the reconstruction of a new belief structure (Tillema & Knol, 1997, cited in Meirink et al., 2008).

3.2. FACTORS SHAPING TEACHER BELIEF

Different factors have been reported to influence teachers' beliefs. Inspired by Borg's (2003, 2006) model for studying language teacher cognition, which builds relationships between teacher cognition, schooling, professional education, contextual factors, and classroom practice, the literature review in this section focuses on empirical work that supports connections between teacher belief, experience, contextual factors and classroom practice. The role of educational culture and schema in shaping teachers' beliefs will be illustrated in relation to the study on CFL teachers in section 3.3.

Nespor (1987) noted that the nature of belief is drawn from memories, personal experiences, and cultural knowledge. The various recourses for the formation and development of beliefs include critical life incidents, learning experiences, particularly language learning experience, professional experience as well as intercultural experiences, (Garmon, 2005). Richardson (1996) identified three different types of experience that exert influence on teachers' beliefs: (1) personal life experience, which is closely related to one's worldviews and understanding of the relationship between oneself and others in society. (2) Schooling experience, especially language learning experience from observing previous teachers' teaching practices, has negative or positive influence on teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning (Zheng, 2009); for example, in a study by Golombek (1998), a teacher with negative experience of being corrected by her previous teachers as a learner resulted in her being very cautious of correcting students. (3) Experience with formal knowledge, including teachers' pedagogical knowledge of classroom management and an understanding of the subject matter and students' learning of this subject (cited in Abramova, 2011). In addition, experience with other cultures influences teachers' work with students of diverse cultural backgrounds. Teachers with little experience of other cultures felt unprepared when working with students from diverse backgrounds (Hollins & Guzman, 2005).

The role of teacher education and training programs in changing teachers' beliefs is still arguable (Borg, 2006). According to Pajares (1992), the "thousands of hours teachers spend in the classroom as students far outweigh the effects of this education" (p. 322). Though teacher education and development programs are influential in shaping teachers' actions during teaching practice and practicum; it is hard to change teachers' overall beliefs (Pajares, 1992; Zheng, 2009). There is increasing evidence that teacher education could promote changes in teachers' beliefs (Tang et al., 2012; Yuan & Lee, 2014). Woods (1996) revealed that teaching experiences contribute to the beliefs teachers hold about language teaching. There is

a "symbiotic relationship" between teacher belief and their classroom practice, whereby the two mutually shape each other (Foss & Kleinsasser 1996, p. 441; Borg, 2003, p. 91). Though teacher belief influences teachers' pedagogical practices, these practices don't always reflect their stated beliefs due to various factors. Changes in teaching practice do not necessarily imply or accompany changes in beliefs (Prawat, 1992).

Contexts play a significant role in both teaching and learning (Smith, 1996; Borg, 2006). Teacher beliefs are context-defined and context-dependent (Samuelowicz & Bain, 1992). This means that they are related to the educational circumstances in which the teachers work and live. According to Borg (2003, p. 94), the "social, psychological, and environmental realities" related to the classroom, school, school district, and greater society shape teachers' beliefs and practices and influence to what extent beliefs are consistent with practices. Other contextual factors, including school leaders' requirements, the prescribed curriculum, academic tests and the availability of teaching resources, may prevent teachers from acting in accordance with their cognitions (Borg, 1999, p. 23, Phipps & Borg, 2009).

3.3. CFL TEACHERS' BELIEFS IN INTERNATIONAL CONTEXTS

Research in the field of TCFL and the role of teacher belief on TCFL is both very limited and recent (Wang & Kirkpatrick, 2012; Moloney, 2013). In the few studies carried out on CFL teachers in countries such as the US, the UK, Australia and New Zealand, the recurring themes have been related to differences in educational culture and pedagogical discourse between China and the context in which they are teaching, as well as the challenges along with the competing discourses and educational culture.

Native Chinese speaking teachers' beliefs and pedagogical practices have often been presented as having the following characteristics with limitations seen through "the lens of Western education schema expectations" (Moloney, 2013, p. 216): (1) reliance on teaching textbooks, Chinese characters and grammar at the expense of students' communicative skills (Chi, 1989; Wang et al., 2013; Wang, 2015; Moloney & Xu, 2015); (2) emphasis on lecturing, memorization, drills and rote learning (Orton, 2008; Scrimgeour & Wilson, 2009; Wang, 2015); (3) teaching culture as fixed artefacts (Orton, 2008; Moloney, 2013); and (4) maintaining authority in the teacher role image (Courcy, 1997; Scrimgeour & Wilson, 2009). The very limited study on non-native Chinese speaking teachers showed that they tend to adhere to Western education schema and communicative language teaching, and that they were dedicated to innovative pedagogy with technology (Moloney & Xu, 2015).

3.3.1. CFL TEACHERS' INTERNATIONAL EXPERIENCE

In the Australian context, where 90% of CFL teachers are native Chinese, the research on TCFL and CFL teachers has reported various issues (Orton, 2008). Courcy's (1997) study reported that Chinese teachers experienced conflicts and difficulties in intercultural communication in the Australian context. Moreover, some teachers placed too much focus on grammar teaching and one-way teacher lectures, which were considered by students to be bad. This study also reported that one teacher changed her beliefs about teaching and acquired new concepts such as the student-centred approach. However, an in-depth understanding of the teachers' belief change process and their interpretation of student-centeredness was lacking. Orton's (2008) study showed that the teaching practices of native Chinese speaking teachers in Australia featured an "emphasis on drilling, rote-learning and reliance on character teaching, at the expense of communicative oral work", which influenced the quality of Chinese education in a negative way and resulted in a high drop-out rate among students. They were also observed to give little consideration to the "communicative strategies and intercultural skills mandated by the syllabus" and they often had difficulties in introducing cultural content in language teaching because they were not well trained in Western culture and sociology (Moloney, 2013, p.215).

Scrimgeour and Wilson (2009) reported that native Chinese speaking teachers' pedagogical practices did not fit into the local Australian cultural contexts, and that they put too much stress on the teachers' authoritative role that could not be questioned by students. Another study by Moloney and Xu (2015) on a group of nine CFL teachers of different ages, school sectors, countries of origin and educational backgrounds revealed that educational background influences teacher beliefs, which in turn impact their pedagogical transition in overseas teaching environments. They identified three groups of teacher beliefs within the CFL teacher group in Australia, namely (1) beliefs which align with the characteristics of the traditional Chinese education schema (teachers from mainland China), beliefs which align with the constructivist teaching principles and Western education schema (teachers with Western countries of origin and from Hong Kong and Taiwan) and beliefs transitioning in-between (Chinese, including Taiwan and Hong Kong).

A case study conducted by Sun (2012) on a native Chinese speaking teacher teaching Chinese as a foreign language in New Zealand revealed that the educational culture and traditions from the home country still influenced her beliefs about teaching and instructional practice in class. The teacher had been maintaining a "virtuoso teacher" role image to ensure that "everything should go smoothly" in the class even when she was teaching in a context different to her previous

Confucius culture, which prioritizes teachers' teaching performance over student learning (p. 763).

In the context of the US, Chinese teaching at schools has "remained dominated by textbook pedagogy, at the expense of listening and speaking skills" (Chi, 1989, cited in Moloney, 2013, p. 216). A case study on a group of native speaker Chinese teachers from Hanban at an American CI revealed that teaching in an overseas context did not lead to a direct change in CI teachers' beliefs. The Chinese educational schema, the characteristics of the Chinese language together with teachers' previous successful experience were shaping their beliefs. Some core beliefs, such as "prioritizing accuracy over fluency" and a stress on grammar teaching, were not easily changed (Wang, 2015, p. 152). Several heritage language teachers who are native Chinese from Taiwan have been reported to view their job of TCFL as a secondary job in American community-based schools, and they regard transmitting culture as the core responsibility of their job (Wu et al., 2011).

In the UK, according to Zhang and Li (2010), the lack of qualified and experienced teachers of Chinese at British schools has been a constraining factor for the further development of CFL education. More relevant research on teaching and learning Chinese as well as CFL teachers are needed to solve the problems of teachers, materials and teaching.

3.3.2. IDENTIFIED CHALLENGES CFL TEACHERS FACE

The previous research on CFL teachers in the Western context identified the challenges CFL teachers face in adapting to the new school system in various contexts, such as developing adequate teaching pedagogy to motivate students and to meet their needs, and dealing with relationships with students. The reasons behind these challenges include inadequate teacher training and pedagogical knowledge to teach in intercultural/cross-cultural contexts, inadequate teaching materials (Zhang & Li, 2010), a limited understanding of Western culture, pedagogy, sociology and intercultural communication skills, and a lack of institutional and professional support (Wang & Higgins, 2008; Singh & Han, 2014; Moloney & Xu, 2015). There is evidence that native Chinese speaking teachers are making efforts to deal with these challenges and are making adjustments to their practices and beliefs in order to adapt to the local school culture. For example, some native Chinese teachers in the Australian school context have adopted the local pedagogical beliefs that learning should be fun and relevant to students (Moloney & Xu, 2015). However, there has been no in-depth description of a detailed belief change process in previous studies.

3.3.3. EDUCATIONAL CULTURE SHAPING CFL TEACHERS' BELIEFS

Researchers often attribute CFL teachers' beliefs to their educational culture and schema (Moloney & Xu, 2015; Wang, 2015). Particularly for native Chinese speaking teachers, who constitute the largest body of CFL teachers globally, their beliefs and practices are believed to be influenced by the Chinese education schema and cultural values, particularly Confucian ideas on teaching and learning (Wang & Higgins, 2008; Sun, 2012; Wang et al., 2013; Moloney & Xu, 2012 & 2016; Wang, 2015). Therefore, in order to understand the values and principles that shape teachers' beliefs and practices, I here give a brief overview of the educational culture and schema in China and the European context, which has been covered in many comparative studies.

Some studies use the term Chinese conceptions of teaching, referring to culturally shared beliefs, and relate them to Confucian ideas on teaching and learning (Ho, 2004; Zhang, 2004). In the educational culture characterized by Confucian ideas, teaching is like performing an art where the teaching performance of teachers, who are "virtuoso" models, rather than students' learning, is the primary focus (Sun, 2012; Cortazzi & Jin, 1996). Learning is more about memorizing and mastery instead of a discovery process (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996). The Chinese teacher's role is conceptualized as the authority of knowledge while students are regarded as passive learners whose interactive and creative classroom behaviours are not encouraged (Biggs, 1996; Gao & Watkins, 2001; Ho, 2004). Compared to Western teachers, they are more teacher-centred and parent-like and have a hierarchical relationship with their students (Pratt et al., 1999; Ho & Hau, 2004).

The cultures in Nordic countries are characterized by a low power distance which influences their educational culture in terms of, for example, teaching and teacher-student relationships. The communicative language teaching approach which advocates learner-centeredness is regarded as "a Western language teaching method" (Burnaby & Sun, 1989, cited in Moloney & Xu, 2015, p. 3). Compared to their counterparts, teachers in these countries tend to view students as active participants in the process of acquiring knowledge with more student-oriented constructivist views of teaching (OECD, 2009). They often see themselves as learning facilitators and value students' personal interpretation, self-expression and individualization (Pratt, 1992; Pratt et al, 1999; Sun, 2012). Some comparative studies reveal that Danish teachers are well-known for their democratic relationships with students, and they stress citizenship education, democracy and learner autonomy (Osborn, 1999; Dorf et al., 2012; Kelly et al., 2014). Danish teachers' role image and beliefs are depicted very differently from that of native Chinese speaking teachers in the existing comparative studies.

The above studies show the differences between Chinese and Western educational cultures and schema which shape teachers' conceptualizations of the teacher role, student role and the nature of teaching and learning. However, belief gaps across the cultural context in these studies indicate that contextual factors as well as educational culture should be taken more seriously to uncover the complexities of beliefs that CFL teachers hold in intercultural contexts. In addition, we should avoid the pitfalls of stereotyping and making interpretations and assumptions based only on simple cultural attribution and dichotomous educational cultural distinction.

3.4. SUMMARY

Based on the major findings of the literature review, we view teacher belief as a complex system containing many aspects, among them the teacher role, students, teacher-student relationship, teaching methods and objectives, which are significant in influencing their classroom behaviour and interaction with students. Teacher belief is framed by factors related to their past experience, classroom practice, current context for teaching, and educational culture, which are important aspects to examine. Teacher/content-oriented belief and student/learning-oriented belief represent two different teaching philosophies, and could be related to a discussion on how teachers' beliefs about the above aspects change.

A review of the literature on CFL teachers implies a strong influence of educational culture on teacher belief, as well as an imperative need for further research on the surfacing beliefs of CLF teachers of different cultural and pedagogical backgrounds, making them explicit in intercultural contexts as they are facing diverse challenges while, at the same time, representing an important group in the teaching force in language teaching worldwide. Existing literature on CFL teachers also shows that very few studies have specifically explored CFL teachers in the Danish context where the local Danish and the native Chinese constitute the two largest groups of CFL teachers. It would be interesting to explore the beliefs of CFL teachers who are of Chinese and European origin to obtain a full picture of the CFL classroom realities in the Danish context and to learn what they believe and how they change their beliefs in the diverse teaching contexts throughout their professional lives. In this study, I acknowledge the cultural and linguistic diversity within the CFL teacher group, and "wish to avoid the essentialising" that has been a feature of some "studies of students and teachers with Chinese origins" (Dervin, 2011, cited in Moloney & Xu, 2015, p. 2).

CHAPTER 4. METHOLOGICAL DESIGN AND RESEARCH PROCESS

This chapter mainly describes the methodological design and the research process. It begins with methodological issues in previous studies on teacher belief, followed by the rationale of choosing the qualitative approach. It also presents the developmental research process with a detailed description of the methods of data collection and data analysis. The chapter ends with a reflective summary.

4.1. RESEARCH METHODS ON TEACHER BELIEF

In the existing literature, both quantitative and qualitative methods have been employed to investigate teacher belief. Quantitatively, self-report instruments, such as questionnaire surveys and tests consisting of a series of questions which require responses from participants, are used to elicit beliefs (Borg, 2006). Questionnaires have been widely applied to study teachers' beliefs in the language teaching field. Among them, the Likert-scale instrument BALLI (Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory) has often been used to study learners' beliefs (Bernat & Gvozdenko, 2005) and language teachers' beliefs (Peacock, 2001). The BALLI instrument examines teacher belief with regards to five aspects related to foreign language learning: foreign language aptitude, difficulty of language learning, the nature of language learning, communication and learning strategies, motivation and expectations (Horwitz, 1988, cited in Borg, 2006).

Questionnaires such as BALLI have been used not only to compare the beliefs of language teachers to those of students (Altan, 2006), but also to assess teachers' change in their beliefs during teacher education programs (Peacock, 2001) in a longitudinal study. Questionnaires enable researchers to quickly collect large amounts of data. However, utilizing a multiple-choice-type instrument and a Likert-scale instrument to gather data about teacher belief is seen by Richardson as "too constraining" (1996, p. 107) and as not validly representing teacher belief. When researchers use instruments to study teachers that have been built based on their own expectations, the study itself could become a "self-filling prophecy" (Kane et al., p.197). Limited by their quantitative nature, these studies were criticized by researchers for not providing a comprehensive understanding of teacher belief. They failed to capture the complex personal and contextual nature of teacher belief in that it did not show how the influencing factors, such as experience and teaching context, played a role in the formation and development of teacher belief (Richardson, 1996).

Most of the studies on teacher belief are qualitative in order to involve the context and experience of the participants (Borg, 2003). Structured and semi-structured interviews and self-reports are widely used to elicit participants' tacit and implicit mental thoughts by asking them to talk and to join a conversation, providing rich qualitative data. Though this approach does take teachers' experience into consideration in understanding teacher belief, it ignores the fact that teachers' beliefs are also contextual and that it is not enough to infer them only from words. Another approach to research on teacher belief applies multiple methods, including interviews, observations, teachers' diaries and lesson plans. This approach recognizes the significant role of both context and experience. Classroom observations are increasingly being used as data collection methods to relate what teachers say they wish to achieve and believe with what they do in the classroom (Borg, 2006). Though it is time consuming and limited to a small number of participants, they provide descriptive data of what teachers do in the class.

4.2. THE RATIONALE FOR CHOOSING THE QUALITATIVE STUDY

This study uses qualitative approaches as a result of the research purpose and the nature of the research questions. The main purpose of this study, as stated in the first chapter, is to gain a better understanding of the factors shaping CLF teachers' beliefs, their belief change and ultimately the teaching realities of CFL in Danish educational settings. I intend to achieve this research purpose by answering questions such as what the factors shaping CFL teachers' beliefs in the Danish context are and how CFL teachers change their beliefs during their course of teaching. These what and how questions indicate that this study is not interested in exploring the casual and direct relationship between different variables (Creswell, 1994), which are addressed by quantitative studies.

A qualitative study is defined by Creswell (1994, pp. 1-2) as

> "an inquiry process of understanding a social or human problem, based on building a complex, holistic picture, formed with words, reporting detailed views of informants, and conducted in a natural setting".

The basic idea underlying the qualitative study is that "meaning is socially constructed by individuals in interaction with their world", which is not fixed but changing and complicated (Merriam, 2002, p. 3). So the key interest of qualitative researchers is in learning people's multiple interpretations and constructions of the world. According to Marshall and Rossman (1995), a qualitative study is designed to understand a poorly understood phenomena and a process, to uncover the meaning in a particular situation, and to discover the contextual factors. In this study, I intend to explore CFL teachers' teaching experience, to investigate the

nature of the experience of teaching Danish students in a foreign context for native Chinese speaking teachers, and to understand their interpretations in the situated context as well as the process of their belief change when adapting to new teaching context.

In addition, teacher belief, as the focus of the study, is context-dependent (Rokeach, 1968; Pajares, 1992). Therefore, in order to better study teacher belief, one must take the contextual factors, which have been ignored by quantitative research approaches, into account (Borg, 2006). The main purpose of qualitative methods is to "understand the nature of that setting –what it means for participants to be in that setting, what their lives are like, what's going on for them, what their meanings are, what the world looks like in that particular setting" (Patton, 1985, p. 1). Thus, a qualitative research approach was seen to be most suitable for my study.

Compared with the quantitative method, a qualitative approach has many benefits to offer in this study. It provides a detailed view of teachers' beliefs, experience and classroom realities; moreover, "the analysis strives for a depth of understanding" (Patton, 1985, p. 1) of these issues. Since I, as the researcher, am the major instrument of data collection, I play an important role in the research and in the relationship with participants by clarifying and summarizing the material, checking with participants regarding the accuracy of interpretation, and exploring unanticipated responses (Merriam, 2002).

4.3. THE OVERVIEW OF THE EMPIRICAL WORK OF THE STUDY

The empirical work of the study is driven by the two research questions: What are the factors shaping the beliefs of CFL teachers in the Danish context, and how do CFL teachers change their beliefs during their course of teaching in the Danish context? This question consists of four sub questions, each of which is addressed in one article (see figure 1) The formulation of the sub research questions is informed by the research process as well as the theoretical perspective of understanding of teacher belief that sees belief as a complex system containing different aspects, the change of which is subject to various personal, cultural and contextual factors.
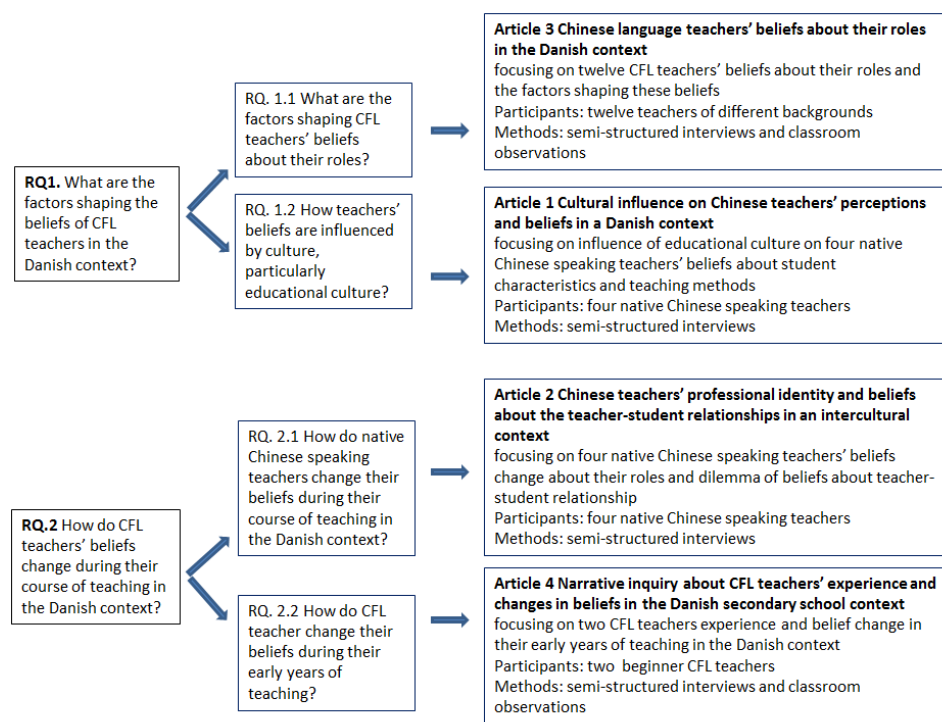
Figure 4-1 Overview of the empirical work of the study

4.4. THE DEVELOPMENTAL RESEARCH PROCESS

Research studies often begin with a researcher's curiosity about something, and that "something" is often related to the researcher's family, work or self, for example. The start of the search could also be initiated from the "social and political issues of the day or from the literature" (Merriam, 2002, p. 11). That "something" that drives my study is related to my own background and teaching experience after a shifting of context from China to Denmark as well as the research gap identified in the relevant literature on teacher belief and CFL teachers. As described in the opening section of the thesis, my interest in teacher belief as the research focus is prompted by my learning and teaching trajectories, particularly the challenges I encountered after I started teaching Chinese as a foreign language in Denmark in 2011. The challenges related to, for example, adopting more student-centred teaching methods to involve students' active participation, designing content that fit to students' needs and interests, performing an appropriate teacher role, and maintaining a more equal and democratic relationship with students, pushed me to critically reflect upon my past experiences and beliefs. I realized that it was the well-established set of beliefs, framed by my past experiences, especially the schooling experience in the Chinese educational system, of which some are conservative and not compatible with the

Danish context that brought me challenges and struggles. I began to wonder: what ideas and understandings do other CFL teachers have about teaching in Danish classrooms? Do they have the same beliefs as me, and if not, then what factors constitute the differences in our beliefs? Will CFL teachers change their beliefs while adapting to the teaching context? With these questions, I began the research process by doing a PhD project.

The research process is developmental and is shaped by four questions: (1) the "what" question, which helps to identify the research question and focus; (2) the "why" question, which is related to the need and necessity of the research; (3) the "how" question, concerning the research methods; (4) the "so what" question, which is about the contribution and the value of the research (Gray & Malins, 2004). An important feature of this research process is that it is exploratory and non-linear, with a focus shift at each phase. Since the findings of the study at each phase may lead me to slightly modify the research questions and change the focus of the research interest, it is inherently a developmental and flexible process in which new findings and experience lead me to add to, reflect upon and restructure the ideas in a progressive and non-linear way, moving towards a clearer organization of the research structure. A brief description of the research process is presented in the figure below. Some foci could be revisited with reflection and analysis during the process. An illustration of the research methods and data collection methods will be presented at each stage.
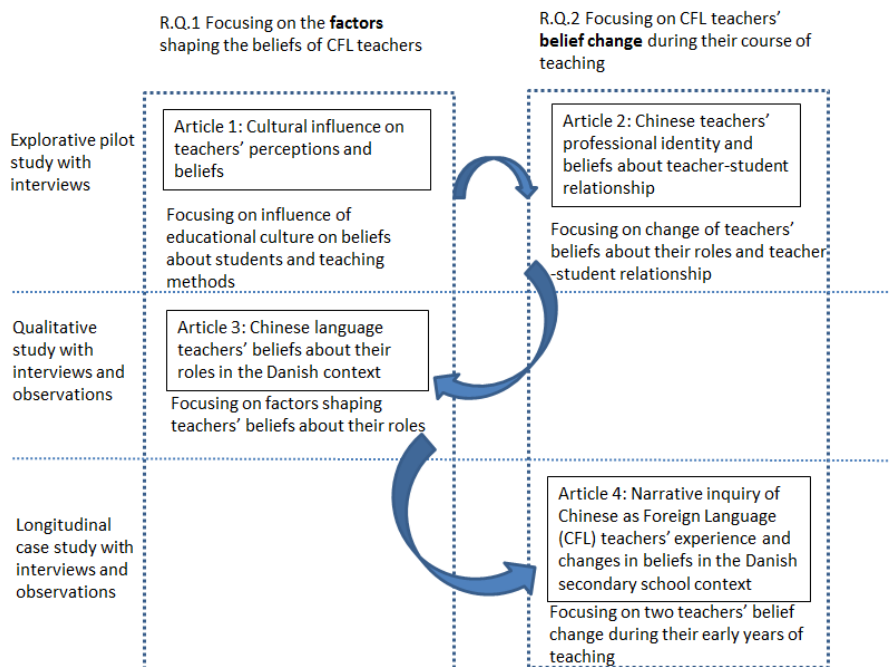
Figure 4-2 Overview of the developmental research process

4.4.1. THE EXPLORATIVE PILOT STUDY

At the very beginning, I was very sure of one thing; it was CFL teachers' beliefs and the factors shaping these beliefs in which I was interested. The initial focus of the process was on formulating the research questions and acquiring the conceptual tools, which was accomplished mainly through a review of the literature, including the extensive review work by Borg (2003, 2006) and the review article by Pajares (1992). I learned that "individuals develop a belief system that houses all the beliefs acquired through the process of cultural transmission", which implies that teachers' beliefs are culturally rooted and are influenced by their culture of origin (Pajares, 1992, p. 325). The small number of existing studies on CFL teachers reveals that their beliefs and practices in overseas contexts are still highly influenced by the education culture in which they were educated (Sun, 2012). Therefore, I assumed that culture, particularly educational culture, plays an important role in teacher belief. At the same time, the research group I had joined in our department was working on a book project on how the teaching and learning culture influences teachers' teaching and thinking in various educational settings. I was inspired to focus on educational culture and its interplay with teacher belief. Therefore, I decided to conduct an explorative study to explore *how CFL teachers' beliefs are*

influenced by culture, particularly educational culture, before answering an overall question such as *what are the factors shaping the beliefs of CFL teachers' in the Danish context (research question 1).* Teachers hold beliefs about various aspects, and they interact most with students during teaching activities (Lavigne, 2014). Beliefs about two aspects, student characteristics and teaching methods, turned out to be more interesting. The findings on how teachers' beliefs about students' characteristics and teaching methods are influenced by educational culture are presented in *Article 1*, which was also part of a book project. I consider the initial stage of the first study to be a pilot study because the research at this stage is an attempt to lay the groundwork that will lead to following studies, and to further develop the research question and research protocol.

I invited four native Chinese speaking teachers and did a series of semi-structured interviews and had informal talks with them, focusing on how they spoke of their beliefs in relation to their educational and teaching experience in two contexts. The four teachers constantly highlighted and compared the vast differences in students, teaching methods, teacher roles and educational cultures between their home country and the Danish context, which led me to focus on presenting and discussing how teachers' beliefs about student characteristics and teaching methods were influenced by the educational culture they originated from and the Danish context (*Article 1*). Another recurring theme in the first study was that the shift from one educational culture to another has brought about change, adjustments, and developments in their beliefs, regarding not only teaching methods but also their role image and relationship with students (*Article 2*). The change in teacher belief constitutes an important theme in their process of adapting to a new context. I realized that I had to change the research focus from the factors shaping teacher belief to changes of belief, particularly regarding their role as a teacher and their relationship with students, which laid the ground for the further exploration of these four teachers. However, due to the length of the article, I could not present all the findings and discussions regarding beliefs, cultural influence on beliefs, and the change in beliefs into one article. The question that guided me at the later stage of the pilot study was *how do native Chinese speaking teachers change their beliefs during their course of teaching in the Danish context.* Literature on teachers' beliefs about their roles largely overlapped with that on teachers' professional identity. There was no clear distinction between these two items. Therefore, I used professional identity in the title, and used the two terms interchangeably in *Article 2*. However, for the consistency of terms in the PhD study, I used beliefs about their roles as one aspect of teacher belief in this thesis.

4.4.1.1 Research methods

As stated in the earlier sections, the research focus on CFL teachers' beliefs decides its qualitative paradigm. The first study I did on four native Chinese speaking teachers focused on how their beliefs were influenced by culture, particularly

educational culture, and their change of beliefs regarding their roles during their course of teaching in the Danish context, which are related to sub-questions 1.2 and 2.1. I realized that the study is descriptive and interpretive and it exemplifies all the characteristics of a qualitative study: focusing on searching for meaning and understanding; the researcher as the primary instrument of data collection and analysis; an inductive investigative strategy; and richly descriptive data (Merriam, 2002, p. 6). Specifically speaking, the study is qualitative with ethnographic interviews which are built upon the theoretical perspective that sees culture as a living, dynamic and social construct (Kramsch, 1993, cited in Allen, 2000, p. 52). Individuals view people, events and the outside world through their own culturally conditioned and individually formed schemas. These schemas, like beliefs, are formed based on experience. People of a certain culture tend to share similar schema underlying their beliefs. So, I chose ethnographic interviews to study the cultural understandings and implications of their beliefs, which I believe will assist in learning the culture of the CFL teachers.

4.4.1.2 Data collection

Four native Chinese speaking teachers, who were immigrants to different geographical areas of Denmark, were chosen as participants in the study (participants' information is presented in *Article 1* and *Article 2*). They were born and educated in mainland China before coming to Denmark, had many years of teaching and living experience in Denmark, were all in their forties, and were teaching secondary school students. As the first pilot study served to lay the groundwork for the follow-up study on teachers' beliefs about different aspects and how these beliefs came to be, the interview protocols were loosely structured to explore participants' personal background information, their beliefs, experiences and challenges in the Danish educational settings. From February 2013 to May 2013, teachers were interviewed several times, mostly face-to-face. Some interviews and informal talks were conducted through phone calls because the four teachers were teaching at three different cities that were set some distance apart. In the initial interviews, I gathered basic background information about the four participants, explained the purpose of the interview, and established a good rapport with them. Later, I asked many open ended questions to encourage them to speak. I observed that the teachers' views focused on student characteristics and teaching methods, which were strongly influenced by the educational culture in both China and Denmark, and that they had experienced a change in their beliefs regarding being a teacher and the teacher-student relationship. Therefore, interviews conducted at the later stage of this study aimed to elicit their developmental views on how they saw themselves as teachers and how they dealt with the relationships with students during their course of teaching in this ongoing process of collecting data.

4.4.2. THE QUALITATIVE STUDY WITH BROADER SCALE OF CFL TEACHERS

After the explorative pilot study, which revealed that educational culture influences CFL teachers' beliefs in many ways and especially in how they interpret students' behaviours, how to conduct teaching and their role images, I realized that I should move to the first main research question, which is more general: *what are the factors shaping teachers' beliefs?* The empirical work in the pilot study and the literature review helped me to focus on teachers' beliefs regarding their roles. This was regarded as the essential aspect of teachers' belief systems, as these beliefs reflect teachers' beliefs about other aspects, their understanding of the key elements of teaching, the concept of what constitutes a good teacher and a good education, and their position in relation to students and colleagues (Ahonen et al., 2014). Therefore, the research question guiding the qualitative study at this stage was narrowed down to *what are the factors shaping CFL teachers' beliefs about their roles?* (See *Article 3*)

4.4.2.1 Research methods

Qualitative research aims to provide an in-depth understanding of people's perspectives and experiences in the context of their personal circumstances or settings (Merriam, 2002). In the second qualitative study of the research, my main concern was to understand the CFL teachers' beliefs regarding their roles and the factors that contribute to the variations in their beliefs. Through uncovering their beliefs regarding their roles, I also intend to reveal and discuss their beliefs about other aspects, such as teaching methods, objectives, teaching content, and relationships with students, which are all interrelated in the belief systems. Therefore, in order to achieve this goal, a framework has been built in this study to conceptualize teachers' beliefs regarding their roles from three perspectives: how teachers plan and conduct teaching, what they want to emphasize and achieve in teaching and their relationship with students and the context. This approach to categorising teacher belief regarding their roles is used to both provide a better understanding of the teacher role conceptually and to establish a tool to analyse and interpret the empirical data in this paper. I found that teachers' different cultural and educational backgrounds and their schooling experience still exerted great influence on their current beliefs. Contextual factors, such as their work environments and students' motivations, also influenced their views on their roles.

4.4.2.2 Data generation

In the initial stage of the study, I only involved four native Chinese speaking teachers teaching at secondary schools. Later, I gained more knowledge about the research context, whereby larger bodies of CFL teachers at Danish schools,

especially high schools, are local Danish teachers. I decided to enrol a broader scope of participants of different cultural and educational backgrounds, different age groups and from various contexts. Through a snowball approach, I started enrolling participants through emails to the Chinese Teachers' Association in Denmark, and finally selected twelve CFL teachers in seven cities. These teachers were chosen to ensure the diversity in the representation of geographical areas, school context, teaching experience and ethnic and cultural background. An overview of the twelve participants' information is presented below.

Table 2: Participants' information in the study on CFL teachers' beliefs about their roles[4]

Participant	Nationality	Gender	Age	School level	Teaching experience	Educational experience
1.Teacher CLF	Chinese	Female	Early 30s	University with CI	9 years	BA and MA in China
2.Teacher CFM*	Chinese	Female	Late 20s	University with CI	3 years	BA and MA in China
3.Teacher CXN	Chinese	Female	Late 20s	Junior secondary school	3 years	BA in China
4.Teacher CZY*	Chinese	Female	30s	High school	2 years	BA and MA in China
5.Teacher CJM*	Chinese	Male	Early 30s	High school	2 years	BA in DK; MA in DK and Norway
6.Teacher EJN*	English	Female	30s	High school	6 years	BA in UK and DK; MA in UK
7.Teacher DSS	Danish	Female	50s	University	30 years	BA in DK, MA in DK and China
8.Teacher DXS	Danish	Female	30s	High school	8 years	BA and MA in DK
9.Teacher DSN*	Danish	Female	30s	High school	8 years	BA in DK and China; MA in

---

[4] Teachers' names with an asterisk (*) implies that he/ she has been observed

						DK and China
10.Teacher DTN	Danish	Female	30s	High school	6 years	BA in DK; MA in DK and China
11.Teacher DYL	Danish	Female	Early 30s	High school	2 years	BA in DK; MA in China and DK.
12.Teacher DBJ	Danish	Female	Early 30s	High school	2 years	BA in DK; MA in DK.

When I moved to this stage of the study, focusing on factors shaping teachers' beliefs regarding their roles, I could see the limitations of the previous studies and gradually realized that teachers' beliefs are better studied with reference to what happens in the classroom. I reflected that the ultimate goal of my study is to gain understanding about teaching, not only about teachers' beliefs in isolation from their classroom actions. From September 2014 to March 2015, multiple data were collected from qualitative interviews, classroom observations, and relevant documents, such as lesson plans, for *research question 1.2* to explore the meanings that CFL teachers of different backgrounds ascribe to being a teacher, and the factors shaping these beliefs.

Each teacher was interviewed individually face-to-face over 1.5 to 2 hours in order to elicit their backgrounds, experience, and their beliefs about their roles. Semi-structured interviews included questions about their backgrounds, experience in learning, teaching and training, and their views on what they emphasized in teaching and teaching objectives, the preferred teaching methods, and their relationship with students. Afterwards, classroom observations were carried out on seven teachers, ranging from four to eight hours each, depending on their schedule and availability. The classroom observations focused on such issues as teachers' teaching styles, their interactions with students, and classroom activities used in class, which gave first hand data to complement the understanding of their beliefs about their roles and their practices from a holistic perspective (Patton, 2002) and provided supplementary data to confirm the evidence of teachers' beliefs drawn from the interviews. Having been observed, teachers were interviewed one more time with questions from field notes generated during classroom observations.

At this stage, I did not consider using narrative inquiry as a research method. The main reason was that I was not very familiar with narrative analysis and I lacked knowledge of it. In addition, it is not so frequently used in research on teachers' beliefs as it is on teachers' practical knowledge (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000). Things changed when I came to the third stage of the study.

4.4.3. THE LONGITUDINAL STUDY OF TWO CASES

The empirical work in the previous stages and the literature review proved that teachers' belief change is an important dimension in their professional lives and in their process of learning to teach (Guskey, 2002). Though I had explored four native Chinese speaking teachers' transformation of their beliefs about their roles and relationships with students in the initial stage of the study, they were mainly elicited through retrospective interviews. Their belief change over time could not be tracked since they had been teaching and living in Denmark for many years when the study was conducted. In addition, the discussion about belief change in the previous study was not thorough enough and only focused on three aspects: teaching methods, teacher role and relationship with students; I felt a strong need to gain a more in-depth understanding of the change of beliefs by selecting two beginner teacher cases for further longitudinal queries into the process through which their beliefs and practices are reshaped as they accumulate experience and interact with the context.

When I was collecting data for the study on factors shaping teachers' beliefs about roles, I observed that many teachers tended to share with me their personal and professional experience in the form of stories. However, I strongly felt that I was cutting their stories and words into pieces without achieving an in-depth picture of individual teacher' beliefs and experience, and the interplay between their beliefs and the factors, when I was presenting the findings about teachers' beliefs regarding their roles. In addition, the findings of the study on twelve teachers revealed the significant roles experience and context play in shaping and reshaping both teachers' beliefs and practices. All the above issues led me to focus on teachers' narratives.

4.4.3.1 Research methods

I started reading the research work by Clandinin and Connelly (1990, 2000) since they were among the first researchers to study teachers' personal practical knowledge through the examination of narratives. Narratives are stories of experience; the inquiry of narrative is research about experience and is seen as "the most authentic way to understand teaching from the viewpoints of the teacher" (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000, p. 308), because it takes the perspectives from the participants as the storyteller rather than the society (Merriam, 2002). Through listening to stories about teachers' experiences, researchers gain access to their implicit beliefs and personal knowledge (Elbaz, 2005). The more I knew about narrative inquiry, the more I became convinced of its relevance as a methodology to study teachers' belief and their belief change, which are shaped by their various experience in contexts. In order to reach a comprehensive understanding of teachers' beliefs, their personal and professional experience should be considered, which is best done by investigating beliefs and belief change through interpreting their

observed practices overtime and reconstructing teachers' narratives of various experiences (Clandinin, 1985). I, therefore, decided to use narrative inquiry for the last study on CFL teachers' experience and belief change in their early years of teaching. However, it is not pure narrative inquiry as I also involve participant classroom observations on, for example, these teachers' practices, teaching approaches, and classroom interactions.

The research question guiding the final study is *how CFL teachers' change their beliefs during their early years of teaching* (*see Article 4*). According to Yin (2003), one should consider using a case study when a study focuses on "how" and "why" questions; it includes the contextual factors that are believed to be very relevant to the phenomenon being researched. The features of case studies are reflected in my study are (1) a case study aims to understand complex dynamics, uncover the interactions of events, human relationships and factors in a particular context (Sturman, 1999). In the last study, the goal was to make an "intensive, holistic description and analysis" of individual teachers' experiences (Merriam, 1998, p. 27), and determine how their beliefs interact with factors in the specific context. (2) a rich description of the critical events and chronological narratives relevant to the two cases is provided in this longitudinal study on CFL teachers' belief change and experience; their beliefs and practice are understood in complex and comprehensive ways. (3) The investigation into teachers' beliefs and experiences is highly relevant to their specific teaching context, which aligns with another feature of the case study that it is highly contextual and concrete (Hancock & Algozzine, 2015). A case study is under a constructive paradigm which sees truths as relative and being dependent on people's perspectives (Baxter & Jack, 2008, p. 545). Another good aspect of the case study is that it helps the researcher to develop a very close relationship with the participants and enables these to share their stories. These stories help researchers better understand their implicit beliefs, perspectives and classroom actions (Baxter, 2008). The characteristics of the case study make it a good match with narrative inquiry in the study on CFL teachers' experience and belief change during the third stage of the research.

4.4.3.2 Data generation

I chose one female native Chinese teacher and one male native Danish teacher who had entered the profession of TCFL less than a year previously as the two cases for the following reasons: (1) they represented the two largest groups of CFL teachers in Denmark due to their countries of origin; (2) both teachers were young and were beginner CFL teachers, because teachers experience more challenges and changes in their early years of teaching (Fantilli & McDougall, 2009); (3) they worked in

two different school systems, one at a high school, the other in an Efterskole[5,] which provides a diversity of experience and teaching contexts.

Data was collected through a series of semi-structured, informal talks, participant observations, teachers' lesson plans and diaries in this longitudinal study on CFL teachers' experience and belief change. In-depth interviews were used to collect narratives of the teachers' experiences as a co-constructing process of social meanings of stories and to build a dialogic relationship with them (Kvale, 1996; Spector-Mersel, 2010). Both teachers were interviewed six times each over a two-year period from January 2014 to January 2016 to track their changes. Follow-up conversations and e-mails continued throughout the initial writing of the article and during the revision process to provide clarification. The interviews in the initial stage were about teachers' backgrounds, their past experience and how they had entered the profession of TCFL. Later, interviews concentrated on the teachers' initial teaching experiences in their working environments, their pedagogical practices and their relationships with their pupils and colleagues, as well as the challenges they came across. Three double-lesson participant observations were conducted at different stages over the two years to gain a secondary data resource to triangulate the interview data. Thirty to fifty-minute interviews were conducted each time following classroom observations to ask teachers to recall and explain their classroom instructions and decisions. Questions from the filed notes taken during classroom observations regarding the teaching aims, methods, procedures and activities were asked in the after-class interviews. In the last interview, participants were asked to answer a series of additional questions that were produced based on the previous interviews, observations and my reflective notes. My goal was to ensure that I represented the teachers' voices and stories in a resonant way. The data collection was a gradual process which helped the researchers, in collaboration with the participant teachers, form a deeper understanding of their experiences and the factors that were significant to their belief changes at different phases of their early teaching years.

4.5. DATA ANALYSIS

In a qualitative study, data analysis is an ongoing process which begins with the first qualitative data in the study and accompanies the entire research process. The analysis of qualitative data differs from quantitative data in its inductive strategy (Merriam, 2002). The qualitative materials from this study included interviews, observations and relevant documents. As the role of observational data in this study is to contribute to a more holistic description of CFL teachers' beliefs, the focus in this section is on the analysis of the data collected from the interviews.

---

[5] For more information about Efterskole in Denmark, see: http://www.efterskole.dk/en/In-english/Facts-about-the-Danish-Efterskole

4.5.1. DATA ANALYSIS FOR THE FIRST TWO STUDIES

An inductive content analysis was used to analyse the interview data in the pilot study and second study with a broader scale of CFL teachers. According to Krippendorff (1980), content analysis is a research method for

> "making replicable and valid inferences from data to their context" with the aim of gaining condensed descriptions of the phenomenon in systematic and objective ways. The outcome of the data analysis is "concepts or categories describing the phenomenon" (cited in Elo & Kynga, 2008, p. 108).

The content analysis in this study has gone through the procedures described in following figure.

| Selecting the unit of analysis: usually the whole interviews | → | Open coding: write notes/headings at the margins to describe the contents | → | Grouping and categorizing: compare and classify data and bring the categories into a higher level | → | Abstracting: formulating a general description of the research topic |
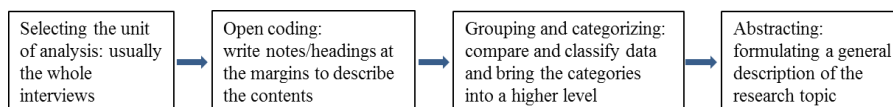
Figure 4‑3 The inductive content analysis process (based on ideas from Elo and Kynga, 2008)

At the heart of the content analysis process lies the coding and category system which makes the obtained materials specific and the distinctions explicit (Smith, 2000). My experience proved that the coding and grouping of categories were the most difficult procedures, as these were achieved though constantly judging and comparing. It is evident that a feature of content analysis is that the many words of the text are classified into much smaller categories (Weber, 1990). However, it is important to note that data analysis is not a linear process, as I have gone back and forth with many rounds of analysis.

4.5.2. DATA ANALYSIS FOR THE LAST STUDY

The last study presented in *Article* 4 is a narrative analysis of stories of experience. A narrative analysis is case-centred and goes through two levels of analysis (Riessman, 2008). On the first level, I collected all data relevant to each case to perform the vertical case analysis. The data included transcripts of interviews, field notes from observations, research diaries, and teachers' written essays and lesson plans (Merriam, 1998). I read all the data many times, and looked for predominant themes and categories relevant to the two single cases. For example, an analysis of the observation and interview data showed me that group work, teacher-student interaction and students' communicative practice was highlighted in the Danish teachers' classes. Systematic and structured teaching, discipline, teacher

presentation, and strict homework checking were identified as important themes in the native Chinese teachers' classes. Data from later interviews were compared with preliminary data gained through earlier interviews to track the changes in beliefs and practices as well as key events. One the second level, a cross-case analysis was conducted after the vertical case analysis to compare the themes, categories and patterns of each participant teacher (Merriam, 1998). Data analysis was strictly guided by the research questions and closely related to the theories. A more in-depth understanding of teacher belief change and its interplay with experience, context and practice was reached after the comparison of two cases.

4.6. REFLECTIVE SUMMARY

Multiple approaches for collecting data have been employed at different phases in the study, including a series of interviews, classroom observations of teachers' practices and their documents, which reflect the complexity of the research. The features of the study could be summarized as qualitative-oriented and interpretive in nature. However, due to the qualitative nature of the study, reliability in the traditional sense is hard to achieve because qualitative researchers assume that there is no single, static reality that could be accessed repeatedly by different researchers (Merriam, 1998; Gao, 2010). My interpretations were coloured by my own cultural perspectives which made it impossible to give a value-free interpretation. Therefore, I tried to give a rich and detailed description of the research process, including how data was collected through interviews and classroom observations and how the data was analysed, to make the exploration process transparent so that the whole research process and results of the study could make sense to readers.

The research process is developmental as I have been exploring and developing my ideas regarding the research design along the way, which has resulted in some methodological limitations. For example, in order to answer the overall question concerning the factors shaping teacher belief, the pilot study was initially focused on the influence of educational culture on teacher belief; the results of the initial findings led me to shift the research focus to the change of the same group of teachers' belief. However, I only addressed the change of beliefs regarding three aspects: teachers' roles, relationships with students and teaching methods instead of overall beliefs. In addition, as I did not have an in-depth understanding of how teacher belief could be studied at the initial stage, the pilot study on four native Chinese speaking teachers was based only on an analysis of a series of interviews. Though I did conduct observations of these teachers in the later stage of the study, data from observations were not presented in *Articles* 1 and 2 due to time constraints. Without reference to what happened in these teachers' classrooms, the understanding of CFL teachers' beliefs and their classroom realities in the pilot study was not holistic enough.

According to Taylor and Bogdan (1998), it is impossible for the researchers to conduct studies without any theoretical perspectives, values or world views. With the double role of researcher and CFL teacher, I share a similar cultural and educational background with many native Chinese speaking teachers, which makes it easy for me to understand these teachers' experiences and practices. However, my role as an insider is a double-edge sword which also influences my interpretations. My role in the data analysis was not neutral, because I was influenced by my own backgrounds, beliefs and perspectives, which are lenses through which I interpret other teachers' experiences and thoughts. I might have a better understanding of teachers' past experience in the Chinese context and of how their beliefs are influenced by the Chinese educational culture compared to their beliefs and practices influenced by the local Danish school culture.

CHAPTER 5. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

This chapter reports the findings for the research questions in the overall study and discusses the themes that run across the empirical work in relation to theories and previous studies. It is important to note that some findings in the articles may overlap since they are closely interconnected and collectively contribute to the understanding of factors shaping the beliefs of CFL teachers and their change of belief during the process of teaching in the Danish context.

5.1. FINDINGS TO RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The overall findings of the study reveal that the interplay between the working context, teachers' prior experience, and their teaching practice and reflection affect the formation and development of teacher beliefs, providing answers to the first research question regarding the factors shaping the beliefs CFL teachers have in the Danish context. In particular, two studies (*Articles 1 and 3*) were conducted to investigate the factors associated with the beliefs that CFL teachers have about their roles, student characteristics and teaching methods. The last study (*Article 4*) on two CFL teachers' experiences and belief change also revealed some important results about the influence on teachers' belief change. The overall study also reports a change in CFL teachers' beliefs about different aspects which answers the second question regarding how CFL teachers change their beliefs during their course of teaching in the Danish context. In particular, *Article 2* elicits the development of beliefs that four native Chinese speaking teachers held about their roles and relationships with students and teaching methods after years of teaching at Danish schools through a series of retrospective interviews. *Article 1* also reveals the development of teachers' beliefs regarding teaching methods though no special attention was paid to teachers' belief change. The longitudinal case study on two CFL teachers in *Article 4* reveals that their beliefs became more context-dependent and oriented during their early years of teaching.

5.1.1. THE FACTORS INFLUENCING THE BELIEFS CFL TEACHERS HOLD ABOUT THEIR ROLES

The study of twelve native and non-native Chinese speaking language teachers' beliefs regarding their roles showed that teachers saw themselves as combining multiple roles and tended to define their roles in terms of: (1) how they plan and conduct teaching activities, (2) what they want to emphasise and achieve in teaching and (3) the relationships they build with students and their work environments. Prominent roles include the teacher as facilitator, cultural knowledge

transmitter, intercultural professional, friend, authority, learner and developer. However, teachers interpreted their roles differently not only because of their different national and cultural backgrounds, but also as a result of personal experiences, working environments, accumulated teaching experience and negotiations with students and colleagues.

Seeing their role from the perspective of how they should teach and conduct teaching activities, though all teachers favoured a learning facilitator role, their different cultural and educational backgrounds as well as their past schooling experience led them to interpret the facilitator role in various ways and at different levels. Most native Chinese speaking teachers expressed a willingness to adopt a facilitator role in a democratic teacher-student relationship because they had already had some cross-cultural experience in the Danish context and they recognized the difference in the educational cultures' expectations of teachers between China and Denmark. However, they described the facilitator role in a rather general and abstract way, with a focus on paying attention to students' needs and interests and delivering knowledge based on students' responses, without mentioning any specific collaborative or interactive approaches of teaching. Compared with non-native Chinese speaking teachers, their classroom teaching featured one-way interaction with individual students. This is partly due to their past schooling experience in a more teacher-centred educational culture where teachers were the knowledge transmitter and authority, and their lack of schooling experience in the Danish context, which stresses students' active participation. Non-native Chinese speaking teachers and native Chinese speaking teachers who had received both secondary and higher education in Denmark had a more sophisticated understanding of the facilitator role in terms of developing students' self-regulation using various strategies (such as co-negotiation and group work) and teaching approaches because of their vast experience as students learning within learner-centred classrooms.

Teachers' professional training experience and the attribution of the educational institutions they worked in affected how they saw their roles in what to teach and achieve in TCFL. Most native Chinese speaking teachers valued representing and disseminating Chinese culture because of their Chinese ethnic backgrounds, or because some of them were Hanban teachers working in CIs responsible for cultural exchange, and who had been trained to promote Chinese culture and the Chinese image. Most non-native Chinese speaking teachers oriented their role in teaching culture for students' intercultural competence, overall development and citizenship education; they preferred topics highly related to student life, constantly referring to educational aims at Danish high schools. This could be linked to their in-service teacher training and vast experience in the Danish school system, which puts great value on students' overall development and the above competences.

The study also revealed that many issues CFL teachers face that challenge their perceptions of their roles were related to contextual factors, such as the motivation of students' learning, limited access to professional training, inadequate teaching materials relevant to teaching language and culture at high schools, and the exams at high schools.

5.1.2. INFLUENCE OF EDUCATIONAL CULTURE ON NATIVE CHINESE SPEAKING TEACHERS' BELIEF ABOUT STUDENT CHARACTERISCTICS AND TEACHING METHODS

Though the native Chinese speaking teachers had been teaching and living in the Danish context for many years, the educational culture they came from still exerted a great influence on how they saw students and teaching. Native Chinese speaking teachers unconsciously made constant comparisons of educational culture, students' characteristics, teaching methods, practices and teachers' roles between China and Denmark. They regarded Danish students as being "open, critical, independent, and creative" (positive traits). However, coming from the Chinese educational system and influenced by the Confucian heritage culture, which stress teachers' authority, students' hard work and respect for teachers, participant teachers saw Danish students as "too casual, undisciplined, and less respectful" (negative traits).

Historically, school education in China has been teacher-centred and text-driven, with both the teacher and the text regarded as authoritative sources of knowledge. At the time when native Chinese speaking teachers were studying at Chinese schools, teacher-centred pedagogy was even more prevalent with traditional grammar teaching and PPP (presentation, practice, and performance) frequently used to teach language and other subjects. Native Chinese speaking teachers used the terms "Chinese ways of teaching" and "Danish ways of teaching" when describing the prevalent teaching methods and practices in language classrooms in the two counties and cultures. They described "Chinese ways of teaching" as teacher-centred, being dominated by teacher lectures and little student participation, featuring grammar teaching, memorization, practice and repetition. In contrast, the Danish school culture encourages students' active role in learning through group work and collaboration. "Danish ways of teaching" were deemed by these teachers to be student-centred, with students' active participation through interactive teaching methods.

The differences in the educational cultures between the native Chinese speaking teachers' home country and their new environment contributed to their current beliefs about teaching. With regard to their ways of teaching Chinese to Danish students, they generally believed in a more student-centred, communicative and interactive teaching approach with diversified activities, tasks, group work and students' active involvement. However, at the same time they stressed the

significance of teachers' systematic guidance, structural teaching, a good and disciplined classroom environment, and students' constant practice and exercise.

5.1.3. NATIVE CHINESE SPEAKING TEACHERS' CHANGE OF BELIEFS DURING THEIR COURSE OF TEACHING IN DENMARK

A transformation and change in native Chinese speaking teachers' beliefs regarding what it means to be a teacher could be identified after a number of years of teaching in the Danish school context. Teachers in this study generally experienced a transformation from seeing themselves as someone who was a moral role model, subject expert, the centre, authority and parent to someone who was a facilitator taking the role of students more seriously, pedagogical professional, a teacher learner and cultural worker (*see Article 2*). On the other hand, they developed diverse individualized coping strategies to handle student-teacher interactions and other aspects of teachers' professional identity. In terms of the change of teachers' beliefs about teaching (see Article 1), instead of a teacher-controlled and dominated approach that teachers adapted at the initial stage of their teaching career, they generally agreed that a more interactive teaching approach combining diversified activities, group work and systematic instruction with good discipline was the best choice in the Danish context.

The native Chinese speaking teachers' initial beliefs about teachers' roles were "subject and teacher-centred," "authoritarian," "spiritual" and "parental", which was essentially about their perceptions of teachers' role images in the Chinese context, based on their past learning or teaching experience in their home country. After they had received higher education, teacher training and worked as teachers in the Danish context, which features student-centred education, they found that what was considered good in China conflicted with what they found important for success when teaching at Danish schools. Firstly, they discovered that a teacher who was merely an expert in his or her subject was not legitimate; instead, the role as an instructor and facilitator with pedagogical knowledge was required. Secondly, teaching in a school context where a democratic relationship with students is valued, these teachers realized that an authoritative teacher figure who exerts great control of students and expects obedience from them was not appropriate. Thirdly, these teachers realized that their original parental role image, exemplified by being selflessly dedicated to work, showing a high degree of responsibility, and caring for students' personal affairs, was not considered professional in the Danish context. Fourthly, being native Chinese teaching students from another culture in an overseas context required new requirements, such as transmitting and representing Chinese culture while teaching the language.

However, native Chinese speaking teachers experienced dilemmas regarding where to draw the line between authoritarian teacher and learning facilitator and between

caring parental teachers and the professional who respects students' personal lives. The dilemmas they faced when dealing with the relationships with students could be reflected in the following aspects: (1) Three teachers saw their relationship with the students as "democratic" but "loose" and "plain", because of a different understanding of teacher-student "closeness" than their Danish students. (2) They expected a close relationship and lots of personal contact and interactions with the students after school and tended to extend their roles outside of the class and schools, which resulted in them risking the crossing of professional boundaries. (3) When teachers were trying to weaken their authority by relinquishing control in class, they had to balance between students' freedom, independence and their high demand of discipline and respect.

5.1.4. CFL TEACHERS' BELIEF CHANGE IN THEIR EARLY YEARS OF TEACHING

The longitudinal case study of two CFL teachers indicated that change is evident in teachers' ideas about their ambitions, expectations, their reflectivity level, awareness of their own role in students' learning, their views on teaching methods, objectives, the teacher-student relationship etc., which also demonstrates the change in their beliefs when teachers adapt themselves to new context. When the teachers started their teaching career, they were more concerned with their own teaching by sticking to previous experience and beliefs; gradually they developed a better understanding of the context, including students' needs and characteristics and the curriculum. After two years of teaching, their beliefs have become more context-dependent and they are better at drawing elements from both subject-matter oriented and learner-oriented belief orientations and different teaching methods to reconcile their beliefs and pedagogical instructions with the realities of teaching. Core beliefs about how language should be best taught and learned formed in teachers' earlier schooling years, such as grammar teaching, memorization, good discipline and constant practice (for native Chinese teacher Li Na), group work (for native Danish teacher Peter) remained resistant to change. Contextual factors, especially time constraints, high-stakes examinations, school leaders' policies, students' needs and characteristics, may constrain teachers in developing student-centred beliefs.

Teachers underwent different processes of change in their beliefs due to different contextual challenges and prior beliefs and experience. In her first year of TCFL in Denmark, Li Na espoused student-centred teaching strategies as the best according to students' diverse needs, and she was aware of students' active role in learning, and thus changed her teacher role from being an authoritarian "big boss" to being a facilitator and guide. In the second year, she did not further consolidate her student-centred belief orientation when she was faced with stress from academic testing and discontent with the effectiveness of the task-based teaching methods. She realized

that her previous practices, such as systematic instruction, constant practice, memorization, a high demand on homework and discipline combined with building a democratic and friendly teacher-student relationship, a method which draws elements from both student-centred and teacher-centred teaching, was needed. Peter went through three phases in his early years of teaching. He started his career by copying his former teachers' ways of teaching with a focus on grammar, accuracy and relying on single textbook at a survival stage. When he had a better understanding regarding the students' low motivation level and their inactive participation at the discovery stage, he became more realistic and gradually moved away from the more teacher-oriented beliefs strongly rooted in his previous informal learning experience and towards one that valued student involvement and more communicative and interactive teaching methods. In the third year of teaching, with the opportunity to observe other teachers' teaching during in-service teacher training, Peter was able to reflect upon his practices and gained more confidence in teaching as well as developing the sense of a good teacher.

5.2. DISCUSSIONS OF FINDINGS IN RELATION TO THEORIES AND PREVIOUS STUDIES

5.2.1. FACTORS SHAPING TEACHER BELIEF

The overall findings of the study reveal that teachers' beliefs are based on their individual experiences, shaped by context, and mediated by their classroom practices (Pajares, 1992; Borg, 2006). The factors and forces that influence the formation and development of teacher belief can be summarized as the following aspects: (1) At the micro level, teachers' prior experience, particularly the numerous hours teachers have as learners in schools situated in a particular educational culture, which is regarded as an "apprenticeship of observation" by Lortie (1975), forms the basis for teachers' initial beliefs upon entering the teaching process and tend to be influential in their views on students, teaching and teacher roles, etc., throughout their entire professional lives (Zheng, 2009). (2) At the middle level, teachers' practice and reflection is a mediating factor. Reflective practice plays a strong role in teachers' beliefs (Freeman & Richards, 1996; Borg, 2003). Native Chinese speaking teachers teaching in an intercultural context as well as the local CFL teachers teaching in a newly established profession critically reflected on their educational experience and practices during their process of teaching. Teachers' classroom practice and teachers' beliefs are mutually informing in a symbiotic relationship (Borg, 2003; 2006). (3) At the larger macro level, the current contextual factors, including educational policies on language, the school context, attributes of schools, type of CFL program, classroom realities, students' characteristics, academic tests, constitute both challenges and opportunities for changes of teacher belief.

The study of CFL teachers teaching in intercultural contexts makes a connection between context, culture, individual experience, teacher belief and teaching concerns, and this helps to better understand how different cultural, personal and contextual issues influence teacher belief and teaching practices (Yang, 2008). Teachers' beliefs reflect the differences of educational culture or teaching and learning culture between China and other national contexts shaping these beliefs, which have been discussed by many comparative studies and a great deal of research on CFL teachers abroad (Biggs, 1996; Watkins & Biggs, 2001; Moloney & Xu, 2015).

Being educated in Confucian heritage cultures, where collectivism and harmony result in a certain conformity and obedience in the area of education, teachers are seen as an authority and are treated with respect by students, while education and learning is often associated with effort (Gao & Watkins, 2001; Ho, 2004). Native Chinese speaking teachers still carry with them the expectation of respectful student behaviour and of student effort towards learning. They interpreted the Danish students' behaviour and teaching from that same cultural perspective. The majority of native Chinese speaking teachers' prior educational experiences occurred primarily in teacher-centred classrooms, which accounts for their stress on systematic knowledge transmission and their initial beliefs regarding their roles as subject expert and authority.

Teaching and learning in the Danish school system is strongly influenced by philosophical ideas such as the concept of *dannelse* (which is a translation from the German word *Bildung*) in that the focus is on "the personal development of individuals, citizen formation and social cohesion" (McNess, 2004, p. 317). *Dannelse* could be understood as "a goal for teaching, education, and upbringing in its broadest sense", and is a process that refers not only to the "formation of a self with the ability to reflect upon this self" but also to "the formation of the young person's mind so the young person becomes able to be part of society, tradition and a profession" (Henriksen, 2006, p. 54). Non-native Chinese speaking teachers' more sophisticated beliefs regarding their roles in teaching language and culture for students' overall development, citizenship education and intercultural competence reflect Danish educational culture and pedagogical discourse.

Cross-cultural experience contributes to native Chinese speaking teachers' change of belief and their beliefs about roles as learning facilitators, which avoided the stereotypes of previous studies on native Chinese speaking teachers (Courcy, 1997; Orton, 2008; Scrimgeour & Wilson, 2009). However, the native teachers' focus on transmitting and delivering fixed cultural knowledge and the unfamiliarity of educational aims at Danish schools resonates with studies showing native Chinese speaking teachers' inadequate training in sociology, intercultural pedagogy and local school culture (Moloney, 2013; Singh & Han, 2014).

5.2.2. THE CHANGE OF TEACHER BELIEF

Though many researchers claim that teachers' beliefs are rather stable and resistant to change (Pajares, 1992; Kagan, 1992; Meirink et al., 2009), in this study, change is obvious in the expectations, reflectivity level and beliefs of native Chinese speaking teachers after years of teaching in Denmark and of beginner CFL teachers, regarding their own roles, teaching methods, teacher-student relationships etc., which also implies that teachers' beliefs "serve as an adaptation" (Fang, 1996; Pajares, 1992, cited in Lavigne, 2014, p. 31) when teachers teach in a new context or during their early years in the teaching profession (Borg, 2003; Lavigne, 2014).

Teaching is a lifelong process of learning and developing beliefs and practices which may undergo many challenges and dilemmas (Keiny, 1994). It is an uneasy process involving struggles and uncertainties when native Chinese speaking teachers relinquish the familiarity and comfort of a known role, such as that of subject expert, knowledge master and authority figure, to adopt new roles such as facilitator and teacher learner. Teachers' belief change in their early years of teaching or in an overseas context is a dynamic process involving constant experimenting, reflecting, exploring, and responding to challenges. It is better to see their belief change as a non-learner process of learning to teach and developing towards professionals (Zheng, 2009).

Native Chinese speaking teachers retain some of their core beliefs, such as stress on systematic guidance, efforts in learning, constant practice and good discipline, while at the same time frequently using more student-approaches, such as group teaching and task-based teaching methods, implying that they believe in teaching using both Chinese and Danish characteristics, drawing from and combining elements from both teacher-centred and student-centred belief orientations. Their change in beliefs indicate a new understanding of the ways in which teaching and educational settings function, and are an adaptation to a new educational culture while their previous beliefs and perceptions are restructured. Beginner CFL teachers' experiences from different learning contexts enable them to better fit their beliefs to different teaching contexts and types of students, and they gradually learn to draw elements from both subject-matter oriented and learner-oriented beliefs. Though belief orientations represent two different teaching philosophies which may appear to be "contradictory and dichotomous", this study has shown that a hierarchy of teachers' belief orientations may be better seen as "a continuum of positions that allows teachers to adapt and manoeuvre, depending on the situational context and their view of it" (Samuelowicz & Bain 1992, cited in Al-Amoush et al., 2013, p. 467).

CHAPTER 6. CONTRIBUTIONS AND LIMITATIONS

The central question of this study was to explore factors influencing the beliefs of CFL teachers and their belief change during their course of teaching in the Danish context. The findings of the study have provided both theoretical and practical implications for the fields of foreign language teachers' beliefs and teaching and learning of Chinese as a foreign language (CFL). The contributions of the study can be summarized as follows:

1. Viewing teachers' beliefs as a complex, multifaceted system subject to various personal, contextual and cultural factors

The findings of the study confirmed that teachers' beliefs exist as a complex system consisting of different interrelated aspects/domains (Pajares, 1992), whereby the role of the teacher, the teacher-student relationship, student characteristics, teaching methods, and what to teach and achieve are important. These aspects interact with each other dynamically and influence teachers' pedagogical instructions, interactions with students, and their handling of challenges. Teachers' beliefs largely overlap with teachers' professional identity, conceptions and perspectives (Borg, 2006). They are largely context-dependent and personal in nature and may vary from person to person and from one situation to another due to the influence of different factors, such as teachers' cultural-educational backgrounds, personal experience and the work context. Teachers may have competing beliefs which imply a complex combination of two competing belief orientations, teacher/subject-oriented and student/learning-oriented beliefs, when adapting to a new teaching context.

2. Understanding teachers' belief change as a non-linear process moving away from teacher-centeredness towards context-orientation

Teachers' belief change is a very important dimension in their professional lives and in their process of learning to teach (Guskey, 2002). Through retrospective interviews with a group of native speaking teachers (*Article 2*) and a longitudinal study of two beginner teachers (*Article 4*), this study provided a comprehensive understanding of how Chinese language teachers made transitions towards teaching in Danish classrooms. Though native Chinese speaking teachers started their teaching career with more teacher-oriented beliefs strongly rooted in their previous learning experience, they generally moved the focus away from teachers and developed a more integrated view of teaching, the role of the teacher, the context

and the students. Their beliefs gradually became more context-dependent. However, it is not a linear process which simply develops from teacher-centeredness towards student-centeredness. There are shifts of emphasis in the different teaching phases. Teachers' previous experience, conservative beliefs and contextual factors, such as students' motivation and characteristics, and the academic and institutional requirements, constrain teachers' development towards student-centeredness and align their beliefs towards with instructional practices.

3. Drawing attention to research in a less-researched area: CFL teachers

Though a rich body of literature has reported on the beliefs of foreign language teachers in general, little research has been conducted on CFL teachers teaching in Western teaching and learning contexts (Gao, 2010; Sun, 2012). The limited relevant literature is confined to the experiences of CFL teachers who grew up in China (Moloney, 2013). This study has provided new and interesting information in this less-researched area by exploring the beliefs of CFL teachers of different cultural backgrounds: native Chinese speaking teachers who grew up in a Chinese context and those who are not ethnic Chinese who grew up in Western contexts, and avoided the stereotypical polarities of many earlier studies. Articles 1 and 2 focused on native Chinese speaking teachers' beliefs in the Danish context. Articles 3 and 4 included both native and non-native teachers. The findings of the research showed that though native Chinese teachers' beliefs were still influenced by their previous schooling experience in China in terms of stressing systematic teaching and cultural knowledge transmission, they showed a willingness to adopt facilitator roles and build democratic relationships with students. Each group of CFL teachers brings their own particular culture, strengths and weaknesses. Instead of expecting native Chinese teachers to forget and divest their schooling experience and beliefs related to their home educational culture, we might try to learn and benefit from their educational practices. This study focuses on beliefs embraced by CFL teachers who are from different cultures in the Danish context, which has improved the awareness of the need to study the increasing number of CFL teachers teaching in different global contexts. These studies are slowly contributing to a picture of internationalized CFL teaching and CFL teacher development.

4. Providing practical implications for CFL teachers' development and training programs

The findings of the study regarding the factors shaping the beliefs that CFL teachers hold and their belief change provide inspiration to design effective teacher preparation, development and training programs organized by teacher educators, local schools, CIs, and Hanban. Teacher development should engage teachers' direct exploration of their existing beliefs through reflection and critical questioning as a starting point for later adaption (Richards et al., 2001). By surfacing and acknowledging the differences between CFL teachers' preconceived beliefs and

their prior learning and professional experience, making them aware of the influence their home cultures of education have on their pedagogical beliefs and instructional practices, teacher education and training programs could make changes to the deep structure of knowledge and beliefs held by the teachers (Richardson, 1996), prepare native CFL teachers entering Western teaching contexts and interacting with students of another culture, but also provide eligible local CFL teachers. The significant finding that many native Chinese speaking teachers had a very limited understanding of intercultural competence raises an important question about the preparation of these teachers to develop intercultural pedagogy and a more sophisticated understanding of culture.

5.   Providing insights on future research

This study has provided a better understanding of CFL teachers' beliefs and how they change their beliefs during their course of teaching, as well as the factors shaping and reshaping their beliefs in the Danish context by including both native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers. Further comparative research could be done on CFL teachers in other inter/cross-cultural contexts to identify differences and similarities in teachers' beliefs and practices based upon their cultural background, gender, language programs, school attributes, years of teaching, among others. Due to the research purpose and the qualitative nature of the study, I only included qualitative data from interviews and classroom observations; however, future research could use mixed methods combining both quantitative and qualitative data to study a larger number of CFL teachers. This study has shown that teaching in cross-intercultural settings provides both challenges and opportunities for teachers to adjust their understanding of the teacher role, students, teaching methods, the teacher-student relationship, and so on, and to adapt to the new teaching environment. How students who are culturally and linguistically different from CFL teachers interpret their teachers' teaching and how students negotiate culturally with teachers could be the focus of future research.

The contributions of the study imply its theoretical and practical significance. However, there are some limitations, which can be summarized as follows:

1.   The limitation of language and perspective as a native Chinese speaking teacher and researcher

Being native Chinese, I could not speak Danish. I conducted the interviews with non-native Chinese speaking teachers in English, rather than in their native language. Though local teachers could speak very good English, this inevitably influenced the findings in a very subtle way as we negotiated the meanings and understandings of teachers' beliefs using our second language. As a researcher, my personal experience of teaching Chinese in the Danish context might have helped to better understand what my participants meant when they expressed their challenges,

beliefs and dilemmas. At the same time, my own background and experience certainly coloured my observations and interpretations about teachers' beliefs and experience.

In addition, my limited understanding of the local context, particularly the Danish school culture and educational system, caused some disadvantages in the research process: It created barriers to gaining a sophisticated understanding and analysis of the local Danish teachers' practices and beliefs, particularly in Article 3. Here, there may be more in-depth understanding about local Danish teachers' beliefs regarding their facilitator role in cultivating student autonomy, and how their beliefs in whole child development could be related to the concept of *dannelse* and the educational aims of the Danish school system.

2.   Limitation of the research design

As this PhD thesis takes the form of a collection of articles, there are some limitations that are inherent in the designing of the articles involved in this study. Disconnects and overlapping among articles were found when the articles were written not only to answer the research questions in the PhD study but also to meet the requirements for publication. For example, the complexity of teacher belief as well as the factors influencing teachers' beliefs and belief transmission has been discussed in Articles 1, 3 and 4. The discussion of the influence from educational culture in the Danish context on CFL teachers' beliefs and belief change was not comprehensive in Article 1.

Moreover, during the developmental research process, I have been developing my own understanding of teachers' beliefs and how they could be better researched. The research design at the very initial stage was subject to the limitations of my own perspectives and limited knowledge. Though there were difficulties to overcome due to the fact that participants' working locations were geographically diverse, classroom observations could have been done at the initial stage of the PhD study to gain a more holistic view of CFL teachers' beliefs and practices.

The above limitations could be taken seriously for further research. The process of doing research on CFL teachers' beliefs contributed added values to my own teaching practice and personal development as well as students' learning outcomes. I have become more reflective regarding my own beliefs and practices and more confident as a teacher. I saw many overlaps between my beliefs and those of other native Chinese speaking teachers due to our similar cultural-educational background and experience. By listening to the experience and beliefs of non-native Chinese speaking teachers, I learned to see teaching from another cultural perspective and began to reflect deeply on the taken-for-granted views on teaching, relationships with students, the teacher role, and so on, thus resulting in open-mindedness.

LITERATURE LIST

Allen, L. Q. (2000). Culture and the ethnographic interview in foreign language teacher development. *Foreign Language Annals*, *33*(1), 51-57.

Abramova, I. (2011). Russian-Speaking Immigrant Teachers' Beliefs about Their Teaching Roles. (PhD dissertation). Purdue University.

Ahonen, E., Pyhältö, K., Pietarinen, J., & Soini, T. (2014). Teachers' professional beliefs about their roles and the pupils' roles in the school. *Teacher Development*, *18*(2), 177-197.

Al-Amoush, S., Usak, M., Erdogan, M., Markic, S., & Eilks, I. (2013). Pre-service and in-service teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning chemistry in Turkey. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, *36*(4), 464-479.

Alexander, P. A., Murphy, P. K., Guan, J., & Murphy, P. A. (1998). How students and teachers in Singapore and the United States conceptualize knowledge and beliefs: Positioning learning within epistemological frameworks. *Learning and Instruction*, *8*(2), 97-116.

Altan, M. X. (2006). Beliefs about language learning of foreign language-major university students. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, *31*(2), 5.

Bibou-Nakou, I., & Kiosseoglou, G. (2000). Elementary teachers' perceptions regarding school behavior problems: Implications for school psychological services. *Psychology in the Schools*, *37*(2), 123-134.

Bernat, E., & Gvozdenko, I. (2005). Beliefs about language learning: Current knowledge, pedagogical implications and new research directions. *TESL-EJ, 9*(1). Retrieved from http://tesl-ej.org/ej33/a1.pdf

Biggs, J. B. (1989). Approaches to the enhancement of tertiary teaching. *Higher Education Research and Development*, *8*(1), 7-25.

Biggs, J. (1996). Western misperceptions of the Confucian-heritage learning culture. In D.A. Watkins & J.B. Biggs (Eds.), *The Chinese learner: Cultural, psychological and contextual influences* (pp. 45-67). Hong Kong: Comparative Education Research Centre; and Melbourne: Australian Council for Educational Research.

Billig, M., Condor, S., Edwards, D., Gane, M., Middleton, D., & Radley, A. (1988). *Ideological dilemmas: A social psychology of everyday thinking*. Sage Publications, Inc.

Bibou-Nakou, I., & Kiosseoglou, G. (2000). Elementary teachers' perceptions regarding school behavior problems: Implications for school psychological services. *Psychology in the Schools*, *37*(2), 123-134.

Block, J. H., & Hazelip, K. (1995). Teachers' beliefs and belief systems. In Lorin W. Anderson, (Ed.), *International encyclopaedia of teaching and teacher education* (2nd ed., pp. 25-28). Elsevier Science Inc.

Borg, S. (1999). Studying teacher cognition in second language grammar teaching. *System*, *27*, 19–31.

Borg, S. (2003). Teacher cognition in language teaching: A review of research on what language teachers think, know, believe, and do. *Language teaching*, *36*(02), 81-109.

Borg, S. (2006). *Teacher Cognition and Language Education*. Continuum, London.

Borg, S. (2009). Language teacher cognition. In A. Burns, & J. C. Richards (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to second language teacher education* (pp. 163–171). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Boz, Y., & Uzuntiryaki, E. (2006). Turkish prospective chemistry teachers' beliefs about chemistry teaching. *International Journal of Science Education*, *28*(14), 1647-1667.

Brookhart, S. M., & Freeman, D. J. (1992). Characteristics of entering teacher candidates. *Review of Educational Research*, *62*(1), 37-60.

Bramald, R., Hardman, F., & Leat, D. (1995). Initial teacher trainees and their views of teaching and learning. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *11*(1), 23-31.

Brownlee, Joanne M. (2001). Knowing and Learning in Teacher Education: A Theoretical Framework of Core and Peripheral Beliefs in Application. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education & Development, 4*(1), 131-155.

Burnaby, B., & Sun, Y. (1989). Chinese teachers' views of Western language teaching: Context informs paradigms. *Tesol Quarterly*, *23*(2), 219-238.

Chan, K. W., & Elliott, R. G. (2002). Exploratory study of Hong Kong teacher education students' epistemological beliefs: Cultural perspectives and implications on beliefs research. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *27*(3), 392-414.

Cheng, M. M., Chan, K. W., Tang, S. Y., & Cheng, A. Y. (2009). Pre-service teacher education students' epistemological beliefs and their conceptions of teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *25*(2), 319-327.

Chi, T. R. (1989). Observations on the Past, Present, and Future of Teaching Mandarin Chinese as a Foreign Language. *Journal of the Chinese Language Teachers Association*, *24*(2), 109-22.

Clark, C. M., & Peterson, P. L. (1986). Teachers' thought processes. In M. C. Wittrock (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teaching* (3rd ed., pp. 255-296). New York: Macmillan.

Clandinin, D. J. (1985). Personal practical knowledge: A study of teachers' classroom images. *Curriculum Inquiry*, *15*(4), 361-385.

Clandinin, D. J., & Connelly, F. M. (1987). Teachers' personal knowledge: What counts as 'personal' in studies of the personal. *Journal of Curriculum studies*, *19*(6), 487-500.

Connelly, F. M., & Clandinin, D. J. (1990). Stories of experience and narrative inquiry. *Educational researcher*, *19*(5), 2-14.

Clandinin, D. J., & Connelly, F. M. (2000). *Narrative inquiry: Experience and story in qualitative research*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Cortazzi, M., & Jin, L. (1996). English teaching and learning in China. *Language Teaching*, *29*(02), 61-80.

Cheng, A. Y., Tang, S. Y., & Cheng, M. M. (2016). Changing conceptions of teaching: a four-year learning journey for student teachers. *Teachers and Teaching*, *22*(2), 177-197.

Creswell, J. W. (1994). *Research design: Qualitative and quantitative approaches.* Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

Connelly, F. M. & Clandinin, D. J. (1990). Stories of experience and narrative inquiry. *Educational Researcher*, *19*(5), 2-4.

Courcy, M. D. (1997). Teaching and learning with different scripts: Cross-cultural conflict in a Chinese late immersion classroom. *Language and Education*, *11*(4), 242-259.

Creswell, J. (1998). *Qualitative Inquiry and Research Design*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Dervin, F. (2011). A plea for change in research on intercultural discourses: A "liquid" approach to the study of the acculturation of Chinese students. *Journal of Multicultural Discourses*, *6*, 37-52.

Denessen, E. (1999). *Beliefs about education: Content-and pupil-orientedness in the Netherlands.* Leuven-Apeldoorn: Garant.

Du, X., & Kirkebæk, M. J. (2012). *Exploring task-based PBL in Chinese teaching and learning.* Cambridge: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Dewey, J. (1933). *How We Think–A Restatement of the Relation of Reflective Learning to the Educative Process*. Heath, Boston, CA.

Díaz, A. R. (2016). Developing Interculturally-Oriented Teaching Resources in CFL: Meeting the Challenge. In R. Moloney, H. L. Xu (Eds.), *Exploring Innovative Pedagogy in the Teaching and Learning of Chinese as a Foreign Language* (pp. 115-135). Springer Singapore.

Dorf, H., Kelly, P., Pratt, N., & Hohmann, U. (2012). Varieties of teacher expertise in teaching. Danish language and literature in lower secondary schools. *Nordic Studies in Education*, *32*(1), 17-34.

Elo, S., & Kyngäs, H. (2008). The qualitative content analysis process. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, *62*(1), 107-115.

Ennis, C. D. (1994). Knowledge and beliefs underlying curricular expertise. *Quest*, *46*(2), 164-175.

Entwistle, N., & Walker, P. (2002). Strategic alertness and expanded awareness within sophisticated conceptions of teaching. In N. Hativa & P. Goodyear (Eds.), *Teacher thinking, beliefs and knowledge in higher education* (pp. 15-39). Springer Netherlands.

Egekvist, U. E. (2012). Internationalization of education in Denmark: Why China and Chinese? In X. Y. Du & M. J. Kirkebæk (Eds.), *Exploring task-based PBL*

in Chinese teaching and learning in a Danish context (pp. 9-35). Newcastle upon Tyne, England: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Elbaz, F. (2005). *Teachers' voices: Storytelling and possibility*. Greenwich, CT: Information Age, IAP.

Elo, S., & Kyngäs, H. (2008). The qualitative content analysis process. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, *62*(1), 107-115.

Fang, Z. (1996). A review of research on teacher beliefs and practices. *Educational Research*, *38*(1), 47-65.

Fantilli, R. D., & McDougall, D. E. (2009). A study of novice teachers: Challenges and supports in the first years. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *25*(6), 814-825.

Foss, D. H., & Kleinsasser, R. C. (1996). Preservice elementary teachers' views of pedagogical and mathematical content knowledge. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *12*(4), 429-442.

Freeman, D. (1993). Renaming experience/reconstructing practice: Developing new understanding of teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *9*(5), 485-497.

Freeman, D. (1996). The "unstudied problem": Research on teacher learning in language teaching. In D. Freeman & J. Richards (Eds.), *Teacher learning in language teaching* (pp. 351-378). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Freeman, D., & Richards, J. C. (1996). *Teacher learning in language teaching*. Cambridge University Press.

Freeman, D. (2002). The hidden side of the work: Teacher knowledge and learning to teach. A perspective from North American educational research on teacher education in English language teaching. *Language Teaching*, 35(01), 1-13.

Gao, Y. L. (2010). A tale of two teachers: Chinese immigrant teachers' professional identity in US foreign language classrooms. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, MN.

Gao, L., & Watkins, D. A. (2001). Towards a model of teaching conceptions of Chinese secondary school teachers of physics. In D. A. Watkins & J. B. Biggs (Eds.), *Teaching the Chinese learner: Psychological and pedagogical*

perspectives (pp. 27–45). Hong Kong: University of Hong Kong, Comparative Education Research Centre.

Garmon, M. A. (2005). Six key factors for changing preservice teachers' attitudes/beliefs about diversity. *Educational Studies*, *38*(3), 275-286.

Gerring, J., & Seawright, J. (2007). Techniques for choosing cases. Case study research: *Principles and practices*, 86-150.

Golombek, P. R. (1998). A study of language teachers' personal practical knowledge. *Tesol Quarterly*, *32*(3), 447-464.

Green, T. (1971). *The activities of teaching*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Gray, C., & Malins, J. (2004). *Visualizing research: A guide to the research process in art and design.* Burlington, VT: Ashgate.

Guskey, T. R. (2002). Professional development and teacher change. *Teachers and Teaching: theory and practice*, *8*(3), 381-391.

Hancock, D. R., & Algozzine, B. (2015). *Doing case study research: A practical guide for beginning researchers*. Teachers College Press.

Henriksen, L. B. (2006). Engineers and bildung. In J. Christensen, L. B. Henriksen, & A. Kolmos (Eds.), *Engineering science, skills, and bildung*. Aalborg Universitetsforlag.

Hiebert, J. & Carpenter, T. P. (1992). *Learning and teaching with understanding*. In D. A. Grouws (Ed.), Handbook of research in mathematics teaching and learning (pp. 65-100). New York: Macmillan.

Hitchcock, G., & Hughes, D. (1995). *Research and the teacher: A qualitative introduction to school-based research*. Psychology Press.

Ho, I. T. (2004). A comparison of Australian and Chinese teachers' attributions for student problem behaviors. *Educational Psychology*, *24*(3), 375-391.

Ho, I. T., & Hau, K. T. (2004). Australian and Chinese teacher efficacy: Similarities and differences in personal instruction, discipline, guidance efficacy and beliefs in external determinants. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *20*(3), 313-323.

Hollins, E. R., & Guzman, M. T. (2005). Research on preparing teachers for diverse populations. In M. Cochran-Smith, & K. M. Zeichner, (Eds.), Studying teacher education: The report of the AERA panel on research and teacher education (pp. 477-548), Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum associates, Inc.

Horwitz, E. K. (1988). The beliefs about language learning of beginning university foreign language students. *The Modern Language Journal*, *72*(3), 283-294.

Holt-Reynolds, D. (2000). What does the teacher do? Constructivist pedagogies and prospective teachers' beliefs about the role of a teacher. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *16*(1), 21-32.

Joram, E., & Gabriele, A. J. (1998). Preservice teachers' prior beliefs: Transforming obstacles into opportunities. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *14*(2), 175-191.

Johnson, K. E. (2006). The sociocultural turn and its challenges for second language teacher education. *Tesol Quarterly*, *40*(1), 235-257.

Kane, R., Sandretto, S., & Heath, C. (2002). Telling half the story: A critical review of research on the teaching beliefs and practices of university academics. *Review of Educational Research*, *72*(2), 177-228.

Kember, D. (1997). A reconceptualisation of the research into university academics' conceptions of teaching. *Learning and Instruction*, *7*(3), 255-275.

Kennedy, J. (1996). The role of teacher beliefs and attitudes in teacher behaviour. *Directions in Second Language Reacher Education*, 107-122.

Kelly, P., Dorf, H., Pratt, N., & Hohmann, U. (2014). Comparing teacher roles in Denmark and England.Compare: *A Journal of Comparative and International Education*, *44*(4), 566-586.

Kvale, S. (1996). InterViews: An introduction to qualitative research interviewing. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Kramsch, C. (1993). *Context and culture in language teaching*. Oxford University Press.

Krippendorff, K. (1980). Content analysis: an introduction to its methodology, Sage Publications.

Kubanyiova, M. (2012). *Teacher development in action: Understanding language teachers' conceptual change*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Lortie, D. C., & Clement, D. (1975). *Schoolteacher: A sociological study*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Lavigne, A. L. (2014). Beginning teachers who stay: Beliefs about students. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *39*, 31-43.

Mak, S. H. Y. (2011). Tensions between conflicting beliefs of an EFL teacher in teaching practice. *RELC Journal*, *42*(1), 53-67.

Ma, X., & Gao, X. (in press). Metaphors used by pre-service teachers of Chinese as an international language. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 1-13.

Markic, S., & Eilks, I. (2013). Potential changes in prospective chemistry teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning-a cross-level study. *International Journal of Science and Mathematics Education*, *11*(4), 979-998.

Marshall, C. Rossman. (1995). *Designing qualitative research* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks. CA: Sage.

Meirink, J. A., Meijer, P. C., Verloop, N., & Bergen, T. C. (2009). Understanding teacher learning in secondary education: The relations of teacher activities to changed beliefs about teaching and learning. *Teaching and teacher education*, *25*(1), 89-100.

Merriam, S. B. (1998). *Qualitative Research and Case Study Applications in Education*. Revised and expanded from Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Merriam, S. B. (2001). Qualitative research and case study applications in education. San Francisco, Calif.: Jossey-Bass.

Merriam, S. B. (2002). Introduction to qualitative research. In S. B. Merriam (Ed.), *Qualitative research in practice: Examples for discussion and analysis* (pp. 1-17). Jossey-Bass.

Minor, L. C., Onwuegbuzie, A. J., Witcher, A. E., & James, T. L. (2002). Preservice Teachers' educational beliefs and their perceptions of characteristics of effective Teachers. *The Journal of Educational Research, 96* (2): 116–127.

Mok, I., Chik, P. M., Ko, P. Y., Kwan, T., Lo, M. L., Marton, F., Ng, F. P., Pang, M. F., Runesson, U., & Sze-To, L.H. (2001). Solving the paradox of the Chinese teacher. In D. A. Watkins & J. B. Biggs (Eds.), *Teaching the Chinese learner: Psychological and pedagogical perspectives* (pp. 161-179), Hong Kong: Comparative Education Research Centre (CERC) and Melbourne: Australian Council of Educational Research.

Moloney, R. A. (2013). Providing a bridge to intercultural pedagogy for native speaker teachers of Chinese in Australia. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, *26*(3), 213-228.

Moloney, R., & Xu, H. (2012). We are not teaching Chinese kids in Chinese context, we are teaching Australian kids: mapping the beliefs of teachers of Chinese language in Australian schools. *Proceedings of CLaSIC 2012*.

Moloney, R., & Xu, H. (2015). Transitioning beliefs in teachers of Chinese as a foreign language: An Australian case study. *Cogent Education*, *2*(1), 1-15.

Moen, T. (2006). Reflections on the narrative research approach. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, *5*(4), 56-69.

McNess, E. (2004). Culture, context and the quality of education: evidence from a small‐scale extended case study in England and Denmark. *Compare*, *34*(3), 315-327.

Murphy, P. K., Delli, L. A. M., & Edwards, M. N. (2004). The good teacher and good teaching: Comparing beliefs of second-grade students, preservice teachers, and inservice teachers. *The Journal of Experimental Education*, *72*(2), 69-92.

Nespor, J. (1987). The role of beliefs in the practice of teaching. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, *19*(4), 317-328.

Nisbett, R. E., & Ross, L. (1980). *Human inference: Strategies and shortcomings of social judgment*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Richardson, V. (1996). The role of attitudes and beliefs in learning to teach. In J. Sikula (Ed.), *The handbook of research in teacher education* (2nd ed., pp. 102-119). New York: Macmillan.

O'Dwyer, S. (2006). The English teacher as facilitator and authority. *TESL-EJ*, *9*(4), 1-15.

OECD. (2009). *Creating effective teaching and learning environments*. Retrieved July 4, 2014 from http://www.oecd.org/edu/school/43023606.pdf

Orton, J. (2011). Educating Chinese language teachers–Some fundamentals. In L. Tsung & K. Cruickshank (Eds.), *Teaching and learning Chinese in global contexts: CFL worldwide* (pp. 151-164). London: Continuum.

Osborn, M. (1999). National context, educational goals and pupil experience of schooling and learning in three European countries. *Compare*, *29*(3), 287-301.

Pajares, M. F. (1992). Teachers' beliefs and educational research: Cleaning up a messy construct. *Review of Educational Research*, *62*(3), 307-332.

Patton, M. Q. (1985). Quality in qualitative research: Methodological principles and recent developments. Invited address to Division J of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago.

Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative Research and Evaluation Methods* (3rd ed.), Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications

Peacock, M. (2001). Pre-service ESL teachers' beliefs about second language learning: A longitudinal study. *System*, *29*(2), 177-195.

Pratt, D. D., Kelly, M., & Wong, W. S. (1999). Chinese conceptions of 'effective teaching' in Hong Kong: Towards culturally sensitive evaluation of teaching. *International Journal of Lifelong Education*, *18*(4), 241-258.

Phipps, S., & Borg, S. (2009). Exploring tensions between teachers' grammar teaching beliefs and practices. *System*, *37*(3), 380-390.

Pohan, C. A., & Aguilar, T. E. (2001). Measuring educators' beliefs about diversity in personal and professional contexts. *American Educational Research Journal*, *38*(1), 159-182.

Punch, K. (1998). *Introduction to social research: Quantitative and qualitative methods*. London: Sage Publications.

Prawat, R. S. (1992). Teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning: A constructivist perspective. *American Journal of Education*, 354-395.

Pratt, D. D. (1992). Conceptions of teaching. *Adult Education Quarterly*, *42*(4), 203-220.

Pratt, D. D., Kelly, M., & Wong, W. S. (1999). Chinese conceptions of effective teaching in Hong Kong: Towards culturally sensitive evaluation of teaching. *International Journal of Lifelong Education*, *18*(4), 241-258.

Richards, J. C. (1998). *Beyond training: Perspectives on language teacher education.* Cambridge University Press.

Riessman, C. K. (2008). *Narrative methods for the human sciences*. Los Angeles: Sage.

Calderhead, J. (1996). Teachers: Beliefs and knowledge. In D. Berliner & R. Calfee (Eds.), *Handbook of educational psychology* (pp. 709–725). New York: Macmillan.

Rokeach, M. (1968). *Belief, Attitudes, and Values: A Theory of Organization and Change.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc. Samuelowicz, K., & Bain, J. D. (1992). Conceptions of teaching held by academic teachers. *Higher Education*, *24*(1), 93-111.

Sikes, P. (2005). Storying schools: Issues around attempts to create a sense of feel and place in narrative research writing. *Qualitative Research*, *5*(1), 79-94.

Singh, M. (2013). Worldly critical theorizing in Euro-American centered teacher education? Preparing bilingual teacher-researcher theorists for the twenty-first century. In X. Zhu & K. Zeichner (Eds.), *Preparing teachers for the 21st century* (pp. 141-169). Springer Berlin Heidelberg.

Singh, M., & Han, J. H. (2014). Educating teachers of "Chinese as a local/global language": Teaching "Chinese with Australian characteristics". *Frontiers of Education in China*, *9*(3), 403-428.

Smith, C. P. (2000). Content analysis and narrative analysis. In H. T. Reis & C. M. Judd (Eds.), Handbook of research methods in social and personality psychology (pp. 313-335), Cambridge University Press.

Smith, D. B. (1996). Teacher decision making in the adult ESL classroom. In D. Freeman & J. C. Richards (Eds.), *Teacher Learning in Language Teaching* (pp. 197-216). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Spector-Mersel, G. (2010). Narrative research: Time for a paradigm. *Narrative Inquiry*, *20*(1), 204-224.

Sparks-Langer, G. M., & Colton, A. B. (1991). Synthesis of research on teachers' reflective thinking. *Educational Leadership*, *48*(6), 37-44.

Stevick, E. W., Hu, C., & Wang, D. (1998). *Working with teaching methods: what's at stake?* Heinle & Heinle Publishers.

Sturman, A. (1999). Case study methods. In J. P. Keeves & G. Lakomski (Eds.), *Issues in educational research* (pp. 103-112). Oxford: Elsevier Science, Ltd.

Sun, D. K. (2012). "Everything goes smoothly": A case study of an immigrant Chinese language teacher's personal practical knowledge. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *28*(5), 760–767.

Tatto, M. T. (1998). The influence of teacher education on teachers' beliefs about purposes of education, roles, and practice. *Journal of Teacher Education*, *49*(1), 66-78.

Richards, J. C., Gallo, P. B., & Renandya, W. A. (2001). Exploring teachers' beliefs and the processes of change. *PAC Journal*, *1*(1), 41-58.

Scrimgeour, A., & Wilson, P. (2009). International curriculum for Chinese language education. *Babel*, *43*(2), 35-38.

Samuelowicz, K., & Bain, J. D. (1992). Conceptions of teaching held by academic teachers. *Higher Education*, *24*(1), 93-111.

Sun, D. (2012). "Everything goes smoothly": A case study of an immigrant Chinese language teacher's personal practical knowledge. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *28*(5), 760-767.

Tang, E. L. Y., Lee, J. C. K., & Chun, C. K. W. (2012). Development of teaching beliefs and the focus of change in the process of pre-service ESL teacher education. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, *37*(5), 8.

TFL, The Taskforce for Foreign Languages. (2011). *Sprog er nøglen til verden: Anbefalinger fra arbejdsgruppen for uddannelse i fremmedsprog*. Report published by the Danish Government's Taskforce for Foreign Languages.

Thompson, A. G. (1992). T*eachers' beliefs and conceptions: A synthesis of the research*. Macmillan Publishing Co, Inc.

Tillema, H. H., & Knol, W. E. (1997). Promoting student teacher learning through conceptual change or direct instruction. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *13*(6), 579-595.

Tashakkori, A and Teddlie, C. (1998), Mixed Methodology: Combining Qualitative & Quantitative Approaches, Sage.

Tang, E., Lee, J., & Chun, C. (2012). Development of teaching beliefs and the focus of change in the process of pre-service ESL teacher education. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, *37*(5), 90–107.

Taylor, S. J., & Bogdan, R. (1998). *Introduction to qualitative research methods: A guidebook and resource* (3rd ed.). New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Van Driel, J. H., Beijaard, D., & Verloop, N. (2001). Professional development and reform in science education: The role of teachers' practical knowledge. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, *38*(2), 137-158.

Van Driel, J. H., Bulte, A. M., & Verloop, N. (2007). The relationships between teachers' general beliefs about teaching and learning and their domain specific curricular beliefs. *Learning and Instruction*, *17*(2), 156-171.

Varghese, M., Morgan, B., Johnston, B., & Johnson, K. A. (2005). Theorizing language teacher identity: Three perspectives and beyond. *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education*, *4*(1), 21-44.

Wang, X. (2011). Which language? Which culture? Which pedagogy? A study of Mandarin Chinese teachers' perceptions of their professional self in a British school context. *Tilburg Papers in Culture Studies*, 4.

Wolcott, H. F. (1992). Posturing in qualitative inquiry. In M. D. Lecomyste (Ed.), *The handbook of qualitative research in education* (pp. 3-52). New York: Academic Press.

Wang, L., & Higgins, L. T. (2008). Mandarin teaching in the UK in 2007: a brief report of teachers' and learners' views. *Language Learning Journal*, *36*(1), 91-96.

Wang, D., & Kirkpatrick, A. (2012). Code choice in the Chinese as a foreign language classroom. *Multilingual Education*, *2*(1), 1-18.

Wang, L. (2015). Change in Teaching Beliefs When Teaching Abroad? A Case Study on Confucius Institute Chinese Teachers' Teaching Experiences in the

US. In F. Dervin (Ed.), *Chinese Educational Migration and Student-Teacher Mobilities: Experiencing Otherness* (pp. 144-165). Palgrave Macmillan.

Wang, D., Moloney, R., & Li, Z. (2013). Towards internationalising the curriculum: A case study of Chinese language teacher education programs in China and Australia. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education* (Online), *38*(9), 116.

Weber, R. P. (1990) *Basic Content Analysis* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Wei, L., & Hua, Z. (2011). Changing hierarchies in Chinese language education for the British Chinese learners. In L. Tsung, K. Cruickshank (Eds.), *Teaching and learning Chinese in global contexts* (pp. 11-28), London: Continuum.

Williams, M., & Burden, R. L. (1997). *Psychology for language teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Woods, D. (1996). *Teacher cognition in language teaching: Beliefs, decision-making, and classroom practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Wu, H. P., Palmer, D. K., & Field, S. L. (2011). Understanding teachers' professional identity and beliefs in the Chinese heritage language school in the USA. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, *24*(1), 47-60.

Yin, R. K. (2003). *Case study research: Design and methods* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Yuan, R., & Lee, I. (2014). Pre-service teachers' changing beliefs in the teaching practicum: Three cases in an EFL context. *System*, *44*, 1-12.

Yang, S. H. (2008). Narrative of a cross-cultural language teaching experience: Conflicts between theory and practice. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *24*(6), 1564-1572.

Young, T. J., & Walsh, S. (2010). Which English? Whose English? An investigation of 'non-native' teachers' beliefs about target varieties. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, *23*(2), 123-137.

Zhang, A. (2004). A cross-national examination of Chinese and US classroom culture. In National Communication Association's 90th annual conference in Chicago. Retrieved from www. iiqi.org/C4QI/httpdocs/qi2005/papers/zhang.pdf

Zhang, D. (2015). *The situation of Chinese students in Germany: an intercultural perspective and study* (Vol. 30). Herbert Utz Verlag.

Zhang, G. X., & Li, L. M. (2010). Chinese language teaching in the UK: Present and future. *Language Learning Journal*, *38*(1), 87-97.

Zheng, H. (2009). A review of research on EFL pre-service teachers' beliefs and practices. *Journal of Cambridge Studies*, *4*(1).

APPENDICES

Appendix A. Articles 1-4

Article 1: Cultural influence on Chinese teachers' perceptions and beliefs in a Danish context

This article was published in Kirkebæk, M. J., Du, X. Y., & Aarup Jensen, A. (eds.), Teaching and Learning Culture: Negotiating the Context. Sense Publishers. (2013) (Copyright Mads Jakob Kirkebæk, Xiangyun Du, Annie Aarup Jensen and contributors)

LI WANG, ANNIE AARUP JENSEN

7. CULTURAL INFLUENCES ON CHINESE LANGUAGE TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS AND BELIEFS IN A DANISH CONTEXT

INTRODUCTION

Recently, research focused on teachers' perceptions and beliefs has gained increasing attention in both general education and language teaching fields. It is believed that teachers' overall views of teaching and learning will influence their teaching approaches and how they give instructions in class (Pajares, 1992; Ho et al., 2001; Kane et al., 2002), thus influencing students' learning and achievement (Pajares, 1992). Moreover, teachers' beliefs are closely connected to the coping strategies they apply to challenges encountered in their daily professional lives. Therefore, understanding teachers' beliefs and the factors influencing them is of vital importance for future teachers' training and development. However, existing research on language teachers' beliefs are mainly in the field of English Language Teaching and little attention has yet been drawn to TCFL (Teaching Chinese as Foreign language). Ben-Peretz (2011) notes that most studies on teachers' beliefs share a common scholarly language and are based on Western cultures, and some researchers in the field have responded to this by issuing a call requesting that the scope of research be broadened (Borg, 2003; Ben-Peretz, 2011; Sun, 2012).

In response to these needs, this paper will broaden the range of research on teachers' beliefs to include immigrant Chinese language teachers teaching Chinese in Danish secondary schools, where more and more Chinese courses are being offered to meet the growing demand for Chinese classes. A large percentage of these courses are taught by newcomer native Chinese teachers and immigrant Chinese teachers (Du & Kirkebæk, 2012). As a result of moving from a familiar environment to an alien cultural context, Chinese teachers' perceptions and beliefs on teaching and learning may still be influenced by their previous teaching experiences and cultural background in China, which is likely to influence how they perceive students and how they approach teaching. In the process of interacting with the new school context and the students therein, immigrant Chinese teachers are often confronted with competing educational cultures and pedagogical beliefs as a result of having brought with them a set of teaching instructions that differs from those used in the new context (Feuerverger, 1997; Myles et al., 2006), such as "Danish ways of teaching" and "student-centered methods." Previous research on the topic has been limited to immigrant Chinese teachers teaching abroad in a cross-cultural context, and this study will try to fill the knowledge gaps left by those studies. By taking the Chinese and Danish educational cultures and the clash

between teacher and student-centered belief orientations as a point of departure, we will explore both how teachers perceive the Danish students and Danish teaching methods, and how they speak of their beliefs and belief changes relating to educational and professional experiences. In addition, we compare the two educational cultures that compose the teachers' perceptions in order to better understand the teachers' beliefs. To be more specific, our research questions are:

– What are the teachers' perceptions and beliefs in relation to Danish student characteristics and teaching methods?
– How are teachers' beliefs and practices influenced by educational cultures?

We hope the answers to these questions can help researchers understand teachers' views on students and teaching in a new context, facilitate refinement of and/or transformation of teachers' beliefs and practices (Bryan & Atwater, 2002), and help teachers develop their coping strategies when teaching abroad.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Understanding the Complexity of Teachers' Beliefs

In the field of research on teachers' beliefs, there is a "bewildering array of terms" (Clandinin & Connelly, 1987; Pajares, 1992). Similar concepts and terms have been used in different ways, with some researchers referring to teachers' beliefs, conceptions, personal knowledge, orientations, and intensions (Pajares, 1992). The term "conception" is the most frequently used in exploring academics' and lecturers' views on teaching and learning, while "teachers' beliefs" is another term often used to investigate teacher thinking in both the general education field and in subject-specific contexts. Due to the use of a variety of terms in many diversified fields, researchers have found it difficult to define these terms, resulting in very few studies giving precise definitions in their research (Pajares, 1992). Fang (1996) defined teachers' beliefs as a large store of personal knowledge with implicit theories of objects, people, and events. According to Kember (1997), the definition of conception is largely synonymous with that of belief, which refers to implicitly held understandings, premises, or propositions about the outside world (Richardson, 1996). Therefore, in our research, beliefs and conceptions are used interchangeably, indicating teachers' assumptions, values in teaching and learning, and beliefs about students, teachers' roles, classrooms, subject-matter knowledge, and the material to be taught (Thompson, 1992; Wu et al., 2011). These beliefs can be descriptive, evaluative, and prescriptive (Rokeach, 1968; Pajares, 1992).

Beliefs teachers hold may focus on many aspects, some general and beyond the classroom and others referring to educational beliefs more specific to the educational process, including beliefs about the nature of knowledge, teaching methods, students' characteristics, and the process of teaching (Pratt, 1992a). The important role of teachers' beliefs has been highlighted by many researchers who assume that teachers' beliefs greatly influence their classroom practices, teaching

instruction, decision making, and course planning, all of which may affect students' learning outcomes and perceptions of themselves (Ho et al., 2001; Kane et al., 2002; Pajares, 1992). Nespor (1987) argued that teachers' beliefs influence the ways in which they conceptualize tasks and learn from experiences, so he pleaded for more research attention to be directed to the function of teachers' beliefs. In addition, beliefs may not only color which previous experiences and beliefs teachers recall but also how they recall them (Pajares, 1992).

The complexity of sociocultural and institutional factors such as teachers' lives, educational and professional experiences, and cultural backgrounds, may exert influence on their beliefs. Moreover, beliefs people acquire early in their life and during the educational process have been found to affect their perceptions and strongly influence how they process information (Pajares, 1992). Therefore, we can understand teachers' beliefs on teaching and learning through working to understand their perceptions of students and teaching methods.

Teachers' Beliefs in the Language Teaching Field

The relationship between teachers' beliefs and their practices has received attention in both mainstream educational research and in language teaching (Borg, 2003; Borg, 2007). Many researchers have done empirical studies on the consistencies and inconsistencies between teachers' beliefs and practice (Phipps & Borg, 2007; Phipps & Borg, 2009a; Richardson, et al., 1991) in the language teaching field. They largely acknowledged that teachers' beliefs on teaching and learning:
– could be either consistent or inconsistent with their practices (Karavas-Doukas, 1996; Karathanos, 2009; Phipps & Borg, 2009a; Pickering, 2005; Wu, Palmer, & Field, 2011).
– are shaped largely by culturally shared experiences, including prior living, learning, and teaching experience, and the intervention of teacher education (Richardson, 1996; Borg, 2003; Borg, 2007)
– will exert very long-term influences on teachers' instructional practices (Crawley & Salyer, 1995; Phipps & Borg, 2009)

Some of the few existing studies focusing on native or immigrant Chinese teachers' beliefs show that educational and cultural backgrounds exert great influence on teachers' views on teaching and teaching practices (Wu, et al., 2011; Sun, 2012). Many researchers link the development of English language teachers' beliefs to teacher education, using this to draw implications for potential professional development and teaching improvement (Ballantyne et al., 1999; Ho, 2000; Ho et al., 2001; Kane et al., 2002; Entwistle & Walker, 2002). For example, a study by Richards, Ho, and Giblin (1996) on five teacher trainees in a TEFL training course in Hong Kong illustrated that belief change could relate to their perceptions of their role in the classroom and their concern for keeping continuity in a lesson.

Teachers' Belief Orientations

The research on orientations of teacher belief emerged earlier in the 1980s (Calderhead, 1988; Borg, 2003). Since then, different ways of classifying beliefs and conceptions have been proposed (Kember, 1997; Samuelowicz & Bain, 2001). Most researchers have preferred to organize conceptions into a linear sequence, within one of two contrasting orientations (Watkins & Biggs, 2001). For example, Entwistle and Walker (2000) noted that there were two poles in belief hierarchy: one was teacher-centered and content-oriented, emphasizing the production of correct information, and the other was student-centered and learning-oriented, focusing on students' conceptual development. The bipolar belief hierarchy was described as the least developed and most sophisticated conception (Entwistle et al., 2000; Entwistle & Walker, 2002). Furthermore, the OECD (2009) did a comparative study on teaching practices and teacher beliefs and attitudes in many European and Asian countries. Focusing on teachers' beliefs about the nature of teaching and learning, they divided teachers' beliefs into two dimensions: "direct transmission beliefs about learning and instruction" and "constructivist beliefs about learning and instruction." These belief dimensions have received support in educational research performed in Western countries.

There are different teaching approaches corresponding with these two belief orientations, but certain belief orientations and teaching practices are obviously favored by researchers (Entwistle, 2009). Consequently, teachers are encouraged to develop more sophisticated beliefs on teaching and learning in order to achieve better teaching quality and professional development (Entwistle et al., 2000; Entwistle & Walker, 2002).

Educational Cultures

In order to better understand teachers' beliefs, we need insight into the complex factors that have shaped and continue to shape their belief systems. In this paper, we focus on the influence from two educational cultures: the Confucian-influenced Chinese educational culture and the Danish educational culture. The primary purpose of this section is to set a scene which will facilitate interpretation and analysis of the findings. According to Hofstede (1991), national cultures are:

> part of the mental software we acquired during the first years of our lives in family, in the living environment, and in schools; they contain most of our basic values.

Therefore, the core source of cultural difference between countries and regions are the value differences, including beliefs, which people acquire early in their lives, meaning that the cultures in educational settings serve as mental programs that determine how teachers perceive everything happening inside and outside the classroom. Therefore, teachers' beliefs regarding teaching are deeply rooted in

specific cultural antecedents, holding cultural, social, and personal meanings (Pratt, 1992; Pratt et al., 1999).

METHODOLOGY

Research Methods

A qualitative pilot study was conducted in this research with ethnographic interviews used as the main data collection strategy to conduct an in-depth exploration of the particularities of the four participant teachers (Merriam, 1998). We expect the results of this study will cast light on the follow-up study on Chinese teachers' specific beliefs on language and culture teaching and how these beliefs came to be. An interview protocol was designed to explore participants' educational and professional backgrounds, experiences relating to perceived cultural conflicts and challenges in Danish educational settings, and perceptions and beliefs regarding student characteristics.

Participants and Context

The participants in this study were chosen from a pool of volunteers in order to find representatives of immigrant Chinese teachers in different places within Denmark. There are four participating teachers, labeled A, B, C, and D, from three different cities who participated in the research. Their backgrounds have some commonalities, which can be seen in the table below.

Table 7-1. Participants' information

Participant	Age	Context	Length of living experience in DK.	Length of teaching experience in DK.	Educational background
A	40s	secondary schools	15 years	7 years	Mathematics education at Normal University in China; teacher education in Denmark.
B	40s	secondary schools	28 years	5 years	University education in Denmark.
C	40s	secondary schools	8 years	4 years	Teacher education in China, university education in Denmark.
D	40s	secondary schools	21 years	15 years	University education in China, teacher education in Denmark

Data Collection and Analysis

The interviews ranged from an hour and a half to three hours in duration. Teachers B and D, who had interpretation experience, chose to speak English, while the other two spoke Chinese during the interview. All the interviews were recorded and transcribed, and the two Chinese interviews were translated into English. After a coding process which involved unfolding, comparing, and conceptualizing the data (Strauss & Corbin, 1994; Kvale & Brinkmann, 2008), codes were created such as "educational experiences in China", "educational and professional experiences in Denmark", "comparisons of Danish and Chinese educational and school systems", "comparisons of student characteristics", "perceptions of Danish and Chinese teaching methods", "teaching practices", "beliefs on teaching and learning", "challenges and adjusted practices," etc. Next, we categorized the codes into more systematic conceptualizations of the statements (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2008) and then matched them with teachers' perceptions and beliefs on teaching and learning in relation to "students' characteristics" and "teaching methods and practices." The analysis of the transcriptions gradually moved from more descriptive narratives to more theoretical interpretations when we related the central themes of teachers' perceptions and beliefs to educational and teaching cultures in two countries.

FINDINGS

In this findings section, we present results from the analysis of the teachers' perceptions and beliefs on two subjects: (a) students' characteristics and (b) teaching methods.

Teachers' Perceptions of Students' Characteristics: "Critical" Danish Students versus "Obedient" Chinese Students

The four teachers discussed their personal ideas regarding the Danish students as compared to the Chinese students. It was found that their perceptions of the students were quite similar; they regarded Danish students as being "open, critical, independent, and creative" (positive traits), but also "too casual, undisciplined, and less respectful" (negative traits). Teacher A's perceptions of Danish students' characters, described below, represent the group's impressions of the typical Danish student as having extensive knowledge, broad horizons, a critical sense, and independence.

> Compared with Chinese students, Danish students have a lot of opportunities to interact with the society. They have wider knowledge and behave like adults. One of their obvious characters is being very critical. For example, in

class, they will express different opinions and their disagreement to teachers. Teacher A

Some metaphors, like "不听话" (Teachers A and C; meaning being disobedient in English) and "随意的" (Teachers A, B, C, D; meaning being very casual and capricious) were used by the participants to describe the students in their classrooms. For example, Teacher A was challenged by Danish students who were being critical and independent when she started teaching. This behavior surprised her since she had not expected students to directly express their disagreement or dissatisfaction regarding her teaching while in class. Danish students' independence and individualism were thought by the native Chinese teachers to be disrespectful, thus challenging their classroom management methods.

All participating teachers considered obedience and respect for teachers as one aspect of Chinese students' characters, describing it as a behavioral rule that students are taught from childhood (Leung, 1998). The teachers carry with them the expectation of respectful student behavior from their Chinese educational background and interpret the Danish student behavior from that same cultural perspective. Although they refer to a nuanced understanding of the characteristics of Danish students, the teachers' cultural background influences their perception of the Danish students and their interpretation of the relationship between teacher and student. This also means that some of the characteristics such as "independent" and "critical" are not regarded as unequivocally positive traits.

Teachers A and D thought some Danish students came to school or studied Chinese just for fun and enjoyment. However, the labels our participants attached to Chinese students were "conservative" (Teachers A and C), "hard-working" (Teachers A, B, C, D), "more respectful and obedient" (Teachers A, B, C, D), "less critical" (Teachers A, B, C), and "passive learners" (Teachers A, B, C, D), which fit the stereotypes of Chinese learners found in the literature (Watkins & Biggs, 2001). Having spent their childhoods and early education in China, they deemed students in their home country as diligent and highlighted this attribute when comparing Danish and Chinese students. From the participating teachers' word choices, we could see they were annoyed by Danish students' lack of effort to learn or behave in a disciplined manner.

> You cannot compare Danish students to the Chinese pupils; if you do that, you will be very disappointed because they [Danish students] are not hard-working. They are…a little bit lazy. But they are quite creative…very open, so they have their own advantages. Uh, they are also very shy…Teacher D

Judging from the responses, they thought their students were very lazy in study, and they had to push them to work and make efforts to learn; if a student gave up on learning Chinese, the teachers felt it was their duty to persuade the student to stay in the program. However, Teacher C had different opinions on students' lack of interest in learning Chinese and subsequent dropping out. He thought that teachers should not try to persuade students to return if they abandoned the course, reasoning

that the cause for the departure could be a lack of interest and suggesting that teachers should respect students' choices. In this case, Teacher C's belief orientation is aligned with and influenced by the general Danish understanding of teacher responsibilities, whereas Teachers A, B, and D are still influenced by the Chinese understanding of teachers' responsibilities.

The participating teachers' comparisons of student characteristics show they had realized that there are significant differences in the educational cultures of their home country and their new environment. From the data, we see that teachers have experienced important differences through interacting with Danish students, and that even though they realize that it may not be wise to compare students in China and Denmark, or to have the same expectations of the Danish students as the Chinese (Teacher D), the comparisons still take place more or less unconsciously, and thus the educational and cultural backgrounds of the teachers influence their perceptions and interpretations of Danish students as well as their perceptions of teachers' roles and responsibilities.

Teachers' Perceptions and Beliefs Regarding Teaching Methods and Practice

Based on their educational and professional experiences in the two contexts, Teachers A, C, and D used the terms "Chinese ways of teaching", and "Danish ways of teaching" when describing the prevalent teaching methods and practices in language classrooms in both China and Denmark.

Perceptions of Teaching Methods: "Chinese Ways of Teaching" versus "Danish Ways of Teaching"

"The Chinese ways of teaching" were described by participating teachers as very teacher-centered, which is to say they are dominated by teacher lectures and seldom incorporate student participation and discussion.

> The Chinese ways of teaching which I experienced in China were…mostly teachers' talks. The students have to listen to teachers' lecturing and do a lot of memorization. Teacher A

> I don't know whether you would call it the traditional method or not; it is kind of a normal class. There was one teacher, and many students, and the teacher was very good…but very strict… And we followed the teacher, and always did many exercises...Teacher B

Teacher B's experience of studying in a Chinese classroom, and the teacher-centered educational culture to which he was exposed, provided him with the "mental software" (Hofstede, 1991) to perceive a class with the teacher in a dominant role as being "normal."

Teacher C noted that teachers in Chinese language classrooms put great stress on analyzing grammar, memorization, and practice, which typically involves repetition.

There was no particular teaching method when I was learning English in China...the main method was grammar teaching. The teacher would lead us in reading and doing exercises, which was very traditional. The teachers were implementing a kind of exercise-stuffed teaching method; what students did was just continuing to do the exercises. And the teacher would give the answers to us without much explanation. Students would make some corrections according to the answers. Teacher C

According to Teachers A, C, and D, "Danish teaching methods" are more student-centered, with students' group work serving as their main feature. Danish teachers stressed teaching activities and students' participation (Teachers A, D); instead of teaching all the time, teachers emphasized students' involvement and responses. The "Danish teaching methods" as described by our participants are closely related to student-centered beliefs. This belief orientation implies that the role of a teacher is to treat students as active participants rather than passive recipients in the process of teaching. Teachers holding this belief tend to regard themselves as facilitators, consider students' needs and expectations, and allow students to play an important role in instructional activities. Teachers A, C, and D provided detailed information in explaining the "Danish ways of teaching."

The Danish teaching method…it is a very vivid way of teaching with a diversity of activities and various teaching methods. Students can participate actively, and teachers don't force students to learn; the classroom atmosphere is very good. Teacher A

From the participating teachers' words on characterizing "Chinese" and "Danish" ways of teaching, we can sum up their perceptions of the two educational cultures.

Table 7-2. Participating teachers' perceptions about educational cultures

"Danish ways of teaching"	*"Chinese ways of teaching"*
various teaching methods teachers are facilitators	stultifying teaching methods teachers in authoritative roles
students are independent learners	students are passive recipients
more student participation	more teacher talk, less student discussion
stress students' participation and involvement more activities and group work	emphasis on memorization work and exercise
multi-assessment with both oral and written exams	single assessment with written exam

---

The table above represents conclusions drawn from the teachers' statements. Underlying the two ways of teaching are two completely different belief orientations, the first being teacher-centered and the second student-centered.

Beliefs on Teaching Methods: A Combination of "Chinese" and "Danish" Ways of Teaching

With regard to their ways of teaching Chinese to Danish students, the teachers argued that the more teacher-centered "Chinese ways of teaching" with teachers doing most of the talking and students simply performing memorization did not work at all when teaching Danish students. They generally agreed that a more student-centered teaching approach with diversified activities was the best choice in the Danish context.

> I can only remember how I learned language in China, but I had to get rid of the way I was taught before. I think the mechanical memorizing I experienced in China does not work on Danish students; they will not listen to you or follow you if you teach in a way which is the same as what I experienced. So, when I am teaching Chinese characters, I do not ask students to spend too much time writing; instead, I focus on the rules and analyze the structures of characters. Teacher A

To be more specific, Teachers A, C, and D explained that the "Danish ways of teaching," using various teaching methods, activities, and group work, suit the Danish students well and can make teaching more efficient. They illustrated "Danish ways of teaching" with their teaching practices in class. For example, Teacher D often engages students in physical exercises in Chinese class and gave one example of teaching Pinyin through physical activities. She believes that Danish students have very short attention spans and cannot concentrate for long periods of time, so she found a method of involving them physically to keep them feeling occupied and prevent them from getting bored.

> I use the Danish teaching methods to teach Chinese; you have to vary your teaching very much and have many different activities in the lesson…the Danish pupils get bored very easily. If you talk about one thing again and again, they will say, 'Oh, it is so boring, can we do something new?' For example, I have two lessons that last an hour and a half, and you have to find four or five different physical activities… or different exercises which you can use in the same lessons. Teacher D

From the perspective of Teacher A, "Danish ways of teaching" that stress activities were effective in class, so she designed some social interaction activities and communicative tasks in teaching in order to encourage students to become more involved. She believed that letting students use the Chinese language to

accomplish activities would make for a relaxed and active class atmosphere. Based on their teaching and learning experiences, all teachers claimed that the Danish students learned better through group work. Learning from this, they suggested that organizing students in groups in Chinese classes could help both strong and weak students to work together and help each other, thus enhancing peer learning and cultivating team spirit. The teachers were convinced that group work could be used in various ways in order to further pronunciation, reading, speaking, culture learning, or completing students' assignments. When talking about their teaching practices in class, our participants shared common concerns with regard to the following issues: (a) Prioritizing students' interest and motivation in learning Chinese (b) Encouraging interaction between students and teachers (c) Respecting Danish students' needs, listening to their voices, and negotiating with them (d) Adjusting their instructions according to students' expectations and interests (e) Designing activities and various teaching methods to create a relaxed classroom atmosphere conducive to learning (f) Making full use of multimedia and the good conditions in Danish classrooms to facilitate and maximize students' learning (g) Encouraging cooperative learning among students through group work.

Teachers' suggestions and concerns regarding designing and teaching reflected their great attention to students' roles in a Danish educational context, as well as a transition in belief from a more traditional, teacher-centered orientation to a more student-centered one. Additionally, all teachers showed efforts to avoid the rigid and inflexible "Chinese ways of teaching" they experienced in China, and they stated that they did not want to make their teaching too strictly structured. However, all of them did emphasize organizing teaching in a clear linear manner, using designed topics and contents. For example, Teacher C emphasized finishing the goals designed in each lesson and guiding the students through the organizational structure although he also mentioned that he did not want to organize teaching as strictly as he had in China. He was very aware of not being guided by his students' questions, expressing that "it would be a waste of time to be guided by students' questions in class", and that teachers, "should always bear the teaching goals in mind."

For me, in my class, I always bear in mind what the contents for this class are. After I answer students' questions, I continue moving through the contents I designed, without giving the students too many opportunities to ask questions again. If they still had questions, I would tell them to ask me after class or during the break. In this way, I can finish addressing the teaching content and also answer their questions. Teacher C

Teachers A, B, and D also stressed the significance of a good, disciplined classroom environment and guidance in class. They explained that they spent a lot of time doing classroom management when they started teaching, but as they became more experienced, they began focusing more on content. However, teachers A and B still value the importance of memorization and systematic guidance in language learning. Teachers' overall statements showed that their initial beliefs on

teaching methods were partly retained because of their Chinese educational and cultural influences, and their current beliefs involved elements from both "Chinese ways of teaching" and "Danish ways of teaching," representing their adaptation to Danish students and educational culture. The result was a third form, a combined way of teaching consisting of the most appropriate elements of both approaches according to the individual teachers' assessment of the teaching situation. Teachers' perceptions and beliefs on student characteristics and teaching methods reflected two different educational cultures that have shaped and continue shaping them.

5. DISCUSSION

Teachers' Perceptions and Beliefs Regarding Student Characteristics and Teaching Methods

To a large extent, teachers with similar cultural and educational backgrounds have similar beliefs on teaching as a result of shared socialization (OECD, 2009). In our studies, the teachers' overall beliefs regarding teaching are similar, integrated, and multifaceted. Although teachers hold general beliefs beyond the classroom, some of their beliefs are more specific with regard to student characteristics and the process of teaching (Pratt, 1992a). One of the most commonly held beliefs of the four immigrant Chinese teachers in our study was that the Chinese students were "very obedient, respectful, and diligent", and the Danish students were "independent, critical, creative, less respectful, and less likely to engage in hard work." Additionally, students' characteristics, such as their cultures and ethnicities, influence teachers' perceptions and beliefs, which subsequently exert influence on how they treat the students (Bryan, & Atwater, 2002). For example, teachers in our study believed that Danish students were taught to be independent and critical by their parents and teachers. Consequently, their teaching methods for these students did not display a tight sense of control; they believed that repetition and heavy workloads would not succeed when used on "less diligent" and "lazy" Danish students. This modification in teaching style displays teacher awareness of their students in order to organize their teaching in a more relaxed and interesting way, providing students with more autonomy.

Teachers characterized prevalent Danish teaching practices as being more student-centered, while they viewed "Chinese ways of teaching" as more teacher-centered. Their beliefs on teaching methods were reflected in their speech with regard to teaching practice and instructions in class and implied that they believed in teaching using both Chinese and Danish characteristics, such as using a clear structure in teaching and employing group work and other methods that have been shown to be most effective in a Danish classroom. Previous research supports the notion that teachers' prior schooling and living experience exert long-term influence on their beliefs (Richardson, 1996; Borg, 2003; Borg, 2007). Furthermore, complexities in teachers' beliefs on teaching methods were evident, as they were

influenced by the teachers' educational and cultural backgrounds in China and then modified by the Danish educational culture.

Cultural Influence on Teachers' Perceptions and Beliefs

Teachers' beliefs on teaching and learning are culturally conditioned and have deep meanings. The discussion of those beliefs and perceptions in this study could be linked to cross-cultural and comparative studies focusing on Chinese and Western educational cultures as well as conceptions of teaching in China and Western contexts (Hofstede, 1983; Hofstede et al., 1991; Pratt, 1992; Leung, 1998; Pratt et al., 1999; Watkins, 2000; Gao & Watkins, 2002; Ho, 2004).

In the Confucianism heritage cultures, collectivism and harmony are stressed, which results in conformity and obedience in the area of education. In Chinese schools, teacher authority has deep-seated cultural roots and teachers are treated with respect by students (Hofstede et al., 1991). All of the teachers in our study highlighted Chinese students' being "respectful" and "obedient" toward teachers. Western countries emphasize individualism and independence (Leung, 1998). Individual goals or rights and a sense of fairness to all are also emphasized (Ho et al., 2001; Watkins, 2000). Students in Western countries are encouraged to argue or express disagreement and criticisms in front of the teachers. In Danish schools, education as a whole, and the teaching process specifically, are always student-centered; teachers are supposed to treat students as equals and they expect to be treated the same way in return (OECD, 2009). While Danish students' independence and critical sense are important educational objectives in secondary school[i], these characteristics were interpreted and deemed as "being casual and less respectful" by the Chinese teachers from an educational culture in which teachers play an authoritative role. In Western countries, like Denmark, it is unpopular for a student to be overly ambitious and failing school is not a big incident; students are not pushed by teachers or parents to study hard (Hofstede et al., 1991). In this regard, schools may have gone too far in their attempts to care for individual students, lighten their students' workload (Leung, 1998). Having received education in Chinese schools, where education and learning are always associated with effort, our interview participants emphasized the attribute of diligence when they were comparing their perceptions of Danish and Chinese students. In China, it is normal for students to work hard, and their diligence in doing so is regarded as a path to success and excellence (Hofstede et al., 1991; Watkins & Biggs, 2001). This could account for the participating teachers' impression of Danish students as "being lazy" (Teachers A, B, D).

Historically, education in China has been teacher-centered and text-driven, with both the teacher and the text regarded as authoritative sources of knowledge (Cortazzi & Jin, 2001). In the area of language teaching, teacher-centered pedagogy is still prevalent, with traditional grammar teaching and PPP (presentation, practice, and performance) frequently used to teach language. As a result, teachers focus on knowledge transmission and rely on exercises to test and consolidate what students

learn. Students have very limited opportunities to speak, and their subjectivity in learning is often left out (Watkins & Biggs, 2001). Memorization and practice have been greatly stressed in Chinese language classes. These traditional ways of teaching have framed the participating teachers' idea of "Chinese ways of teaching." Research has shown that certain constructivist views of teaching, which are more student-oriented, are more prominent in Nordic countries, in which teachers tend to view students as active participants in the process of acquiring knowledge rather than seeing the teacher's main role as the transmitter of information and demonstrator of "correct solutions" (OECD, 2009). Students are encouraged to adopt a deep approach to learning and want to feel involved and supported by their teachers (Watkins, 2000). A class is often characterized by various activities relevant to teaching. These prevalent practices in literature are described by our participants as "Danish ways of teaching." The Danish educational system stresses group work and collaboration (Osborn, 2011). According to the teachers in our study, Danish students preferred more group work and collaborative learning, which is part of the Danish educational culture.

Development of Teachers' Beliefs Due to Cultural Influence

Teachers' integrated beliefs indicated a dynamic process of the developing and reshaping of beliefs and practices, but the changes in beliefs came prior to changes in instructions (Richardson et al., 1991). While teaching in the Danish cultural environment, teachers reported some shifts of beliefs over time. Having been raised and educated in China, the teachers had created and fostered preliminary beliefs on teaching and learning as a result of their accumulated experiences (Pajares, 1992). As Teacher A said, before she started teaching in Denmark, she expected students to listen to her orders in class. When teachers encounter teaching or learning experiences that differ from those to which they are accustomed, they reflect on the differences and become very likely to change their beliefs and perceptions (Watkins & Biggs, 2001). In the new teaching context, teachers' beliefs should conform to some of the external set of professional standards, including the cultural values imbedded in the profession, which may not be clearly specified (Gore & Zeichner, 1991). Their preexisting beliefs, such as teachers holding an authoritarian role and regarding students as "passive learners," were obstacles to their instructions and were gradually reconstructed by interaction with students and colleagues. Their beliefs on teaching and learning gradually shifted into a direction that was coherent with the requirements of the new context. For example, they adopted more student-centered "Danish ways of teaching" to encourage students' involvement through group work, and they integrated physical exercises and activities in language teaching in order to cater to students "who are easily bored."

Nevertheless, while teachers agreed on the benefits of "Danish ways of teaching" and came to avoid "Chinese ways of teaching," their beliefs on teaching methods were neither fully teacher-centered nor fully student-centered. Instead, their beliefs grew to include characteristics of both belief orientations. While they agreed on the

importance of adopting "Danish ways of teaching" to more fully engage students, they still emphasized teaching and organizing the class in a clear and structured way, explaining rules and correct solutions, and ensuring calm and concentration in the classroom. They also put much stress on accomplishing their designed goals, which implied a rather content and teacher-centered belief orientation. Their statements regarding beliefs in teaching practices and methods reflect a development process from employing a more teacher-centered orientation to using one that is more student-centered. It was evident that these teachers were struggling to reconcile the conflict between their different educational cultures when choosing appropriate teaching methods. As the teachers became more experienced, they learned to automate routines relating to managing the class and were able to pay more attention to content issues rather than classroom management (Borg, 2003). This involved moving away from only seeing the disadvantages of Danish students and feeling as though they had to focus on classroom management to compensate. Put simply, their "mental software"' (Hofstede, 1991) was enhanced and enlarged with new professional understandings regarding educational culture.

It should also be noted that the ways in which teachers characterized students influenced their ways of teaching and interacting with them in class (Bryan, & Atwater, 2002). For example, the teachers thought Danish students were "lazy" and "independent" with very short attention spans, so they varied their teaching strategies and designed more activities to attract students. Danish students' critical sense reinforced the teachers' decisions of choosing to facilitate students' conceptual understanding rather than simply employing memorization. The new understanding of teaching gained as a result reframed the teachers' teaching practices and organization of their classrooms to fit this particular context.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, teachers' beliefs on student characteristics and teaching methods can be seen from their perceptions of students and prevalent teaching practices in both China and Denmark, and they imply that teachers hold both positive and negative beliefs with regard to Chinese and Danish students' characteristics. Their beliefs on teaching methods involve elements from both "Chinese ways of teaching" and "Danish ways of teaching," implying that they were experiencing a difficult dilemma adapting to the new context and educational culture. The teachers' beliefs are products of the collision between Chinese and Danish educational cultures as well as the constant interactions between teachers' instructional and pedagogical choices and students in the cross-cultural context. These two educational cultures can be linked to belief orientations in the two contexts, but teachers can also develop and change their beliefs from being teacher-centered to being more student-centered, and in that process, create a combination which allows them to draw on the most appropriate elements of both when facing students who are culturally different from them. Moreover, it is not our intention to build up cultural stereotypes by interpreting teachers' beliefs from their perceptions and comparisons

of Chinese and Danish educational cultures. Since the participants we chose have been living in Denmark for years and some of their perceptions are based on their previous educational experiences in China, it is possible that their perceptions could be based on outdated information as a result of a changing educational culture. This pilot study also lays a foundation for further longitudinal studies involving observation of teachers' practices and interaction with students.

REFERENCES

Ballantyne, R., Bain, J. D., & Packer, J. (1999). Researching university teaching in Australia: Themes and issues in academics' reflections. Studies in Higher Education, 24(2), 237-257.

Bateson, G. (1972). Steps to an ecology of mind: Collected essays in anthropology, psychiatry, evolution, and epistemology University of Chicago Press.

Ben-Peretz, M. (2011). Teacher knowledge: What is it? how do we uncover it? what are its implications for schooling? Teaching and Teacher Education, 27(1), 3-9.

Borg, S. (2003). Teacher cognition in language teaching: A review of research on what language teachers think, know, believe, and do. Language Teaching, 36(2), 81-109.

Borg, S. (2007). Teacher cognition and language education: Research and practice Continuum.

Bryan, L. A., & Atwater, M. M. (2002). Teacher beliefs and cultural models: A challenge for science teacher preparation programs. Science Education, 86(6), 821-839.

Calderhead, J. (1988). Teachers' professional learning Falmer Press London.

Clandinin, D. J., & Connelly, F. M. (1987). Teachers' personal knowledge: What counts as 'personal'in studies of the personal∗. Journal of Curriculum Studies, 19(6), 487-500.

Cortazzi, M., & Jin, L. (2001). Large classes in china:'Good'teachers and interaction.

Crawley, F. E., & Salyer, B. A. (1995). Origins of life science teachers' beliefs underlying curriculum reform in Texas. Science Education, 79(6), 611-635.

Du, X., & Kirkebæk, M. J. (2012). Exploring task-based PBL in Chinese teaching and learning in a Danish context.

Entwistle, N., Skinner, D., Entwistle, D., & Orr, S. (2000). Conceptions and beliefs about "good teaching": An integration of contrasting research areas. Higher Education Research and Development, 19(1), 5-26.

Entwistle, N., & Walker, P. (2002). Strategic alertness and expanded awareness within sophisticated conceptions of teaching. Teacher thinking, beliefs and knowledge in higher education (pp. 15-39) Springer.

Entwistle, N. J. (2009). Teaching for understanding at university: Deep approaches and distinctive ways of thinking Palgrave Macmillan.

Fang, Z. (1996). A review of research on teacher beliefs and practices. Educational Research, 38(1), 47-65.

Freeman, D. (1993). Renaming experience/reconstructing practice: Developing new understanding of teaching. Teaching and Teacher Education, 9(5), 485-497.

Gao, L., & Watkins, D. A. (2002). Conceptions of teaching held by school science teachers in PR china: Identification and cross-cultural comparisons. International Journal of Science Education, 24(1), 61-79.

Gore, J. M., & Zeichner, K. M. (1991). Action research and reflective teaching in preservice teacher education: A case study from the united states. Teaching and Teacher Education, 7(2), 119-136.

Gullestrup, H. (2006). Cultural analysis: Towards cross-cultural understanding Copenhagen Business School Press.

Ho, A. S. (2000). A conceptual change approach to staff development: A model for programme design. International Journal for Academic Development, 5(1), 30-41.

Ho, A., Watkins, D., & Kelly, M. (2001). The conceptual change approach to improving teaching and learning: An evaluation of a hong kong staff development programme. Higher Education, 42(2), 143-169.

Ho, I. T. (2004). A comparison of Australian and Chinese teachers' attributions for student problem behaviors. Educational Psychology, 24(3), 375-391.

Ho, I. T., Jin, L., & Watkins, D. A. (2001). Are Chinese teachers authoritarian? University of Hong Kong, Department of Curriculum & Educational Studies.

Hofstede, G. (1983). National cultures in four dimensions: A research-based theory of cultural differences among nations. International Studies of Management & Organization, 13(1/2), 46-74.

Hofstede, G., Hofstede, G. J., & Minkov, M. (1991). Cultures and organizations McGraw-Hill London.

Kagan, D. M. (1992). Implication of research on teacher belief. Educational Psychologist, 27(1), 65-90.

Kane, R., Sandretto, S., & Heath, C. (2002). Telling half the story: A critical review of research on the teaching beliefs and practices of university academics. Review of Educational Research, 72(2), 177-228.

Karathanos, K. (2009). Exploring US mainstream teachers' perspectives on use of the native language in instruction with English language learner students. International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, 12(6), 615-633.

Karavas-Doukas, E. (1996). Using attitude scales to investigate teachers' attitudes to the communicative approach. Elt Journal, 50(3), 187-198.

Keiny, S. (1994). Teachers' professional development as a process of conceptual change. Teachers' Minds and Actions: Research on Teachers' Thinking and Practice, , 232-246.

Kember, D. (1997). A reconceptualisation of the research into university academics' conceptions of teaching. Learning and Instruction, 7(3), 255-275.

Kvale, S., & Brinkmann, S. (2008). Interviews: Learning the craft of qualitative research interviewing Sage Publications, Incorporated.

Leung, F. (1998). The implications of Confucianism for education today. Journal of Thought, 33, 25-36.

Merriam, S. B. (1998). Qualitative research and case study applications in education. revised and expanded from" case study research in education.". ERIC.

Nespor, J. (1987). The role of beliefs in the practice of teaching. Journal of Curriculum Studies, 19(4), 317-328.

OECD. (2009). Creating Effective Teaching and Learning Environments

Pajares, M. F. (1992). Teachers' beliefs and educational research: Cleaning up a messy construct. Review of Educational Research, 62(3), 307-332.

Phipps, S., & Borg, S. (2007). Exploring the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their classroom practice. TEACHER TRAINER, 21(3), 17.

Phipps, S., & Borg, S. (2009). Exploring tensions between teachers' grammar teaching beliefs and practices. System, 37(3), 380-390.

Pickering, A. (2005). Harnessing influences for change: Some implications from research for teacher educators. Affect and Self-Esteem in Teacher Education.IATEFL, Whitstable, Kent, , 17-26.

Pratt, D. D. (1992a). Conceptions of teaching. Adult Education Quarterly, 42(4), 203-220.

Pratt, D. D., Kelly, M., & Wong, W. S. (1999). Chinese conceptions of effective teaching in Hong Kong: Towards culturally sensitive evaluation of teaching. International Journal of Lifelong Education, 18(4), 241-258.

Richards, J. C., Ho, B., & Giblin, K. (1996). Learning how to teach in the RSA cert. Teacher Learning in Language Teaching, , 242-259.

Richardson, V. (1996). The role of attitudes and beliefs in learning to teach. Handbook of Research on Teacher Education, 2, 102-119.

Richardson, V., Anders, P., Tidwell, D., & Lloyd, C. (1991). The relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices in reading comprehension instruction. American Educational Research Journal, 28(3), 559-586.

Rokeach, M. (1968). Beliefs, attitudes and values: A theory of organization and change.

Samuelowicz, K., & Bain, J. D. (2001). Revisiting academics' beliefs about teaching and learning. Higher Education, 41(3), 299-325.

Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1994). Grounded theory methodology. Handbook of Qualitative Research, , 273-285.

Sun, D. (2012). "Everything goes smoothly": A case study of an immigrant Chinese language teacher's personal practical knowledge. Teaching and Teacher Education,

Thompson, A. G. (1992). Teachers' beliefs and conceptions: A synthesis of the research.

Watkins, D. (2000). Learning and teaching: A cross-cultural perspective. School Leadership & Management, 20(2), 161-173.

Watkins, D. A., & Biggs, J. B. (2001). Teaching the Chinese learner: Psychological and pedagogical perspectives Hong Kong Univ Pr.

Wu, H., Palmer, D. K., & Field, S. L. (2011). Understanding teachers' professional identity and beliefs in the Chinese heritage language school in the USA. Language, Culture and Curriculum, 24(1), 47-60.

[ii] https://www.retsinformation.dk/Forms/r0710.aspx?id=132542 A website detailing the educational aims of Danish upper secondary schools: Gymnasiums. Aims for Folkeskole school (encompassing preschool, primary and lower secondary education) can be found: https://www.retsinformation.dk/Forms/R0710.aspx?id=145631

Article 2: Chinese Teachers' Professional Identity and Beliefs about the Teacher-Student Relationship in a Danish Context

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Li WANG, Xiangyun DU

Chinese Teachers' Professional Identity and Beliefs about the Teacher-Student Relationships in an Intercultural Context

Abstract   This paper presents a qualitative study of immigrant Chinese teachers' professional identity and beliefs about the teacher-student relationship in an intercultural context. Theoretically, this study takes its departure from a sociocultural perspective on understanding professional identity. The empirical analysis in the study drew mainly upon ethnographic interviews with a group of Chinese language teachers in Denmark concerning their life experiences, perceptions, and beliefs. The results of this study suggest that teachers' beliefs about their roles as teachers and about student-teacher relationships are shaped by both their prior experiences and backgrounds and the current social and cultural contexts in which they are situated. Changes of context (e.g., from China to Denmark) often lead to a transformation of their professional identity and beliefs. Being a teacher in an intercultural context often exposes them to the confrontation of diverse challenges and dilemmas. On one hand, teachers in this study generally experienced a transformation from being a moral role model, subject expert, authority and parental role to being a learning facilitator and culture worker. On the other hand, they developed diverse individualized coping strategies to handle student-teacher interactions and other aspects of teachers' professional identity.

Keywords professional identity, teachers' beliefs, immigrant Chinese teachers, teacher-student relationships, intercultural context

Introduction

The globalization and internationalization process in education has seen an increase in teachers' mobility in the past few decades (Sun, 2012). This is also

true of the field of foreign language teaching and learning and in particular of Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language (TCFL) due to the increasing demand for learning Chinese worldwide (Wang, Moloney, & Li, 2013). The increase in the number of Chinese language programs has led to the need for more Chinese teachers, and many immigrant Chinese have become new educators under these circumstances. Intercultural contexts have increased the complexity of teaching and learning, raising new questions for teachers who come from a different national culture and educational system from that in which they teach. These new questions and issues offer the possibility of making changes to the teaching profession, a subject that calls for further research (Sun, 2012). A rich body of literature has reported on the professional identities and beliefs of foreign language teachers in general, but little research has been conducted on immigrant foreign language teachers entering Western teaching and learning contexts (Gao, 2010). In relation to the field of TCFL, it is necessary and interesting to investigate immigrant Chinese teachers' professional identity development and beliefs in an intercultural context.

In Denmark, foreign language learning is considered to be a key factor in an international education, with a growing variety of foreign languages being implemented as essential elements of internationalization strategies (Egekvist, 2012). Due to this prevailing attitude and an increase in public interest in China in Danish society, Chinese language classes have been introduced into high school curricula as elective courses. In the last three years, more than one fifth of Danish high schools have begun offering Chinese classes. An increasing number of lower secondary schools have also begun providing Chinese classes. With students' interest in Chinese language and culture increasing, more qualified teachers are needed for programs focusing on these subjects (Du & Kirkebæk, 2012). This increased demand for Chinese teachers has resulted in some Chinese immigrants being hired as new educators.

Previous studies have reported that Chinese educational culture strongly influences how Chinese immigrant teachers perceive themselves in an overseas context (Pratt, Kelly, & Wong, 1999), and have suggested that their professional identities tend to be authoritarian and teacher-centered as a result of the impact of Confucianism (Gao & Watkins, 2002; Ho, 2004). Danish educational culture is characterized by a low power distance and higher level of equity in teacher-student relationships and by students' active role in choosing teaching and

learning activities (Egekvist, 2012). Beliefs about characteristics of Danish education identify a great difference in the role of teachers and teacher-student relationships in relevant literature about China (Du & Hansen, 2005; Li & Du, 2013).

Based on results from previous research, this study assumes that immigrant Chinese working as teachers of Chinese language in Denmark confront challenges to some aspects of their professional identities and teacher-student relationships. Therefore, to maximize student learning, it is necessary to understand how this group of teachers experiences, perceives, and copes with these challenges in the process of developing their professional identities in an intercultural context.

This study aims to broaden knowledge and understanding of immigrant teachers' professional identity and their beliefs about interacting with students in an intercultural context in Denmark. Two research questions have been formulated to guide the study: 1) How do the immigrant Chinese language teachers perceive their professional identity in an intercultural context in Denmark? 2) How do these perceptions influence their beliefs regarding the teacher-student relationship? To answer these questions, a qualitative study was conducted using ethnographic interviews with four immigrant Chinese teachers to gain insight into teachers' perceptions, thoughts, life experiences, and professional identity work.

Theories

Understanding Teachers' Professional Identity: A Sociocultural Perspective

An increasing amount of research attention is being paid to the role of teachers' beliefs in classroom practices as well as teachers' developing identity (Gao, 2012). The significance of understanding teachers' identities lies in the relationship between thinking and practice and in the assumption that a teacher's perception of him or herself influences his or her actions (Fraser, 2011). Although professional identity has been defined in multiple ways, it is essentially concerned with an understanding of self and a "who" question (Gao, 2010). Nevertheless, many researchers agree that this concept has a dynamic and shifting nature (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009). Previous works often relate

professional identity to teachers' images of themselves and stress teachers' roles (Vähäsantanen et al., 2008). For example, Beijaard (1995; Beijaard, Verloop, & Vermunt, 2000) defines teachers' professional identity in relation to perceptions of teachers' roles, teachers' relationships with students, and the subject being taught. The understanding of professional identity in this paper follows Lasky's (2005) definition, that is, teachers' understanding of themselves and their relationships with others. In this paper, the authors regard teachers' professional identity as their view of their role as a teacher and their perceptions of their relationships with students. Many other researchers argue similarly that teachers' perceptions of themselves influence the way they develop as teachers and how they perceive students. Teachers' professional identity is believed to be influenced by a wide range of internal and external factors (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009). Factors that are presumed to contribute to identity change have been investigated and identified by scholars; these factors include cultural background (Johnson, 2003), contextual factors (Xu, 2013), attitudes, motivations, and emotions (Rodgers & Scott, 2008), among others.

Although ways of defining professional identity vary depending on perspective and angle, the authors have taken a sociocultural perspective on understanding teachers' professional identity in this study, giving significant weight to how teachers construct and transform their identities in a given context. This perspective enables us to view the establishment of professional identity as an ongoing, dynamic process involving teacher-context and teacher-student interactions that is subject to cultural, contextual, and personal influences (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009).

Language Teachers' Professional Identity

In language classrooms, teachers' professional identity is a crucial component in determining their relationship with learners and the ways in which language teaching is conducted (Varghese, Morgan, Johnston, & Johnson, 2005). Some researchers see language teachers' identities as pedagogy with an emphasis on continuous interweaving of identity negotiation and language teaching (Gao, 2012; Morgan, 2004). Although a few studies have investigated language teachers' professional identity using quantitative methods (Beijaard et al., 2000), this subject is usually explored using qualitative methods including

interviews, observed participation, journals, etc. Emphasis is placed on examining the interactions between teachers and learners of the target language (Gao, 2012). Prior research on language teachers' professional identities is mainly based on TEFL (Teaching English as Foreign Language) and draws attention to identity construction and transformation in relation to teacher education (Abednia, 2012), teacher identity in relation to the teacher-student relationship (Johnston, 2003), and the target language teachers in relation to other language learners (Ramanathan, 2002). This research has shown that national and/or ethnic cultural differences negotiated in language classrooms comprise a special dimension of teachers' professional identities (Gao, 2010), especially for those teachers whose students have a different linguistic and national and/or ethnic cultural background.

The Significance of Teachers' Beliefs about the Teacher-Student Relationship

One of the features of teachers' professional identity identified by researchers is its reliance on social interactions with others, especially students (Coldron & Smith, 1999), which may explain why teacher-student interaction has usually been the focus of professional identity research. Therefore, exploring teachers' beliefs about the teacher-student relationship is an important consideration in studying professional identity and can significantly enhance our understanding of it. Furthermore, the overall transformation from teaching to learning required by the paradigm of student-centered education implies an epistemological and belief shift (European Students' Union, 2010). Teaching is no longer a one-way knowledge transmitting process, but is instead a practice involving students' active participation and teachers' facilitation (Motschnig-Pitrik & Holzinger, 2002), which poses challenges to teachers' identities and their role in the classroom (Du & Kirkebæk, 2012).

   The traditional role of teachers and the teacher-student relationship have been changing. In order to promote an equal teacher-student relationship with teachers as facilitators, we first need to examine exactly what beliefs teachers have about their roles as language teachers and their relationships with students. These beliefs significantly affect teacher-student interaction, quality of teaching, and teachers' professional identity (Phipps & Borg, 2009). According to Kember (1997), teachers' beliefs are their general views on the process of

teaching; they are "lenses" through which teachers perceive and interpret themselves in their teaching practices. Research has found that teachers' cultural backgrounds; educational, professional, and life experiences; and teaching contexts exert influence on their beliefs (Ho, Watkins, & Kelly, 2001; Peacock, 2001; Garmon, 2005; Wang & Jensen, 2013), which in turn shape the way they choose to design and deliver teaching activities (Du & Kirkebæk, 2012).

Chinese Immigrant Teachers' Professional Identity and Beliefs about the Teacher-Student Relationship

Very little of the literature on teachers' professional identity and beliefs is about immigrant teachers who teach in a cultural and educational setting differing from that of the country in which they were born and educated (Gao, 2010). A prevalent assumption in studies of immigrant teachers' identities and beliefs is that because of beliefs and identities formed earlier in their lives, adapting to a new educational system brings challenges and transformation in teachers' identities and views on teaching.

Some studies have been performed in Western countries such as the U.S., Canada, Australia, and New Zealand that investigate teachers' negotiation processes in a new context, explicating the difficulties teachers face in adjusting to the various practices, beliefs, and roles involved in being a teacher (Santoro, 1997; Sun, 2012). There are also comparative studies on Chinese teachers' images in relation to distinctive Chinese conceptions of teaching and learning (Pratt et al., 1999; Watkins & Biggs, 2001). They claim that the cultural contexts from which teachers come frames their early perceptions of professional identity. However, the dynamic and shifting nature of immigrant Chinese teachers' professional identities was left unexplored. Moreover, few studies have conducted in-depth, specific exploration of the complexities of immigrant Chinese teachers' identities, or, more specifically, the influence of their beliefs on the teacher-student relationship in a Western foreign language classroom. Studies of teachers' identities and beliefs show that they are "co-constructed, negotiated, and transformed on an ongoing basis by means of language" in educational practices (Gao, 2012). However, the interplay between teachers' professional identities and beliefs has not been thoroughly explored.

Therefore, this study is intended to fill the gaps in the area of immigrant Chinese teachers' professional identities.

Method

Data Generation Methods

This study employed ethnographic interview, which is a well-used method to help researchers acquire an in-depth understanding of teachers' perceptions and beliefs (Frank, 1999). The interviews started with interviewers asking teachers open-ended questions to encourage them to speak freely (Damen, 1987; Allen, 2000). Descriptive questions were also asked in order to encourage the informants to describe their educational and professional experiences. Since developing a good rapport is important for a successful ethnographic interview (Westby, 1990), researchers had several email exchanges with all participants before the planned interviews. A wide range of questions were asked during the interviews, with subjects ranging from participants' prior educational background, professional experience, beliefs and perspectives on being a teacher in both China and Denmark, and how they perceive the teacher-student relationship in both countries.

Contexts and Participants

Chinese as a foreign language is relatively new in lower secondary and secondary schools in Denmark. According to Du and Kirkebæk (2012), in 2011, there were more than 30 upper secondary schools offering Chinese classes. Due to the increasing rate of growth in the past three years, updated official statistics about the number of schools offering Chinese programs in Denmark are not yet available. Most of these Chinese programs are elective and are held during the regular school day, while some are compulsory and integrated into international study programs (Egekvist, 2012). Chinese programs in upper secondary schools are often offered in a regular term based on the teaching plan worked out by the Danish Ministry of Education. Such programs often award certificates to students who complete them.

  According to Du and Kirkebæk (2012), Chinese programs in Danish schools

are taught by native-Chinese speakers who have newly arrived in Denmark, native-Chinese speakers who have lived in Denmark for many years and local Danish teachers with university degrees in Chinese. Some of these Chinese language teachers work part time while some work full time. In the latter case, the teachers usually teach another subject in addition to Chinese. There are not yet formal recruitment procedures in place for teachers of Chinese in secondary schools.

Participating in this study was voluntary. We hoped to find immigrant Chinese teachers from different geographical areas of Denmark. After we sent invitations to a large group of teachers through the network of the Chinese Teachers' Association in Denmark, some teachers replied expressing their willingness to join this study. We contacted four teachers (A, B, C, D) from different cities (Copenhagen, Arhus, and Svendborg) for interviews, in the hope of securing a diverse representation of geographic cultures in Denmark. These four teachers were born and educated in Mainland China, though all of them later received degrees from Danish universities or colleges. Teachers A and D received formal teacher education in Danish teacher training colleges, while Teachers B and C had university educations. All of them had at least four years of teaching experience in Danish lower secondary schools and had received certain kinds of professional training. Teacher A, who was in her 40s, worked as a mathematics teacher in China before teaching in Denmark, and had seven years of experience teaching Chinese and other subjects to lower secondary school students. Teacher B was in his 40s and had originally come to Denmark as a high school student. He had taught Chinese for four years in upper secondary schools. Teacher C was a university teacher before he came to Denmark, and had four years of experience working as a part-time Chinese teacher in secondary schools and at the university level. Teacher D had 15 years of teaching experience, but only had one year of experience in teaching Chinese to lower secondary school students.

Data Generation and Analysis

Interviews were conducted individually in face-to-face form, except for one interview via Skype video interaction, and varied in duration from one and a

half to three hours. After each interview, the researchers made reflective records of the interviews in the form of a research journal in order to gain a better understanding of participants' comments and revise the interview questions. The interviews of participants B and D were given in English because they felt comfortable with the language due to their past experiences of working as English-Chinese interpreters, while the interviews of participants A and C were carried out in Chinese. All interviews were tape recorded and fully transcribed. The two interviews carried out in Chinese were translated into English. An analytical structure was first generated after each transcription and a preliminary analysis was made. After having read all transcripts several times, the authors highlighted and coded the interview transcriptions according to the relevant question sections in the interview schedule. Certain lines of data may refer to several questions. In order to simplify the data and make them more manageable, they were divided by different question sections and refined into some subheadings and categories under each question. During this process, some descriptive themes emerged: "educational experiences in China/Denmark," "experiences of working as a teacher in the Chinese/Danish educational system," "challenges and adjusted practice," "perceptions of teachers' roles," "perceptions of Chinese/Danish students," "experiences of interacting with students." After these themes and categories were generated, two research questions were used as a guide to focus on participants' views on the role of the teacher and their beliefs about teacher-student interaction. During the process of data analysis, several meetings were conducted to discuss and agree on the main categories that emerged. Before the writing process began, one of the researchers exchanged emails with selected participants to check the appropriateness of the categories, which provided a check for validity of coding (Burnard, 1991).

Findings

Based on the data analysis, the findings of this study are structured in the following way: (1) participating teachers' understanding of the role of the teacher, which also reflects their perceptions of professional identity; (2) participants' beliefs about the teacher-student relationship.

Perceptions of Teachers' Professional Identity

Participating teachers based their earlier understandings of "being a teacher" on their past experiences of working as teachers or prior schooling in China. Their perceptions of "being a teacher" in Denmark were derived from educational and teaching experiences in a Danish context. Teachers' perceptions of "being a teacher" in two contexts imply comparisons and identity transformation.

Being a Teacher in China

The image of a teacher in China, according to the participants, is one of someone who is a good moral role model, represents authority, is capable of answering questions, and has both deep and broad knowledge.

Moral Role Model

When talking about being a teacher in China, all of the participants mentioned that one should always set a good example for students. Teachers A and C, who worked as teachers in China, believed they had a moral responsibility for their students, and both guided students spiritually to "teach them by words and deeds." For example, Teacher A illustrated this point by saying, "As a teacher, I was fully committed to my work and took my teaching very seriously, which I think would exert a subtle influence on students' learning attitudes." Teachers B and D said they were impressed by their Chinese teachers' dedication and devotion to their work, which still influenced them. In addition to cultivating students' adaptive attitudes towards study, they stressed Chinese teachers' moral guidance through setting examples.

Expertise in Subject

All participating teachers stressed the importance of being knowledgeable as teachers. They considered Chinese teachers to be experts in their subjects since one important role for them was to transfer basic knowledge and information. Teacher A expressed her earlier understanding of being a teacher in this way: "I was trained in a teacher college in China where we heavily emphasized the

knowledge of the subject. When I was teaching, I was quite confident, as I thought I was more knowledgeable than my students. I can answer all kinds of questions students ask." Teacher B recalled his experience of learning English in China, and regarded a teacher who was skilled in English speaking and teaching as a very good teacher. "The teacher was very good, and she had graduated from a well-known university, but she was very strict and also very good at her subject. Yeah… I think it was very important." Teacher C described his previous teachers in the teacher training school in China: "Our teachers in China were very excellent teachers. They were from older generations, but they influenced us a lot. They were all experts in their fields and had a very broad knowledge." Teacher C's appreciation and perception of being a qualified Chinese teacher could be heard in his words.

Authority

All participating teachers held the image of the ideal Chinese teacher as being that of an authority figure. They explained that in Chinese classrooms teachers always expect students to obey their instructions and rules; students are not encouraged to express different opinions. Teacher A described a scene from when she was teaching mathematics in China: "When I was teaching in China, no students expressed their disagreement or dissatisfaction to me. Chinese students have an automatic respect for us teachers." Teacher D stated that Chinese teachers always make an effort to keep the class quiet and expect students to maintain a high level of discipline in class.

Parental Role

According to participating teachers, Chinese teachers are expected to care about individual students, to understand their troubles and difficulties in and after school, and to guide them in both learning and personal development. Teachers' responsibility for students goes beyond the classroom; they are used to guiding students holistically and giving them advice on their life choices.

Being a Teacher in Denmark

The participants described a variety of expectations of teachers in Danish schools: being able to organize activities, use various teaching methods and give effective instructions, motivate students' interest, and provide clear explanations of the subject matter.

Pedagogical Expert

Being accustomed to believing that solid knowledge of the subject matter was sufficient preparation for being a teacher, these teachers were challenged by the Danish school setting. In the course of their professional education (teacher training), they learned that in order to be considered a legitimate teacher in the Danish classroom, one must be equipped with both pedagogical and subject expertise. All participant teachers stated that a traditional, lecture-based method of organizing a class would be poorly received by Danish students, who were "very hard to motivate" (Teacher A, C, D) and "not hard working" (Teacher A, B, C, D). So, if one is going to teach in a Danish classroom, one has to develop the pedagogical skills necessary to achieve good communication with students and to design and organize teaching content that involves students' participation in interactive activities.

Learning Facilitator

Teachers showed a strong awareness of students' active roles in teaching and designing courses. For example, Teacher C said "I have to take my students' interest and characteristics into consideration when I am making a teaching plan… it is very important." Facing the "independent Danish students" (Teacher A, B, C, D), all participant teachers prefer to guide students to manage their time and energy rather than giving detailed and systematic instructions. Because Danish students are "critical," teachers need to facilitate deep understanding rather than simply transfer factual knowledge.

   Instead of a teacher-controlled approach, they design various teaching methods to engage students in experiences, discussions, reflection, and active learning. They frequently use group teaching and task-based teaching methods. Teacher D described the way she organizes teaching with groups: "I think it is very good to organize students in groups; students like it. We could learn

characters and Pinyin through teamwork. Of course, when they are doing group work, I am there and I walk around asking whether they have any questions. I think this works well."

Work within Boundaries and Scope

Working with "independent Danish students," teachers commented on being aware of the implicit boundary between them. Teacher C said in the interview, "the Danish students are more independent; you have to be more careful." He used an example to illustrate how he learned to be cautious about maintaining professional boundaries. "There were two students who were a couple in my class. After they broke up one day, the girl student, who was so good at Chinese, transferred to another school. I felt so sorry to have lost a good student. Then the boy fell in love with another girl in class. I was so nervous, and consulted the principal about this issue." Teacher C was told by his colleague that if he had asked students about the incident between the romantically involved students, they would have regarded him as invading their personal affairs, which can be very dangerous. Teacher C mentioned that he would have shown concern about his students' personal lives if the incident had taken place in China; however, he would be more cautious about the line between himself and his students in a Danish context.

The issue of professional boundaries in a Danish context was also discussed by Teacher C, from another perspective. "In China, a good teacher often shows selfless dedication to work. But here, it is another story. I would not be that dedicated since others are not willing to be. Why should I be so dedicated? No one would pay for my extra work. Maybe some Danish colleagues would think I am stupid and a workaholic... I knew one Danish teacher who was enthusiastic about doing extra work, but was then questioned and denounced by his colleagues... So, I prefer the Danish way of dealing with this kind of thing. During my teaching, I tell students I cannot make an appointment if I think it might occupy my private time." It is obvious that Teacher C's understanding of what makes a professional teacher and of his responsibility has changed as a result of the change in context.

Culture Worker

All participating teachers felt a strong need to present Chinese culture to students in language classes. They consider introducing and transferring Chinese culture to be an important part of language teaching since they believe that Chinese language and culture are closely related and cannot be separated. Teaching Chinese culture not only helped Danish students to have a better understanding of modern China and its people, it also maintained the students' interest in learning Chinese.

Teaching as Learning

For teachers, teaching Chinese in Denmark is a process of learning; since they are facing a new teaching context and new students with an exotic culture and language, they have to learn through experiencing, reflecting, and adjusting. Teacher B noted, "Here in Denmark, everything is new; you have to learn about your students, and you also have to learn about the Danish culture and how the Danish do things… it is important." Additionally, teachers claimed that what they had learned from their university education or teacher training colleges was not sufficient for teaching. Teacher D's thoughts illustrate this view:

> I don't think the things I learned in the college in Denmark can be used directly when you come out of the classroom and become a teacher. It [college] doesn't tell you directly how you teach when you become a teacher… You learn much more when you start teaching as a teacher. You learn much more from the colleagues you are going to work with and how they do things… in the first one, two, or three years. You have your own pupils, and you have your own class, and you learn at the same time.

The above statements suggest that the teachers did not regard themselves as authority figures who knew everything. Instead, they were willing to learn new things and acclimatize to the new experience. All participating teachers believed that it was important to learn from colleagues by consulting, observing, and cooperating with them. Teachers A, B, and D said their colleagues were instrumental in helping them gain knowledge about how to deal with discipline problems and manage their classes in a more professional way. Cooperation with staff members at their schools also provided teachers with opportunities for social and emotional support, a place to exchange ideas and gain

instructional advice, and a group with which to share experiences, all of which promoted a strong professional identity and sense of professionalism.

Teachers emphasized the significance of demonstrating an understanding of Danish language and local culture while teaching, which made them more confident and solidified their legitimacy as teachers in the eyes of their students. Teacher C mentioned that being able to speak Danish and being familiar with the Danish school system "helped to gain respect and appreciation from my colleagues and students." Since teacher training in TCFL was not easily accessible, all participating teachers displayed a great deal of motivation and enthusiasm about the idea of participating in more relevant professional teacher training in order to learn from other teachers' experiences.

Transformation of Teachers' Professional Identity

From teachers' perceptions of their professional identities, the authors identified a transformation and change in their beliefs about what it meant to be a teacher. Participants' conception of their role developed from a more teacher-centered approach to teaching to one focusing more heavily on the role of the student. Teachers A and D related that when they started teaching, they expected a high level of discipline, with students meant to sit quietly in class. However, they gradually learned to treat students as young adults rather than thinking of them as their own children. Teachers A and D also expressed the point that before they came to Denmark, they regarded exercising authority over students as being appropriate, since this primarily reflects care for and nurturing of the student. Teacher A's statement described the change in her role as a teacher:

> My ideas towards Danish students have changed. At the very beginning, I thought they were all small children; I was the teacher, so I thought they must listen to what I said in class. But now, it is different. I think students are students, and I am their cooperative partner. In the class, we should have a very good relationship.

The teachers' understanding of their role reflected a transformation in professional identity, which was mainly brought about through cultural differences. This phenomenon is addressed in the discussion section of this paper. A strong professional identity can be observed both in the participants

who have been professionally trained and in those who were not educated as teachers. Some of the factors influencing professional identity are teachers' familiarity with Danish educational systems and teaching culture, Danish language proficiency, educational background in Denmark, identity as native Chinese speakers, and participation in professional activities such as teacher training from the Confucius Institute Headquarters (CI, Hanban).

Beliefs about the Teacher-Student Relationship

In the above section on teachers' understanding of their role in a different culture, different characteristics of the teacher-student relationship in a Danish context (compared to a Chinese context) are described. In this section, teachers' perceptions of and beliefs about the teacher-student relationship are presented and the ways in which these beliefs are related to their professional identities are discussed.

Teacher-Student Relationship in China: Teachers' Earlier Experiences

All participating teachers agreed that there is a close relationship between teachers and students in China. "In China, our culture emphasizes the close teacher-student relationship" (Teacher A). "In China, teachers and students are very close, and when I was a teacher in China, I had several students who kept very close contact with me after school" (Teacher C).

In keeping with this view, they also said Chinese teachers were "more caring" and "ready to help students whenever they had problems." However, they admitted that such relationships were characterized by teachers' authority and dominance. The hierarchy of the teacher-student relationship can be seen from Teacher D's recollection of the educational experience in the Chinese school system. "We did not talk or discuss much with teachers in class in China; it is the teacher who is always talking and talking."

At the same time, teachers may neglect students' autonomy and interfere in their personal affairs without giving them enough space and individual rights. Teachers A, C, and D stated that their teachers in China gave them direct suggestions and helped with significant choices in their lives.

The Teacher-Student Relationship in Denmark

Because of their perceptions of teachers as facilitators, all participating teachers believed that the teacher-student relationship they experienced and observed in Denmark was very different from that which is prevalent in China. It was "more equal and like friendship" (Teachers A, B, D), with teachers giving students more space and freedom to develop and make choices. However, there were differences in the participants' understanding of "closeness" between teachers and students. Teachers A, B, and C admitted a rather "loose" and "plain" relationship with students due to very little personal contact and interaction after school. "Here, the relationship between teachers and students is just so plain and equal. They don't have so much personal communication after school… take the relationship between me and my students, for example; it is also very weak and plain" (Teacher C). However, Teacher D believed there was a "close" and "intimate" connection between teacher and students. She illustrated the "closeness" with an example of chatting with students about holiday plans and private life in class, which would not often happen in China. In Denmark, it is normal for teachers to show interest in their students' lives. According to Teacher C, the reason for the "loose" connection between teacher and students could be Danish students' stress on certain levels of space and boundaries in their communication and personal relationships.

All participating teachers, with the exception of Teacher C, expected to extend their roles beyond the classroom. For example, Teacher B was willing to offer email or Skype contact or extra classes in order to tutor students and help them with learning Chinese. However, he was disappointed by his students' inactivity or unwillingness to accept his help. His beliefs about his role as a teacher were still under the influence of his earlier educational experience in China, where teachers always have very close interactions with students after class and expect students to be dependent on them. Teacher C had different views on the role of a teacher in Denmark. From his words in the earlier section, it is obvious that he has adopted the Danish idea of being a teacher, framing his relationship with students in an institutional way.

By working with "independent" Danish students, teachers found their "authoritarian" teacher image derived from China weakened. They realized that students were people who had a certain "personal autonomy." However, they

always found it a challenge to balance teachers' authority and students' autonomy. To better facilitate this, they created ways of negotiating discipline and made commitments together with their students. They organized teaching in a constructive and collaborative way in order to pique students' interest. All participating teachers emphasized that a strong relationship with students was helpful in maintaining their learning and motivation levels. As Teacher D said, a good personal relationship with students provides them with a better opportunity to concentrate and learn.

Discussion

A Transformation of Teachers' Professional Identity

The teacher's professional identity is not stable or fixed; instead, it is an ongoing and dynamic process within teacher development, involving interaction between teachers and contexts (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009). In this study, Teachers A, B, C, and D's professional identities underwent notable changes. They developed from seeing themselves as the center to taking the role of students more seriously as facilitators. This finding is consistent with previous research on teacher expertise and career phrases. When teachers move through different stages, and develop from novice teachers to expert teachers, they will show greater respect to students (Berliner, 2001, 2004). Before they started teaching in Denmark, their professional identities were "subject and teacher-centered," "authoritarian," and "spiritual." The major reason for this is likely the fact that their educational experiences and backgrounds were influenced by the Confucian educational culture. Traditionally, teachers in China enjoy a great deal of authority and are treated with respect and dignity by their students. Furthermore, teachers are regarded as good examples: people who have a broad base of knowledge and are emulated by students (Li, 2001). The role of teachers is similar to the role of parents, which makes it culturally acceptable for teachers to be responsible for students' personal and intellectual development (Pratt et al., 1999). These teachers emphasize moral guidance in addition to transmitting knowledge.

After our participating teachers received training and worked as teachers in the Danish teaching and learning context, which features student-centered

education (OECD, 2009), what they found important to success in teaching conflicted with what was considered good in China. For example, the Chinese teacher's role as a pseudo-parent, exemplified by being selflessly dedicated to work, showing a high degree of responsibility, and caring for students' personal affairs, was not considered professional in a Danish context. When facing Danish students with individual and distinct personalities, these teachers realized their previous understanding of what it means to be a teacher did not place enough consideration on the complexity of the intercultural teaching environment. They discovered that a teacher who was merely an expert in his or her subject rather than an instructor with pedagogical knowledge was not legitimate. They gradually accepted the ideas of teachers as "pedagogical professionals," "learning facilitators," "students' partners and friends," "teacher learners," and "cultural workers," which implies that they had acquired a sense of the "Danish Chinese teacher" role.

However, the transformation of teachers' professional identity and conception of the teacher's role from "Chinese Chinese teacher" to "Danish Chinese teacher" is not an easy process; it always involves struggle and dilemmas. Changing roles and identities requires teachers to relinquish the familiarity and comfort of a known role, such as knowledge master and authority figure, and experience the uncertainty of an unknown role, such as teacher learner and students' equal partner. The dilemma these teachers are facing is where to draw the line between authoritarian teacher and learning facilitator and between caring parental teachers and professional who respects students' personal lives.

Due to the complexities of the intercultural teaching context in a Danish foreign language classroom, special dimensions could be found in the immigrant Chinese teachers' professional identity; they had to become "cultural workers" and "teacher learners" with intercultural competence. Teaching is a lifelong process of learning and developing the self, which may undergo many changes and challenges (Keiny, 1994). Teachers' professional development with transformations in professional identity when teaching abroad is a dynamic process involving constant experimenting, reflecting, exploring, and responding to challenges (Borg, 2003). Nevertheless, our participants connected their identity as Chinese people with their chosen profession and remained committed to teaching Chinese culture.

Identity change is an active process of negotiating meaning between the

individual and the outside sociocultural context (Xu, 2013). During this process, attitudes of open-mindedness and responsibility are critical in enabling teachers to reflect on their professional life and identity transformation, as Dewey (1933), Bailey, Curtis and Nunan, (2001), Zeichner and Liston (1987, 1996) have claimed. The teaching experience in Danish classrooms prompted teachers to reflect on issues of culture and self. They gained more cultural awareness, allowing them to compare the different educational cultures in Denmark and China. It has been suggested that among the multiple forms of identity teachers have in different contexts, there may also be a "core identity" that teachers hold more uniformly (Gee, 2000). Even as our participants' professional identities were transformed, their personal identities, which have a core of "being Chinese," did not change. Teacher A, who had been in Denmark for 28 years, claimed: "As Chinese born, I am Chinese inside and I still carry my Chinese part with me."

Dilemma of Teachers' Beliefs about the Teacher-Student Relationship

Teachers' perceptions of the relationship between teacher and students in China were more unified; they characterized it as "close" and more "hierarchical." They regarded the relationship between teacher and students in Denmark as "equal" and "democratic," and held that they had a different understanding of teacher-student "closeness" than their Danish students. All teachers with the exception of Teacher D noted a "loose" and "plain" teacher-student relationship in the Danish classroom. The discussion of different characteristics in relationships in the two contexts could be linked to the cultural differences that have been explored in previous cross-cultural research (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 1991; Pratt et al., 1999; Watkins & Biggs, 2001). Emphasizing individuality and democracy, teachers often treat students as equals in Nordic countries, including Denmark (Hofstede et al., 1991). Within the Chinese educational system characterized by Confucian educational culture, however, the relationship between teachers and students is more like that between parent and child, and their reciprocal roles reflect a respect for hierarchy and authority (Pratt et al., 1999). Clearer Western-Eastern educational and cultural differences can be seen in whether teacher-student interaction takes place inside or outside formal classes (Watkins & Biggs, 2001). In Danish schools, teachers emphasize

more informal classroom interaction, in which students are encouraged to express different ideas and even disagreement. Teacher C's argument about a close teacher-student relationship implied a more active and dynamic interaction in Danish classrooms. However, Chinese teachers lack opportunities to interact with students informally after class in Danish schools, which results their perception of a "loose" teacher-student relationship. Although interaction is missing in teacher-student relationships in Chinese classrooms, as described by the participating teachers, they have more teacher-student interaction outside the classroom, with informal discussions and group activities (Watkins & Biggs, 2001). This is why all participating teachers agreed that a close teacher-student relationship exists in Chinese classrooms.

Although a transformation of teachers' professional identity is evident, their beliefs about appropriate roles and relationships between themselves and students is not a question of choosing one way, Danish or Chinese, over another. In addition, contradictions in the teachers' beliefs regarding the teacher-student relationship were evident. When participating teachers talked about handling relationships with students, all of them mentioned a "Danish way" of interacting with students for the sake of their autonomy and independence. They highlighted learning from other Danish teachers and treating students more like equals in Danish school settings. However, three of them did emphasize extending their role as teacher outside of the classroom by offering extra classes and help for students, making an effort to make students listen to their instructions in class, and gently persuading students to work and follow the class structure. All of them expressed their expectations of Danish students' appropriate respect and politeness to them as teachers and stressed the importance of discipline in class. The teachers' views of relationships with students were still deeply rooted in the educational culture of their native country. Some of their beliefs about the teacher-student relationship remained unchanged, which implied a system of belief that was somewhere in between the "Danish" and "Chinese" systems. Their discussion of these beliefs regarding teacher-student interaction and instructional practices makes clear that they still struggle to reconcile these sometimes opposing views.

There are a number of influential factors which should be taken into consideration when discussing these teachers' "loose and plain" relationship

with students in the Danish context. First, some of the Chinese courses (those Teachers C and D teach) are not obligatory, and students are not required to take exams at the end of the course. This means that to some extent, students take these courses less seriously than their core courses. Moreover, the "overseas-born status" (Peeler & Jane, 2005) of these Chinese teachers makes them "outsiders" in the host country (Sun, 2012). Teacher A attributed their "loose" relationship with students to their different values with respect to personal space. She also mentioned that students made fun of her accent in speaking Danish. This shows that cultural and linguistic differences are implicit barriers behind the "plain" (Teacher A, C) relationship.

The teachers' beliefs regarding the relationship between teacher and students exhibit a great deal of diversity. Participating teachers each had individualized ways of handling relationships with students. For example, Teacher C saw his professional responsibility as ending after working hours, while the other teachers preferred to try to extend their roles beyond the classroom. These differences resulted from their different personalities and professional and life experiences.

The cultural differences in Chinese and Danish contexts have shaped the teachers' understanding of their professional identities and teacher-student relationships. As a result, their revised understanding of roles and relationships for students and teachers have modified their beliefs concerning teaching and organizing the classroom. The teachers' changes in professional identity, role conception, and relationships with students imply that they have a new understanding of the ways in which teaching and educational settings function, and are adapting to a new educational culture while restructuring their previous beliefs and perceptions (Bateson, 1972; Keiny, 1994).

Conclusion

This paper examined immigrant Chinese teachers' beliefs about their professional identities in a Danish context as well as their perceptions of the teacher-student relationship. It provided insight into how immigrant Chinese teachers perceive struggles and dilemmas while transforming their views on being a teacher and handling relationships with students. The findings suggest that the teachers' perceptions of their professional identities are influenced by their prior experiences related to various cultural elements such as ethnicity and educational

background, among others. These professional identities are not fixed, but instead are perpetually changing, particularly when working in a different environment from what they are used to and/or in an intercultural context. These teachers' shifting professional identities (re)frame their interactions with students due to changing perceptions of the teacher-student relationship. Due to a lack of shared cultures and values, there might be a cultural dissonance so that these teachers may have conflicting expectations of their students. These teachers confronted challenges and dilemmas when working in an intercultural context and developed diverse strategies to handle student-teacher interactions and other aspects of teachers' professional identity. In particular, this study observes a transformation of these immigrant Chinese teachers from being a moral role model, subject expert, authority and in a parental role to being a learning facilitator and culture worker in the given context in this study.

This study sheds light on immigrant teachers' struggles and learning process with regard to interacting with students of another culture. However, the study is a small-scale investigation, focusing on four immigrant Chinese teachers, which limits the generalizability of the study's findings. This study shows that intercultural settings provide opportunities for teachers to adjust their understanding of the roles of both teacher and students and to develop "culturally appropriate" knowledge (Ladson-Billings, 1995, Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2007). How Danish students develop cultural sensitivity and accommodation through interaction with Chinese teachers could be the focus of further study. As the current research only included data from teacher interviews, researchers cannot reference this insight with students' narratives or observations of what actually happens in the classroom. Future studies could collect data through non-participant observations in classrooms, where teachers and students have the most direct interactions, and could validate teachers' belief changes by including interviews with students.

This study identified contextual and intercultural factors that influence teachers' interactions with students such as the status of Chinese courses as elective, cultural divergence, and the teachers' limitations in the Danish language as non-native speakers. In future studies, researchers could enter micro level classroom settings to investigate how teachers and students handle these situations and how addressing them could improve the teaching and learning

process. As this study explored teachers' perceptions of the role of the teacher and beliefs about the teacher-student relationship, future studies could further investigate teachers' beliefs about their choices of teaching content and could relate teachers' beliefs to their professional development in an intercultural context.

References

Abednia, A. (2012). Teachers' professional identity: Contributions of a critical EFL teacher education course in Iran. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *28*(5), 706–717.

Allen, L. Q. (2000). Culture and the ethnographic interview in foreign language teacher development. *Foreign Language Annals*, *33*(1), 51–57. doi: 10.1111/j.1944-9720.2000.tb00889.x

Bailey, K. M., Curtis, A., & Nunan, D. (2001). *Pursuing professional development: The self as source*. Boston, MA: Heinle.

Bateson, G. (1972). *Steps to an ecology of mind: Collected essays in anthropology, psychiatry, evolution, and epistemology*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Beauchamp, C., & Thomas, L. (2009). Understanding teacher identity: An overview of issues in the literature and implications for teacher education. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, *39*(2), 175–189. doi: 10.1080/03057640902902252

Berliner, D. C. (2001). Learning about and learning from expert teachers. *International Journal of Educational Research*, *35*(5), 463–482. doi: 10.1016/S0883-0355(02)00004-6

Berliner, D. C. (2004). Describing the behavior and documenting the accomplishments of expert teachers. *Describing the Behavior and Documenting the Accomplishments of Expert Teachers*, *24*(3), 200–212. doi: 10.1177/0270467604265535

Beijaard, D. (1995). Teachers' prior experiences and actual perceptions of professional identity. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice*, *1*(2), 281–294. doi: 10.1080/1354060950010209

Beijaard, D., Verloop, N., & Vermunt, J. D. (2000). Teachers' perceptions of professional identity: An exploratory study from a personal knowledge perspective. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *16*(7), 749–764. doi: 10.1016/S0742-051X(00)00023-8

Burnard, P. (1991). A method of analysing interview transcripts in qualitative research. *Nurse Education Today*, *11*(6), 461–466. doi: 10.1016/0260-6917(91)90009-Y

Borg, S. (2003). Teacher cognition in language teaching: A review of research on what language teachers think, know, believe, and do. *Language Teaching*, *36*(2), 81–109. doi: 10.1017/S0261444803001903

Coldron, J., & Smith, R. (1999). Active location in teachers' construction of their professional identities. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, *31*(6), 711–726. doi: 10.1080/002202799182954

Damen, L. (1987). *Culture learning: The fifth dimension in the language classroom*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Darling-Hammond, L., & Bransford, J. (Eds.). (2007). *Preparing teachers for a changing world: What teachers should learn and be able to do*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Dewey, J. (1933). *How we think*. Chicago, IL: Henry Regnery.

Du, X. Y., & Kirkebæk, M. J. (2012). Exploring task-based PBL in Chinese teaching and learning in a Danish context. In X. Y. Du & M. J. Kirkebæk (Eds.), *Exploring task-based PBL in Chinese teaching and learning in a Danish context* (pp. 1–9). Newcastle upon Tyne, England: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Du, X. Y., & Hansen, S. (2005). Confronting cultural differences. Learning engineering as foreigners in a Danish context: A case study of Chinese students. *VEST. A Journal for Science and Technology Studies*, *17*(3/4), 61–84.

Egekvist, U. E. (2012). Internationalization of education in Denmark: Why China and Chinese? In X. Y. Du & M. J. Kirkebæk (Eds.), *Exploring task-based PBL in Chinese teaching and learning in a Danish context* (pp. 9–35). Newcastle upon Tyne, England: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

European Students' Union. (2010). *Student-centered learning: An insight into theory and learning*. Retrieved July 2, 2014, from http://download.ei-ie.org/SiteDirectory/hersc/ Documents/2010%20T4SCL%20Stakeholders%20Forum%20Leuven%20- %20An%20Insight%20Into%20Theory%20And%20Practice.pdf

Frank, C. (1999). *Ethnographic eyes: A teacher's guide to classroom observation*. Portsmouth, England: Heinemann.

Fraser, M. (2011). *Exploring the nature and process of professional identity of teachers of English in Japanese higher education* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Wollongong, Wollongong, Australia.

Gao, Y. L. (2010). *A tale of two teachers: Chinese immigrant teachers' professional identity in US foreign language classrooms* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, MN.

Gao, F. (2012). Teacher identity, teaching vision, and Chinese language education for South Asian students in Hong Kong. *Teachers and Teaching*, *18*(1), 89–99. doi: 10.1080/13540602.2011.622558

Gao, L. B., & Watkins, D. A. (2002). Conceptions of teaching held by school science teachers in PR China: Identification and cross-cultural comparisons. *International Journal of Science Education*, *24*(1), 61–79. doi: 10.1080/09500690110066926

Garmon, M. A. (2005). Six key factors for changing preservice teachers' attitudes/beliefs about diversity. *Educational Studies*, *38*(3), 275–286. doi: 10.1207/s15326993es3803_7

Gee, J. P. (2000). Identity as an analytic lens for research in education. *Review of Research in Education*, *25*, 99–125.

Ho, A., Watkins, D., & Kelly, M. (2001). The conceptual change approach to improving teaching and learning: An evaluation of a Hong Kong staff development programme. *Higher Education*, *42*(2), 143–169. doi: 10.1023/A:1017546216800

Ho, I. T. (2004). A comparison of Australian and Chinese teachers' attributions for student problem behaviors. *Educational Psychology*, *24*(3), 375–391. doi: 10.1080/0144341042000211706

Hofstede, G., Hofstede, G. J., & Minkov, M. (1991). *Cultures and organizations: Software for the mind*. London, England: McGraw-Hill.

Johnson, K. A. (2003). "Every experience is a moving force": Identity and growth through mentoring. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *19*(8), 787–800. doi: 10.1016/j.tate.2003.06.003

Johnston, B. (2003). *Values in English language teaching*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Keiny, S. (1994). Teachers' professional development as a process of conceptual change. In I. Carlgren, G. Handal, & S. Vaage (Eds.), *Teachers' minds and actions: Research on teachers' thinking and practice* (pp. 232–246). London, England: RoutledgeFalmer.

Kember, D. (1997). A reconceptualisation of the research into university academics' conceptions of teaching. *Learning and Instruction*, *7*(3), 255–275. doi: 10.1016/S0959-4752(96)00028-X

Ladson-Billings, G. (1995). Toward a theory of culturally relevant pedagogy. *American Educational Research Journal*, *32*(3), 465–491. doi: 10.3102/00028312032003465

Lasky, S. (2005). A sociocultural approach to understanding teacher identity, agency and professional vulnerability in a context of secondary school reform. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *21*(8), 899–916.

Li, H. C., & Du, X. Y. (2013). Confronting cultural challenges when restructuring the teacher- student relationship in a Chinese context. In M. J. Kirkebæk, X. Y. Du, & A. A. Jensen (Eds.), *Teaching and learning culture: Negotiating the context* (pp. 79–94). Rotterdam, The Netherlands: Sense Publisher.

Li, J. (2001). Chinese conceptualization of learning. *Ethos*, *29*(2), 111–137. doi: 10.1525/eth.2001.29.2.111

Morgan, B. (2004). Teacher identity as pedagogy: Towards a field-internal conceptualisation in bilingual and second language education. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, *7*(2/3), 172–188. doi: 10.1080/13670050408667807

Motschnig-Pitrik, R., & Holzinger, A. (2002). Student-centered teaching meets new media: Concept and case study. *Educational Technology & Society*, *5*(4), 160–172.

OECD. (2009). *Creating effective teaching and learning environments*. Retrieved July 4, 2014, from http://www.oecd.org/edu/school/43023606.pdf

Peacock, M. (2001). Pre-service ESL teachers' beliefs about second language learning: A longitudinal study. *System*, *29*(2), 177–195. doi: 10.1016/S0346-251X(01)00010-0

Peeler, E., & Jane, B. (2005). Mentoring: Immigrant teachers bridging professional practices. *Teaching Education*, *16*(4), 325–336. doi: 10.1080/10476210500345623

Phipps, S., & Borg, S. (2009). Exploring tensions between teachers' grammar teaching beliefs and practices. *System*, 37(3), 380–390. doi: 10.1016/j.system.2009.03.002

Pratt, D. D., Kelly, M., & Wong, W. S. (1999). Chinese conceptions of "effective teaching" in Hong Kong: Towards culturally sensitive evaluation of teaching. *International Journal of Lifelong Education*, *18*(4), 241–258. doi: 10.1080/02601370210156745

Ramanathan, V. (2002). *The politics of TESOL education: Writing, knowledge, critical pedagogy*. New York, NY: RoutledgeFalmer.

Rodgers, C., & Scott, K. H. (2008). The development of the personal self and professional identity in learning to teach. In M. Cochran-Smith (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teacher education: Enduring questions in changing contexts* (3rd ed.; pp. 732–755). New York, NY: Routledge.

Santoro, N. (1997). The construction of teacher identity: An analysis of school practicum discourse. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, *25*(1), 91–99. doi: 10.1080/1359866970250108

Sun, D. K. (2012). "Everything goes smoothly": A case study of an immigrant Chinese language teacher's personal practical knowledge. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *28*(5), 760–767.

Vähäsantanen, K., Hökkä, P., Eteläpelto, A., Rasku-Puttonen, H., & Littleton, K. (2008). Teachers' professional identity negotiations in two different work organisations. *Vocations and Learning*, *1*(2), 131–148. doi: 10.1007/s12186-008-9008-z

Varghese, M., Morgan, B., Johnston, B., & Johnson, K. A. (2005). Theorizing language teacher identity: Three perspectives and beyond. *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education*, *4*(1), 21–44. doi: 10.1207/s15327701jlie0401_2

Wang, D., Moloney, R., & Li, Z. (2013). Towards internationalising the curriculum: A case study of Chinese language teacher education programs in China and Australia. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, *38*(9), 116–135. doi: 10.14221/ajte.2013v38n9.8

Wang, L., & Jensen, A. A. (2013). Cultural influence on Chinese language teachers' perceptions and beliefs in a Danish context. In M. J. Kirkebæk, X. Y. Du, & A. A. Jensen (Eds.), *Teaching and learning culture: Negotiating the context* (pp. 95–112). Rotterdam, The Netherlands: Sense Publisher.

Watkins, D. A., & Biggs, J. B. (2001). *Teaching the Chinese learner: Psychological and pedagogical perspectives*. Hong Kong, China: Comparative Education Research Centre, The University of Hong Kong.

Westby, C. E. (1990). Ethnographic interviewing: Asking the right questions to the right people in the right ways. *Communication Disorders Quarterly*, *13*(1), 101–111. doi: 10.1177/152574019001300111

Xu, H. (2013). From the imagined to the practiced: A case study on novice EFL teachers' professional identity change in China. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *31*(11), 79–86.

Zeichner, K. M., & Liston, D. P. (1987). Teaching student teachers to reflect. *Harvard Educational Review*, *57*(1), 23–49.

Zeichner, K. M., & Liston, D. P. (1996). *Reflective teaching: An introduction*. New York, NY: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Article 3: Teachers' beliefs about teacher role in the intercultural context

This article is going to be published in System: An International Journal of Educational Technology and Applied Linguistics in 2016. (Copyright Elsevier © 2016 This manuscript version is made available under the CC-BY-NC-ND 4.0 license https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/) (DOI: 10.1016/j.system.2016.06.009)
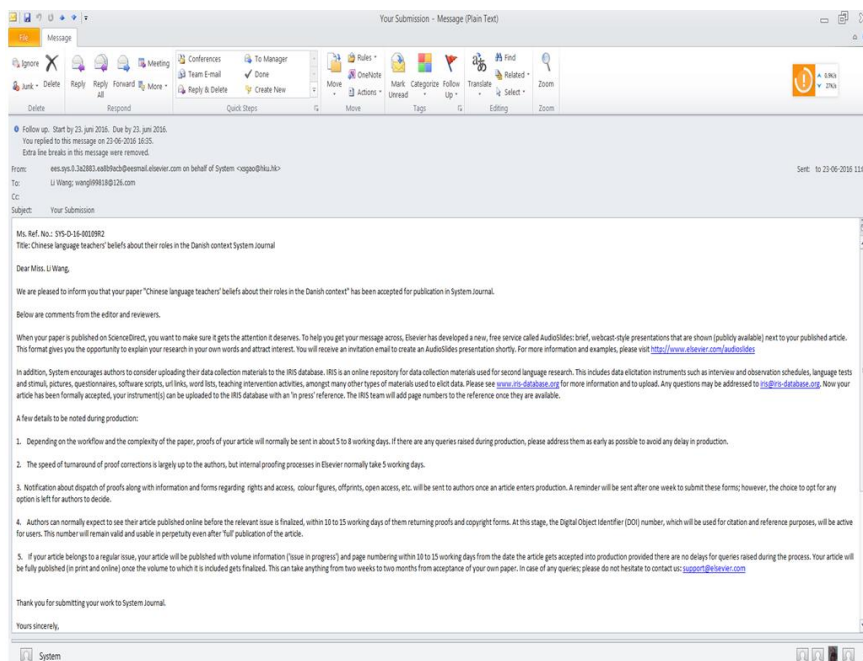
Chinese language teachers' beliefs about their roles in the Danish context

Abstract

This paper focuses on how teachers of Chinese as a foreign language (CFL) perceive their roles in the Danish context. In this qualitative study of twelve native and non-native Chinese-speaking language teachers, empirical data was collected from semi-structured interviews and classroom observations to explore teachers' beliefs about their roles. The study found that most teachers saw themselves as filling multiple roles and revealed that these were defined based on the following perspectives: how teachers plan and conduct teaching activities, what they want to emphasise and achieve in teaching and their relationships with their students and work environment. These findings suggest that teachers' individual cultural backgrounds, personal experiences and contextual factors all contribute to variations in their beliefs about their roles, including how they understand their facilitator role, teach culture and build relationships with students. Research results also reveal some contextual factors that challenge teachers' beliefs about their roles, including inadequate teaching materials, limited access to professional training and students who lack motivation to learn. These factors suggest a need for institutional support in building a professional community of CFL teachers in Denmark.

Keywords: Chinese language teacher, teacher belief, teacher role, challenges, Danish context

1. Introduction

Education is being restructured in many ways that challenge teachers' traditional roles (Beck, 2008); this holds true in the language-teaching field. The development of the intercultural dimension of language teaching and advocacy for students' autonomy have imposed new demands on teachers (Poom-Valickis, Oder, & Lepik, 2012), who are required to play multiple roles and facilitate students' learning (Mishara & Koehler, 2006). In order to help teachers gain the needed skills and competencies, it is important to understand the language teacher profile required by these new trends and developments. Furthermore, knowledge of the complexities of teachers' roles and the beliefs they hold about their roles is essential. Studies on foreign language teachers' roles report a wide range of sociocultural, institutional and professional classroom roles, and are intertwined with studies on teachers' professional identities (Beijaard, Verloop, & Vermunt, 2000). However, previous empirical research mainly covers the field of teaching English as a foreign language, which limits the application of the results to teachers of other languages, such as Chinese.

The increasing popularity of Chinese worldwide makes Chinese 'a newly emergent local/global language of considerable importance' (Singh & Jinghe, 2014, p. 405). Facilitating students' learning and improving the quality of education in Chinese as foreign language (CFL) has become a major concern. The paradigm shift from teaching grammar to a communicative approach in the CFL field has challenged teachers' traditional conceptions of teaching (Ma & Gao, in press; Moloney, 2013; Moloney & Xu, 2015). Yet research on CFL teachers' beliefs remains sparse, and the limited relevant literature is confined to the experiences and challenges of CFL

teachers who grew up in China (Moloney, 2013; Wang & Du, 2014; Wang, 2015; Liu & Sayer, 2016). Thus, more information is needed, particularly on those teachers of CFL who are not ethnic Chinese or who grew up in non-Chinese contexts.

This study explored CFL teachers' beliefs in the Danish context, where relevant research on their beliefs and practices is quite recent and limited (Sun, 2012; Moloney, 2013). In Denmark, teaching Chinese is a new profession without established practices, since studying Chinese has been an emerging phenomenon in the past decade (Du & Kirkebæk, 2012). The number of schools with Chinese programmes and students learning Chinese at beginner levels has greatly increased, since Chinese is among the variety of languages offered as a third elective foreign language for students from grade 7. Unlike many other countries, such as the US, Australia and the UK, where native Chinese speakers constitute the majority of teachers of CFL, Denmark has a diverse group of teachers: the majority are Danish natives, and native Chinese make up the second largest group. Another group consists of teachers from other countries who have immigrated to Denmark. This exploratory study investigated the beliefs of CFL teachers from such diverse educational and cultural backgrounds and generated new knowledge on the language teaching profession. To this end, twelve CFL teachers were interviewed, and seven of these teachers were observed while teaching, to gain insights into teachers' perceptions, practices and role conceptions. The aim of this study was first, to uncover the meanings CFL teachers ascribe to being a teacher and their beliefs about roles, and second, to explore the challenges they encounter.

2. Literature review

This section falls into three parts. The first provides a conceptual understanding of teachers' beliefs and their complexity. The second presents a variety of teacher roles and highlights the significance of studying teachers' beliefs about their roles. The third draws on research about language teachers' beliefs about their roles and examines how they have been studied, with a focus on Chinese language teachers and challenges they face internationally.

2.1. *Understanding the complexity of teachers' beliefs*

Research on language teaching and teacher education and development emphasises the importance of teachers' beliefs, suggesting that the implicit understandings and assumptions teachers have about teaching and learning exert great influence on their general classroom instruction, students' learning experience and teachers' development as professionals (Pajares, 1992; Kagan, 1992; Li, 2005). Many studies of teachers' beliefs have been carried out using different terms interchangeably to describe similar things. For example, belief was referred to as 'personal knowledge' by Clandinin and Connelly (1987, p. 487) and 'implicit theories' by Clark (1988, p. 6). According to Kagan (1992), teachers' beliefs include attitudes, opinions, perspectives and orientations. Some researchers equate beliefs to conceptions of teaching (Pratt, 1992; Pratt et al., 1999; Entwistle, et al., 2000). Borg (2003) views teachers' beliefs as a system that includes a set of beliefs regarding both the general educational field and specific subject content.

Although previous research on teachers' beliefs has covered a wide range of areas, these studies do share some commonalities: exploration of beliefs about different

aspects of teaching and learning, emphasis on the personal and contextual nature of teachers' beliefs, the role of culture and experience in the formation and development of belief and the symbiotic relationship between belief and practice (Kagan, 1992; Tam, 2012; Borg, 2003; Phipps & Borg, 2009). In understanding teachers' beliefs, it should be emphasised that they are subject to a wide range of personal, sociocultural and institutional factors, which include individuals' cultural backgrounds, professional and life experiences and school communities (Wu et al., 2011). Beliefs may change over time and be modified by new experiences in altered contexts, and are often transformed when facing new challenges and uncertainties (Dwyer, 1991). However, some fundamental beliefs formed by profound and 'culturally shared experiences (Wu et al., 2011, p. 48) may be resistant to change (Pajares, 1992; Wu et al., 2011). Although the beliefs teachers hold can directly affect their practice, and teaching practice reflects those beliefs, teachers' beliefs may be either consistent or inconsistent with their practice (Fang, 1996).

The variety of approaches to defining teachers' beliefs reflects the subject's complexity. Moreover, the complexity of teachers' beliefs is connected to their relationship with teacher identity and each teacher's personal knowledge (Sun, 2012). In this study, teachers' beliefs include teachers' personal practical knowledge and implicit personal assumptions and theories about teaching. The focus is on teachers' implicit understandings of their roles.

2.2. *Significance of teachers' beliefs about their roles*

Teachers' roles, or commonly held expectations of what teachers should do, are culturally defined and socially determined in nature (O'Connor, 2008). 'Teacher

roles are visible outcomes of teacher mediations' across various situational factors and 'wider educational discourses within a certain social context' (Kelly et al., 2014, p. 570). Teachers' beliefs concerning their roles are at the core of their professional belief systems, as these reflect their understanding of the key elements of teaching, the idea of what constitutes a good teacher and education, a view of knowledge and their position in relation to others in the professional community, including students and colleagues (Ahonen et al., 2014). Some researchers have studied (student) teachers' conceptions of their roles by focusing on teachers' personal and implicit understandings of the role of a teacher, thus revealing their beliefs about the role of the teacher (Valenčič Zuljan, 2007) Therefore, teachers' beliefs about their roles are used interchangeably with teachers' role conceptions in this paper. Teachers' beliefs about their roles have a significant impact on lesson plans, classroom instruction and interactions with students (Ahonen et al., 2014).

Educational reforms, increasing cross-cultural exchange worldwide and new trends in teaching and learning have contributed to a redefinition of teachers' roles and a revision of teachers' beliefs (Garrido & Álvarez, 2006). With the development of communicative language teaching and the emphasis on self-regulated learning, the focus has moved away from teachers and towards students. The role of the teacher has shifted from authoritarian knowledge transmitter to facilitator helping students to learn (Beijaard et al., 2000). Other factors suggesting a need for investigation into foreign-language teachers' roles include the importance of the intercultural dimension of language teaching (Sercu, 2006; Garrido & Álvarez, 2006), the cultural discrepancy between teachers and students (McCargar, 1993) and the

implementation of new professional teacher standards and regulations. For example, Morrison and Navarro (2012) propose a role shift from language teachers to learning advisors who cultivate learner autonomy and help students 'developing effective learning behaviors' (p. 351). Researchers have reported a wide range of roles for foreign-language teachers', such as knowledge transmitters, mediators of curriculum and social agents (Nebeker, 2002), facilitators, authorities (O'Dwyer, 2006), caregivers and coaches (Garrido & Alvarez, 2006), and cultural workers (Byram, 1997).

An extended view of teachers' roles would include their social and institutional roles, but both teachers and researchers prioritise classroom roles. Beck (2008) proposed three dimensions of the teacher's role: cognitive scaffolding, related to the method and manner in which teachers facilitate students' cognitive learning; stimulation of different learning styles to develop students' competencies; and emotional containment, related to how teachers communicate with students and the emotional and motivational elements of teaching. Richards and Rodgers (2014) state that teachers' roles are related to the following issues: the functions teachers are expected to fulfil, the degree of control the teacher has over how learning occurs, the degree to which the teacher is responsible for determining lesson content and the interaction patterns between teachers and learners (cited in Choudhury, 2011, p. 34). In summary, our literature review found that teachers' roles can be generally categorised by teachers and researchers in relation to the following three dimensions: how teachers plan and conduct teaching activities, what they want to emphasise and achieve in teaching and their relationship students. This approach to

summarising and categorising is used to both provide a better understanding of the teacher's role conceptually and to establish a tool to analyse and interpret the empirical data presented later in this paper.

2.3. *Chinese language teachers' beliefs about their roles and the challenges they face*

There is little research on teachers' beliefs and practices in the field of teaching Chinese as a foreign language (TCFL), although researchers recognise the significance of teachers' beliefs in teacher education and student learning (Sun, 2012). Most studies of TCFL are carried out in Western countries, especially the US, Australia, New Zealand and England (Moloney, 2013; Moloney & Xu, 2015; Singh & Han, 2014; Wang, 2015). Previous research on native Chinese language teachers abroad highlights the tensions between Chinese and Western educational cultures and attributes these teachers' beliefs about teaching to the traditional Chinese educational schema characterised by Confucian culture (Moloney & Xu, 2015). Compared to Western teachers, described as learning facilitators who have more equal relationships with students (Pratt, 1992; Pratt et al, 1999), Chinese teachers' beliefs about teaching, their role images and Chinese pedagogy tend to be interpreted by researchers in a negative way, through the lens of 'the western education schema expectations' (Moloney, 2013, p. 216). In many studies, native-Chinese-speaking language teachers have been depicted as authoritarian, favouring teacher-centred teaching and hierarchical relationships with students, focusing on imparting knowledge and strict discipline and teaching by the book (Watkins & Biggs, 1996; Gao & Watkins, 2001; Ho, 2001; Moloney & Xu, 2015).

Teachers' beliefs about teaching and the teacher's role, when shaped by traditional cultural values, might only adapt to a new environment slowly and with difficulty (Hu, 2002, cited in Wang, 2015). According to Zhang and Li (2010), Chinese teachers in the UK have great difficulty developing materials to meet learners' needs and retaining English-speaking learners. Moloney (2013) noted that Chinese teachers in Australia emphasise 'drilling, rote-learning and reliance on character teaching at the expense of communicative oral work' (p. 215), and their lack of communicative abilities also creates intercultural difficulties (Orton, 2008). Despite inherent conflicts between Chinese teachers' beliefs and instructions and Western students' needs in classroom settings, transition and development of Chinese teachers' beliefs have also been reported by researchers in Denmark, the US (Wang, 2015) and Australia (Moloney & Xu, 2015). Chinese teachers in these countries showed willingness to adapt to local pedagogy, develop themselves into CFL teachers and give instructions tailored to students' learning styles.

Among the few studies of Chinese language teachers' beliefs, hardly any have specifically explored Western-born, non-native-speaker Chinese language teachers' beliefs and experiences in the Western context, particularly in Denmark. Danish teachers have a good reputation for building democratic relationships with students, and their pedagogical discourse places great importance on subject competence, citizenship education, democracy and autonomous learning (Osborn, 1999 & 2001; Dorf et al., 2012; Kelly et al., 2014). Informed by previous studies, this study assumes teachers may conceptualise their teaching, teacher and student roles, course content, teaching approaches and classroom organisation differently due to

their national background and experience of different cultural contexts. Therefore, by exploring both native and non-native Chinese language teachers' beliefs about their roles, this study aims to provide new insights into CFL teachers, enriching existing research on language teachers' beliefs.

The two research questions guiding the study are:

1. How do CFL (Chinese as a Foreign Language) teachers conceive of their professional roles in the current Danish context?

2. What challenges these CFL teachers' beliefs about their roles?

3. Methodology

The focus of this study is to understand teachers' beliefs and perspectives – their subjective experiences and socially constructed meanings – rather than to test a hypothesis with relatively well-defined variables. The aim of the study and the limited number of Chinese language teachers means that qualitative research methods are more suitable than quantitative ones (Corbin & Strauss, 2014).

3.1. Context

The study is situated in the national context of increasing interest in China and learning Chinese in recent years in Denmark. Three Confucius Institutes (CIs) have been set up at three universities to facilitate Chinese teaching and promote exchanges between the two countries. According to Du and Kirkebæk (2012), there were more than 30 upper secondary schools offering Chinese classes in 2011. Up-to-date official statistics about schools offering Chinese programmes and Chinese

language teachers are not available due to the increasing rate of growth in the past three years. Chinese language teaching in Denmark is a relatively new profession with no clearly defined practices. According to the staff of the Chinese teachers' association in Denmark (a self-organised association established in 2011), there were around 40 members when the study was conducted, between the end of 2013 and the beginning of 2015.

In Denmark, Chinese language teachers mainly work in the following educational institutions: 1) universities: four of the eight universities in the country offer Chinese as both a major and a minor; teachers are often full-time or part-time lecturers with the qualification to teach at the university level (some are teachers from the affiliated CIs); 2) high schools: around 30 of the 150 high schools in the country offer Chinese-language classes at various levels, with curricula defined by the Ministry of Education; teachers are mostly full-time and often teach another subject as well; 3) lower secondary schools: Chinese classes are not presently included in the curricula by the Ministry of Education, so they are mostly organised as elective courses and taught by part-time teachers, either from CI or Chinese immigrants; and 4) spare-time courses: offered by different educational institutions with broad target groups and taught by part-time teachers (either from CI or Chinese immigrants). In general, Chinese-language teachers can be categorised into three groups by their backgrounds: 1) Danish native speakers with Chinese as their major and a Master's degree from a Danish university qualifying them to teach in high schools and universities, who receive obligatory pedagogy training a few years after they enter this profession; 2) native Chinese speakers who have lived in

Denmark for many years with a first degree in China and a Master's degree from a Danish university, teaching Chinese as a second choice (having studied for another career); and 3) native Chinese speakers with a Master's degree in TCFL and professional training in teaching Chinese internationally, many of whom are from the CI.

3.2. Participants

At the end of 2013, when this study began, the researchers enrolled participants randomly through emails calling for volunteers. Then we used a snowball approach to locate key informants by asking participants and following their suggestions (Patton, 2002). We used purposive sampling and took teachers' backgrounds into consideration to ensure diversity in representation of geographical areas, teaching experience and ethnic and cultural backgrounds.

The schools where the participants work are geographically diverse, covering seven cities (Copenhagen, Aarhus, Odense, etc.) in Denmark. Five teachers (CFM, CLF, CZY, CXN and CJM) coded with the letter C in their initials are native Chinese, with a Chinese educational background and Mandarin as their mother tongue. EJN was a British native who had lived in Denmark for more than 10 years, and the remainder of the teachers (DXS, DTN, DSN, DYL, DBJ and DSS) were Danish natives who had lived and studied in China. They ranged in age from their late 20s to their early 40s, with DSS in her early 50s. Their teaching experience ranged from two to nine years, excepting DSS, who has taught Chinese for approximately 30 years. CFM and CLF teach at universities that have CIs. DSS is also a university teacher, while the others work at senior secondary schools. All the Danish teachers

have earned either a BA or an MA in Chinese. CJM and DBJ are male; we found that most Chinese language teachers in Danish schools are female.

3.3. *Data generation and analysis*

Data was generated through in-depth interviews, classroom observations and a review of teachers' lesson plans and materials in order to triangulate insights into teachers' beliefs and practices. In-depth interviews provide a nuanced understanding of teachers' experiences, thoughts and feelings (Sun, 2012). As in other qualitative research on teachers' beliefs, emphasis is placed on teachers' previous experiences and systematic understandings about teaching and learning, with a particular focus on teachers' roles. Face-to-face interviews ranging from 1.5 to 2 hours were first conducted individually in order to elicit teachers' personal and professional experience, their beliefs and the challenges they have faced. Afterwards, classroom observations were carried out with seven teachers, ranging from four to eight hours each, depending on their schedules and availability. Data was collected through these observations to better understand teachers' practices and beliefs as revealed in the interviews and to shape a holistic perspective (Patton, 2002). Some teachers who were observed were interviewed again with questions from field notes generated during observations. At the beginning of 2015, follow-up phone interviews were conducted to ask additional questions resulting from the data analysis. The interviews, conducted in either English or Chinese, were audiotaped and transcribed. Classroom observations were not recorded, but field notes were taken by a researcher listing teaching activities, procedures and teacher-student/student-student interactions.

Content analysis was used to analyse the interview data, as it is very much concerned with meanings and context, and provides a condensed description of a phenomenon (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008). The interview data was coded by hand when the researcher began reading the transcripts for the first time. Some key words were highlighted with notes in the margins to reveal the themes and concepts. After many rounds of reading and note-taking, the codes were grouped into different colours. Afterwards, we used the research questions to guide the coding process and referred mainly to teachers' understandings of their roles and issues that challenge their beliefs about these roles. The three theoretical perspectives were used as main categories for framing. Open coding was conducted, with more subcategories generated in the process. A table was made during this process, showing key themes in the teachers' thoughts on their roles. The perspectives through which teachers understood their roles emerged as themes after rounds of categorising meanings in the data.

4. Findings

4.1. Teachers' beliefs about their roles

Three main themes relating to teachers' roles emerged from the analysis: how teachers carry out teaching to facilitate students' learning, what they want to teach and achieve and their relationships with students. These themes will be presented in detail in the following sections.

4.1.1. How they teach: Being a teacher facilitator

The results of the study indicate that all teachers, regardless of background, related their roles as teachers to students' active engagement. The predominant role cited

was that of a learning facilitator who conducts student-centred teaching. Some metaphors teachers used in describing this role include 'captain', 'helper' and 'coach and guide'. However, being a facilitator was interpreted in various ways.

Prioritising students' needs and interests. Most native-Chinese–speaking teachers constantly compared their learning experience at Chinese schools, characterised by a teacher-centred style of teaching, to the student-centred Danish way of teaching. They expressed a willingness to adopt new roles as facilitators when faced with students who expect more interaction and discussion in class than do their Chinese counterparts. However, they described the facilitator role in a rather general and abstract way, with a focus on 'giving attention to students' needs and interests' (CFM, CLF), 'delivering knowledge based on students' responses' (CXN) and 'carrying the responsibility of teaching and learning' themselves (CZY), without mentioning any specific collaborative or interactive approaches to teaching. CFM illustrated her view on being a facilitator:

> As a foreign language teacher here, I think I function as a
> facilitator. It means that I am leading and controlling the class,
> but how I teach and deliver knowledge depends on students.

Inconsistent or even contrasting beliefs coexist in teachers' belief systems when they emphasise taking control, knowledge transmission and their facilitating role at the same time. For example, CFM claimed she had to 'redefine her role as a captain in the student-centred Danish classrooms, where teachers' roles are comparatively smaller and students do most of the work'. However, she also highlighted classroom control and prioritising her teaching plan. The classroom observations of CFM and CZY showed a disparity between teachers' stated beliefs and practices. Despite CFM's beliefs about holding a facilitating role, her Chinese class featured a

lecturing style. CFM began the class by presenting the main characteristics of Chinese pictographic characters for five minutes and then moved to one-way interaction with individual students, asking questions such as, 'Can you explain the meaning of this radical of the character?' Students were individually asked to write characters on the blackboard. The class was quiet, and students barely interacted with each other. When asked why she would use this kind of classroom instruction, CFM argued that university students without a background in Chinese relied on teachers to help them learn characters, and she believed her direct instructions and explanations helped students most efficiently.

Emphasising students' learner autonomy. For CJM and other non-native Chinese-speaking teachers, facilitating meant involving students and participating in their learning activities through learner-centred approaches. They agreed that Chinese was a difficult language for students to learn and emphasised making teaching a shared activity, preferring a dialogue-based approach over one-way transmitting. Their main concern was whether they were fostering students' abilities to be active and independent learners. These teachers described the facilitator role by suggesting specific ways of cultivating students' autonomous learning, such as 'negotiating and deciding on teaching activities together with the students' (DBJ, DTN, CJM), 'offering students useful tools to learn Chinese' (DXS, DBJ, DYL), 'helping students to set up their own objectives through guiding [and] coaching' (DTN, DSS, DBJ) and 'organising students to work in groups' (CJM, DBJ, DTN, DXS, DXS, DSS, EJN).

Classroom observations showed that, compared with native Chinese speaking teachers who spoke of their facilitator role in a general way, these teachers (CJM, DSN, DTN and DBJ) used a more collaborative approach and more group work in class. CJM began studying and working overseas when he was a teenager and valued students' group work, with which he had lots of experience. His and DSN's classes were similar in terms of teaching style. They both provided opportunities for students to practice using a variety of methods, such as role-play, project work, multimedia and group discussions. The role of the teacher in the process was that of a consultant giving students help and suggestions.

4.1.2. What to teach and achieve

Teachers agreed that developing students' language skills, including competence to prepare for their exams and for real-life communication, was a central part of their job. Moreover, they all saw teaching culture as part of their role and asserted the necessity of integrating culture into language teaching. The ways in which teachers referred to their roles in teaching culture fall into two groups.

Teaching culture with the emphasis on delivering cultural knowledge. Four native Chinese teachers saw their role in teaching culture as discussing cultural facts, knowledge and cultural practices, including the 'historical side, politics', 'festivals, food culture' (CZY, CFM, CLF, CXN) and 'cultural practices, such as table manners, bargaining, greeting etiquette' (CXN, CJM). CJM works in a business high school, so he prioritised introducing Chinese business culture do's and don'ts. Other native Chinese teachers indicated that 'teaching culture was subordinate to

training students' language skills', and that they covered it only in connection with language points (CZY, CXN, CFM, and CLF).

Teaching culture for students' intercultural understanding, citizenship education and overall development. CZY and most non-native Chinese-speaking teachers oriented their role in teaching culture towards fostering students' intercultural competence and educating them to be good citizens and well-rounded individuals. Among these teachers, two Danish teachers (DXS, DYL) prioritised students' intercultural understanding above language learning. As DYL put it,

> I think it's more important to cultivate students' intercultural competence than to teach them how to speak, though I have to help them pass exams. Students might forget how to say a word or sentence in Chinese in the future; their awareness of respecting differences and open-mindedness is something they could have for a lifetime.

DTN considered it important 'to teach students something about their position in the world and being a Danish citizen', placing language teaching in a larger context where students are exposed to increasing cross-cultural encounters. DYL saw her role as bridging the target culture and students' own culture and reducing prejudices. She depicted herself as

> the middle person trying to make the two sides (Chinese and Danish) meet and understand each other better via language and via understanding the other person's viewpoint, also to understand where they are coming from, and respect their differences.

These teachers linked the role of teaching culture to cultivating students' critical thinking skills, cultural awareness and open-mindedness. In terms of the intercultural dimension of teaching, they preferred topics directly related to student life in and outside of school. They insisted that the contents of their cultural curricula were a product of negotiation and discussion with students. Their goal was

not only to prepare students for study in China, but also to motivate them and prepare them for a better life.

Teacher observations of DSN and EJN showed that their selection of content related to culture and the weight they placed on it varied depending on the specific situation. For example, DSN, who constantly related cultural teaching to students' critical skills, involved one class in discussion about women in China. She showed students a documentary about the status of young Chinese women and used it as a starting point to encourage their critical analysis and interpretation of what they saw, joining their discussion and facilitating their reflections.

4.1.3. Relationships with students

All teachers in the study defined the role of a teacher and the corresponding responsibilities in relation to students by using different metaphors, such as caregiver, guide, friend and adult companion. They put themselves in different positions when interacting with students inside and outside the classroom. Teachers agreed that building a rapport with students would help create an inclusive and safe classroom. However, they also agreed on the need to balance their wish for a friendly relationship with a need for a professional distance from students.

A knowledgably intellectual authority. To most teachers, a teaching role entails authority, but this does not imply a hierarchical relationship with students. Teachers as authorities were described in two ways. For DTN and DYL, they played the role of a 'knowledgeable intellectual authority'. They believed a Chinese language teacher with relevant teaching qualifications and a higher level of linguistic knowledge was the main source of students' language learning. Although students

were competent enough to pursue independent study with the help of technology, they still had a certain level of dependence on teachers, especially as beginners, for guidance and learning strategies.

A democratic authority. Most teachers perceived themselves as authorities in terms of their role in classroom management, the maintenance of discipline and creating a conducive learning environment, which they believed were critical to the students' learning process. These teachers were very cautious when referring to teachers as authority figures; they rejected the authority image 'in the Chinese way' wherein 'students felt scared of me and were afraid of expressing their ideas' (DXS). Faced with Danish students who were 'too casual and weak in discipline', CZY believed 'it is important that teachers build certain authority, and should know when to say yes and no to students'. These teachers thought that their authority supported their teaching and did not want to make it too 'personal' (DXS, CZY). They preferred a professional relationship with appropriate distance.

Being students' friend. CJM, CXN and DYL saw themselves as 'friends', valuing 'being equal', 'caring' and 'showing empathy and emotional support to students'. They believed the key to being friends is respecting and caring for students as individuals and having fun with them in teaching. They believed that a rewarding, close relationship motivated students' learning.

Teacher as a more knowledgeable adult companion. Most Danish teachers explicitly referred to their roles as 'more knowledgeable persons' or 'adult companions' (DBJ, DXS), emphasising a democratic and professional relationship

with students. They disavowed a paternalist view of the teacher's role because they were strongly against high levels of control in the student-teacher relationship.

All teachers acknowledged their significant role in motivating students and creating a positive and appropriate relationship with them. Those who espoused a friend role were observed carrying out very informal and relaxed conversations with students, while those espousing an authority role in classroom management, such as CZY and EJN, demonstrated stronger leadership and structured the class in a more controlled way.

In addition to these three main perspectives on teachers' roles, teachers in this study also defined their roles in relation to the teaching profession and the context in which they work. First, they all embraced the learner role and stressed being reflective and lifelong learners, though they were confident in their professional roles and knowledge. The more experience teachers had in teaching, the more importance they attached to being reflective about practice and the teacher's role. Second, for native Chinese teachers, adapting to the local Danish context was a powerful theme. Third, Danish teachers who were pioneers in TCFL in Denmark (e.g., DSS, DXS and DTN), showed a strong sense of responsibility for developing innovative methods to promote CFL teaching and knowledge sharing to build a better Chinese language teachers' professional community in Denmark, which implied that they saw themselves in a developer role.

4.2. Issues challenging teachers' beliefs about their roles

The analysis identified a number of common issues that challenged teachers' perceptions of their roles in teaching Chinese in the Danish context. First, all

interviewed teachers agreed that motivating students to learn was the most challenging aspect of TCFL in Denmark; this is due in part to the characteristics of the Chinese language and the status of Chinese programmes in schools. All teachers considered Chinese difficult to teach, in terms of its distinctive character and phonetic systems, to beginners with no background in the language. In addition, Chinese was not a core subject at secondary schools; students would prioritise other subjects, such as English and Math. Teachers had difficulty finding effective methods of increasing and sustaining students' motivation, helping students learn Chinese characters and retaining learners in their second year of Chinese learning. They agreed that learning Chinese requires effort and memorisation, which are not valued by Danish students who 'do not have a tradition of doing homework, hard work and memorisation'. This resulted in students' dependence on teachers' pushing and monitoring them, going against teachers' desired role of facilitator in cultivating students' independence and autonomy. Teachers encountered dilemmas when they were forced to push students to work, as they desired to give students the opportunity to be self-regulated learners in a democratic relationship. Second, a lack of adequate teaching materials relevant to Danish students' cultural backgrounds and lived experience was considered a factor that impeded teachers' roles in effective language teaching as well as in cultivating students' intercultural competence. For example, the only Danish Chinese textbook available at the high school level was considered 'out-dated' by most teachers, as it contained old images of China which would mislead students and fuel stereotypes. Teachers had to look for different textbooks and develop their own teaching materials, which

imposed additional demands on teachers of Chinese as opposed to other subjects taught in Denmark. Third, the exam system at high schools, which mainly tests students' ability to write and recognise Chinese characters, also constrained teachers' (mostly local Danish) role in teaching culture and developing students' communicative skills.

Fourth, faced with students at different levels and needs within the same class, teachers faced the demanding task of managing multiple teaching materials and approaches. As the Danish teacher DXS illustrated:

> I have great difficulty in facilitating students' learning because the level of the students varies so much in the class; some students could barely speak a complete sentence in Chinese, and some could talk fluently.

Fifth, professional learning and training activities are hard to access in the area of TCFL, due in part to practical reasons and in part to the status of Chinese programmes in Denmark. As the interviewees put it, 'being the only Chinese language teacher' in their respective institutions (mostly high schools) meant they had limited opportunities to exchange ideas with colleagues teaching the same subject, which constrained their access to professional support. This limitation made 'loneliness' (DYL, EJN, DBJ, CZY, DXN) in one's institutional environment part of being a Chinese teacher in Denmark. In general, teachers who participated in this study seem to work hard on their professional identities as teachers in Denmark, and they all seem to struggle, to different degrees, in their special role as a teacher in their particular work environment as a result of being the only teacher of the subject.

Most native Chinese language teachers face challenges adapting to the new educational context in terms of performing an authentic facilitator role, learning local pedagogical ideas, understanding students' learning styles, building close relationships with students and colleagues and fulfilling institutional requirements. They described an uneasy process of gradually relinquishing control in class and tailoring their curricula to students' different learning needs and styles. CZY said,

> It was not easy to constantly remind myself not to control everything in class and leave some space for students' questions and discussions.

Inadequate Danish language proficiency has been a barrier to effective teaching and in-depth communication with students. CFM expressed the feeling of 'being an outsider as a foreigner' as she noted,

> I could not speak Danish. I have few interactions with students outside the classroom; and I mostly communicate and have closer relationships with colleagues who are native Chinese.

CLF stated that she did not have the feeling of being a teacher because she had 'no close interactions with students after class', which implied a marginalised position. Though EJN, CZY and CJM had mastered adequate Danish for communication, they still found it occasionally challenging to use Danish as a medium of instruction when explaining grammatical rules and discussing cultural themes with students.

5. Discussion

The inquiry reveals the multi-faceted nature of participants' beliefs about their roles. In addition to the ways in which teachers referred to their roles identified above— how teachers plan and conduct teaching activities, what they want to emphasise and achieve in teaching and the relationships they build with students—many teachers also defined their roles in relation to their work environment and professional

community as either adaptor and learner (mostly native Chinese teachers) or developer and renewer of current practices promoting collaboration and knowledge sharing (non-native Chinese teachers who were pioneers in the field). This finding aligns with research revealing that teachers define themselves as members of the social context (Ahonen et al., 2014).

Teachers' beliefs about their roles should be situated within three contexts: the micro-context of each teacher's personal experiences, the mid-level context of the institution and school culture and the broader context of contemporary theoretical changes in general education and language pedagogy. Given that teachers are required to adopt a more student-centred approach, teachers' beliefs about their roles in this study could be considered positive because most teachers saw being facilitators as central to their work.

However, differences existed in teachers' self-images due to their different educational and professional experiences and work environments. First, compared with novice teachers, teachers with more experience tended to be more self-reflective. Second, though most native-Chinese teachers expressed willingness to adopt a facilitator role because they had some cross-cultural experience in the Danish schools, they spoke of their facilitator role in a rather abstract way, without any specific idea of how this role could be performed in the Danish classroom. This is partly due to their past schooling experience in a more teacher-centred educational culture in which teachers were seen as the primary knowledge transmitters and authorities (Biggs & Watkins, 2001) and partly to their lack of knowledge of pedagogical instruction in the Danish school context and its emphasis

on students' active participation and self-regulation (Osborn, 1999). Most of the non-native Chinese speaking teachers and one native-Chinese speaking teacher, all of whom had received both secondary and higher education in Denmark, had a more sophisticated understanding of the facilitator role in terms of developing students' self-regulation by various strategies and communicative teaching approaches; this may be related to their extensive experience as students learning within learner-centred classrooms (O'Sullivan, 2004). Their beliefs about their roles resonate with the trend of cultivating learner autonomy in language teaching (Morrison & Navarro, 2012) and the strong Danish educational discourse on 'self-governing responsibility for one's own learning' (Kelly et al., 2014, p. 567). Third, teachers saw their roles differently in terms of goals in language and cultural teaching. Some native Chinese teachers saw their role in teaching culture as cultural knowledge transmission, and they focused on visible or distinctive aspects of national culture (histories, festivals, food, etc.). Due to a lack of teacher training on the local school culture and educational systems, these teachers seldom referred to the Danish schools' educational aims of cultivating students' intercultural competence and providing citizenship education. The roles most native Chinese expected to play in representing and disseminating Chinese culture echoed those revealed in studies by Ma and Gao (in press) on pre-service teachers teaching Chinese as an international language in China. This finding is also consistent with some previous studies showing that Chinese teachers tend to present culture as knowledge of cultural artefacts and need more training in the areas of culture and sociology (Scrimgenour & Wilson, 2009; Moloney, 2013). Most non-native

Chinese speaking teachers have more extended conceptions of the teacher's role. Their discourse on the teacher's role emphasised students' intercultural understanding, critical enquiry skills, citizenship education and whole-child development, which perhaps 'stemmed from an integrated concern for pupil development, rooted in child-oriented educational paradigms' and 'linked to radical critical democratic paradigms' in Denmark (Kelly et al., 2013, p. 581; Osborn, 2001). The influence of the concept of *dannelse* (Danish word for bildung, which refers to a person's personal formation and self-discovery process), the objectives of high school and teacher training were evident in most non-native Chinese teachers' beliefs about roles (Sjöström, 2013; Kelly et al., 2013).

The prevalent hierarchical, authoritarian and pastoral roles noted in previous studies of Chinese teachers (Ho, 2001; Gao & Watkins, 2002; Hu, 2002) were not evident in this study. A challenging transformational process in native Chinese speaking teachers' beliefs regarding their roles could be observed. These teachers' emphasis on the facilitator role, integration of students' needs and interests into lesson plans and building of equal relationships with students was evident, implying that their views of teachers' roles are changing. This transition is partly due to constant comparisons between their educational experience in China and their cross-cultural experiences studying and living in Denmark. Teachers' inconsistent beliefs and the discrepancy between beliefs and practice represent possible barriers to effective instruction; however, this inconsistency 'can be viewed as positive in intercultural settings', as it reflects teachers' willingness to adapt and adjust to a new professional environment (Wang, 2015, p. 161).

Many issues influencing and challenging teachers' perceptions and executions of their roles are related to contextual factors, such as students' motivation and learning characteristics, the status of Chinese in educational institutions, teachers' access to professional support and the lack of adequate teaching materials. This highlights the significant role context plays in both teachers' beliefs and teaching processes (Pajares, 1992; Borg, 2003). Contextual factors may constrain teachers' beliefs and contribute to a certain ambivalence in their perceptions of roles (Liu & Sayer, 2016); for example, the status of Chinese as a lowly ranked subject or an elective course at universities caused difficulty to teachers in motivating students and building close relationships with them. Though most native-Chinese teachers' limited Danish language proficiency and unfamiliarity with local school culture and Danish pedagogical discourse undermined their assumptions of appropriate teacher roles in the Danish context, they were making efforts to overcome the differing values and expectations of teachers' roles.

6.   Conclusion and implications

This qualitative study presents an investigation of twelve CFL teachers' beliefs about their roles in Danish educational institutions. The study found that teachers saw themselves as combining multiple roles and tended to define their roles in terms of: (1) how they plan and conduct teaching activities, (2) what they want to emphasise and achieve in teaching and (3) the relationships they build with students and their work environments. Prominent roles include teacher as facilitator, cultural knowledge transmitter, intercultural professional, friend, authority and learner. However, teachers interpreted their roles differently not only because of their

different national and cultural backgrounds, but also as a result of personal experiences, working environments, accumulated experience and negotiations with students and colleagues. Common issues identified in this study were mainly related to contextual factors challenging teachers' beliefs about their roles, such as subject matter, student characteristics, teaching materials and institutional constraints, suggesting a need for professional support at both institutional and national levels and joint efforts to build a professional community of TCFL practice in Denmark. The challenges native Chinese teachers face mainly stem from their unfamiliarity with a new culture and school system. These obstacles confirmed a need for further professional development and training in order to support teachers' adaptation to the requirements of a new educational environment.

This analytical framework provides new perspectives on language teachers' roles and on supporting CFL teachers' learning and development. It offers a broader perspective on what being a CFL teacher means in the Danish context. Research on teachers' beliefs about their roles has deepened our understanding of the complexity of teaching practices and language teacher roles, and of the factors shaping and transforming teachers' beliefs. It indicates the knowledge, skills and competencies teachers should possess, and what they want students to know and accomplish. When examining teachers' beliefs about roles contextually, it is hard to make broad generalisations about teaching culture and roles associated with personal background. This study is limited by its small number of participants, a challenge caused by the small population of CFL teachers in Denmark. In addition, a few teachers who showed interest and willingness to participate in our research could

not do so due to their busy schedules. This study has shown native Chinese teachers' willingness to adapt to local school culture and pedagogy by becoming facilitators; further studies could be done through longitudinal enquiries into the specific processes by which CFL teachers' beliefs and practices are reshaped as they accumulate experience in the context of working abroad.

References

Ahonen, E., Pyhältö, K., Pietarinen, J., & Soini, T. (2014). Teachers' professional beliefs about their roles and the pupils' roles in the school. *Teacher Development, 18*(2), 177-197. DOI: 10.1080/13664530.2014.900818

Beck, S. (2008). The teacher's role and approaches in a knowledge society. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 38(4), 465-481. DOI: 10.1080/03057640802482330

Beijaard, D., Verloop, N., & Vermunt, J. D. (2000). Teachers' perceptions of professional identity: An exploratory study from a personal knowledge perspective. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 16*(7), 749-764. DOI: 10.1016/S0742-051X(00)00023-8

Biggs, J. B., & Watkins, D. A. (2001). Insights into teaching the Chinese learner. In D. A. Watkins & J. B. Biggs (Eds.), *Teaching the Chinese learner:*

Psychological and pedagogical perspectives (pp.277-300). Hong Kong: Comparative Education Research Centre, The University of Hong Kong

Borg, S. (2003). Teacher cognition in language teaching: A review of research on what language teachers think, know, believe, and do. Language Teaching, 36(2), 81–109. DOI: 10.1017/S0261444803001903

Byram, M. (1997). *Teaching and assessing intercultural communicative competence.* Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Choudhury, A. S. (2011). Classroom roles of English Language teachers: The traditional and the innovative. *Contemporary Online Language Education Journal*, *1*, 33-40.

Clandinin, D. J., & Connelly, F. M. (1987). Teachers' personal knowledge: What counts as 'personal' in studies of the personal. *Journal of Curriculum Studies, 19*(6), 487-500. DOI: 10.1080/0022027870190602

Clark, C. M. (1988). Asking the right questions about teacher preparation: Contributions of research on teacher thinking. *Educational Researcher, 17*(2), 5-12. DOI: 10.3102/0013189x017002005

Corbin, J., & Strauss, A. (2014). *Basics of qualitative research: Techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory.* London: Sage Publications.

O'Dwyer, S. (2006). The English Teacher as Facilitator and Authority. TESL-EJ, 9(4), 1-15.

Dorf, H., Kelly, P., Pratt, N., & Hohmann, U. (2012). Varieties of teacher expertise in teaching. Danish language and literature in lower secondary schools. *Nordic Studies in Education, 32*(1), 17-34.

Du, X., & Kirkebæk, M. J. (2012). *Exploring task-based PBL in Chinese teaching and learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Dwyer, D. C. (1991). Changes in teachers' beliefs and practices in technology-rich classrooms. *Educational Leadership, 48*(8), 45-52.

Elo, S., & Kyngäs, H. (2008). The qualitative content analysis process. *Journal of Advanced Nursing, 62*(1), 107-115. DOI: 10.1111/j.1365-2648.2007.04569.x

Entwistle, N., Skinner, D., Entwistle, D., & Orr, S. (2000). Conceptions and beliefs about "good teaching": An integration of contrasting research areas. *Higher Education Research and Development, 19*(1), 5-26. DOI: 10.1080/07294360050020444

Fang, Z. (1996). A review of research on teacher beliefs and practices. *Educational Research, 38*(1), 47-65. DOI: 10.1080/0013188960380104

Gao, L., & Watkins, D. A. (2002). Conceptions of teaching held by school science teachers in PR China: Identification and cross-cultural comparisons.

International Journal of Science Education, 24(1), 61-79. DOI: 10.1080/09500690110066926

Garrido, C., & Álvarez, I. (2006). Language teacher education for intercultural understanding. *European Journal of Teacher Education, 29*(2), 163-179. DOI: 10.1080/02619760600617342

Ho, Irene T. (2001). Are Chinese teachers authoritarian? In David A. Watkins & John B. Biggs (Eds.), *Teaching the Chinese learner: Psychological and pedagogical perspectives* (pp.99-114). Hong Kong: Comparative Education Research Centre, University of Hong Kong.

Hu, G. (2002). Potential cultural resistance to pedagogical imports: The case of communicative language teaching in china. *Language Culture and Curriculum, 15*(2), 93-105. DOI: 10.1080/07908310208666636

Kagan, D. M. (1992). Implication of research on teacher belief. *Educational Psychologist, 27*(1), 65-90. DOI: 10.1207/s15326985ep2701_6

Kelly, P., Dorf, H., Pratt, N., & Hohmann, U. (2014). Comparing teacher roles in Denmark and England.Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education, 44(4), 566-586. DOI: 10.1080/03057925.2013.800786

Kelly, P., Pratt, N., Dorf, H., & Hohmann, U. (2013). Comparing pedagogy in mathematics in Denmark and England. *European Educational Research Journal, 12*(4), 553-567. DOI: 10.1080/03057925.2013.800786

Kember, D. (1997). A reconceptualisation of the research into university academics' conceptions of teaching. *Learning and Instruction, 7*(3), 255-275. DOI: 10.1016/s0959-4752(96)00028-x

Li, J. (2005). Mind or virtue western and Chinese beliefs about learning. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 14*(4), 190-194. DOI: 10.1111/j.0963-7214.2005.00362.x

Liu, I. C., & Sayer, P. (2016). Reconciling Pedagogical Beliefs and Teaching Practices: Chinese Teachers and the Pressures of a U.S. High School Foreign Language Context. *The Journal of Language Teaching and Learning*, 6(1), 1-19.

Ma, X., & Gao, X. (in press). Metaphors used by pre-service teachers of Chinese as an international language. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 1-13. DOI: 10.1080/02607476.2016.1182372

McCargar, D. F. (1993). Teacher and student role expectations: Cross‐cultural differences and implications. *The Modern Language Journal, 77*(2), 192-207. DOI: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.1993.tb01963.x

Mishra, P., & Koehler, M. (2006). Technological pedagogical content knowledge: A framework for teacher knowledge. *The Teachers College Record*, 108(6), 1017-1054. DOI: 10.1111/j.1467-9620.2006.00684.x

Moloney, R. A. (2013). Providing a bridge to intercultural pedagogy for native speaker teachers of Chinese in Australia. *Language, Culture and Curriculum, 26*(3), 213-228. DOI: 10.1080/07908318.2013.829081

Moloney, R., Xu, H. (2015). Transitioning beliefs in teachers of Chinese as a foreign language: An Australian case study. *Cogent Education,* 2(1), 1-15. DOI: 10.1080/2331186x.2015.1024960

Morrison, B. R., & Navarro, D. (2012). Shifting roles: From language teachers to learning advisors. *System, 40*(3), 349-359. DOI: 10.1016/j.system.2012.07.004

Nebeker, M. L. (2002). The teacher and society: John Dewey and the experience of teachers. *Education and Culture*, 18(2), 14-20. Retrieved July 4, 2015, from http://docs.lib.purdue.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1489&context=eandc

O'Connor, K. E. (2008). "You choose to care": Teachers, emotions and professional identity. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 24*(1), 117-126. DOI: 10.1016/j.tate.2006.11.008

Orton, J. (2008). *Chinese language education in Australian schools.* Melbourne: The University of Melbourne.

O'Sullivan, M. (2004). The reconceptualisation of learner-centred approaches: a Namibian case study. *International Journal of Educational Development*, *24*(6), 585-602. DOI: 10.1016/s0738-0593(03)00018-x

Osborn, M. (1999). National context, educational goals and pupil experience of schooling and learning in three European countries. *Compare, 29*(3), 287-301. DOI: 10.1080/0305792990290307

Osborn, M. (2001). Constants and contexts in pupil experience of learning and schooling: Comparing learners in England, France and Denmark. *Comparative Education, 37*(3), 267-278. DOI: 10.1080/03050060126690

Pajares, M. F. (1992). Teachers' beliefs and educational research: Cleaning up a messy construct. *Review of Educational Research, 62*(3), 307-332. DOI: 10.3102/00346543062003307

Patton, M. Q. (2002). Qualitative interviewing. *Qualitative Research and Evaluation Methods, 3*, 344-347.

Poom-Valickis, K., Oder, T., & Lepik, M. (2012). Teachers' beliefs regarding their professional role: A gardener, lighthouse or circus director? *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 69*, 233-241. DOI: 10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.11.404

Phipps, S., & Borg, S. (2009). Exploring tensions between teachers' grammar teaching beliefs and practices. *System*, 37(3), 380-390. DOI: 10.1016/j.system.2009.03.002

Pratt, D. D. (1992). Conceptions of teaching. *Adult Education Quarterly, 42*(4), 203-220.

Pratt, D. D., Kelly, M., & Wong, W. S. (1999). Chinese conceptions of effective teaching in Hong Kong: Towards culturally sensitive evaluation of teaching. *International Journal of Lifelong Education, 18*(4), 241-258. DOI: 10.1080/02601370210156745

Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (2014). *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. Cambridge University Press.

Sercu, L. (2006). The foreign language and intercultural competence teacher: The acquisition of a new professional identity. *Intercultural Education, 17*(1), 55-72. DOI: 10.1080/14675980500502321

Singh, M., & Han, J. H. (2014). Educating teachers of "Chinese as a local/global language": Teaching "Chinese with Australian characteristics". *Frontiers of Education in China, 9*(3), 403-428. DOI: 10.3868/s110-003-014-0033-x

Sun, D. (2012). "Everything goes smoothly": A case study of an immigrant Chinese language teacher's personal practical knowledge. *Teaching and teacher education*, *28*(5), 760-767. DOI: 10.1016/j.tate.2012.03.002

Scrimgeour, A., & Wilson, P. (2009). International curriculum for Chinese language education. *Babel*, *43*(2), 35-48.

Sjöström, J. (2013). Towards Bildung-oriented chemistry education. *Science & Education*, *22*(7), 1873-1890. DOI: 10.1007/s11191-011-9401-0

Tam, A. C. F. (2012). Teaching Chinese in Putonghua in post-colonial Hong Kong: Problems and challenges for teachers and administrators. *Language, Culture and Curriculum, 25*(2), 103-122. DOI: 10.1080/07908318.2011.626863

Valenčič Zuljan, M. (2007). Students' conceptions of knowledge, the role of the teacher and learner as important factors in a didactic school reform. *Educational Studies*, 33(1), 29-40. DOI: 10.1080/03055690600948166

Wang, L. H. (2015). Change in teaching beliefs when teaching abroad? A case study on Confucius institute Chinese teachers' teaching experiences in the US. In F. Dervin (Eds.), *Chinese Educational Migration and Student-Teacher Motilities: Experiencing Otherness*, (pp. 144–165), London: Palgrave Macmillan.

Wang, L. & Du, X.-Y., (2014). Chinese Teachers' Professional Identity and Beliefs about the Teacher-Student Relationship in a Danish Context, *Frontiers of Education in China*, 9(3): 429–455. DOI: 10.3868/s110-003-014-0034-x

Watkins, D., & Biggs, J.B. (Eds.) (1996). *The Chinese learner: Cultural, psychological, and contextual influences*. Hong Kong: Comparative Education Research Centre, and Melbourne: Australian Council for Educational Research.

Wu, H., Palmer, D. K., & Field, S. L. (2011). Understanding teachers' professional identity and beliefs in the Chinese heritage language school in the USA. *Language, Culture and Curriculum, 24*(1), 47-60. DOI: 10.1080/07908318.2010.545413

Zhang, G. X., & Li, L. M. (2010). Chinese language teaching in the UK: Present and future. *Language Learning Journal, 38*(1), 87-97. DOI: 10.1080/09571731003620689

Article 4: Narrative inquiry of Chinese as Foreign Language (CFL) teachers' experience and changes in beliefs in the Danish secondary school context

This article is accepted and it is going to be published in Du, X. Y., Liu, H. Q., & Dervin, F. (eds.), *Nordic-Chinese Intersections on Education* by Palgrave Macmillan in 2017.

This article is not included in Appendix A due to copyright issue.

Appendix B. Interview Guidelines

Initial interview protocol for the pilot study

1. How did you start teaching Chinese here in Denmark?
2. What was your learning experience in China in general?
3. Did you have any teaching experience before you started working as a Chinese language teacher?
4. What were your first impressions of the Danish classroom?
5. In general, how is (was) your work as a Chinese language teacher similar to or different from what you (had) thought it would be?
6. In what ways are (were) you a different teacher in Denmark than you might be in China?
7. What were some of your memorable experiences in the classroom?
8. How was your initial teaching experience?
9. Do you think you have gone through some changes during these years of teaching? If so, could you please describe these changes?
10. Tell me how you feel about being a native Chinese speaking teacher. What are the (dis)advantages of being a native Chinese speaking teacher in Denmark?
11. Could you please describe the challenges, if any, that you may have come across?
12. What advice would you give a new teacher who has recently come to Denmark?
13. Could you please further explain how you changed your ideas about the role of being a teacher in Denmark?
14. Could you please further explain how you manage challenges in relation to dealing with relationships with students?

Interview protocol for study 2

1. Please describe how you became a Chinese language teacher.
2. Please describe something about your past schooling experience and experience related to learning a foreign language.
3. Have you received any teacher training so far? If so, please describe what you gained from it.
4. Please describe your initial teaching experience.
5. Please describe the Chinese program that you are teaching.
6. What does being a Chinese language teacher mean to you?
7. What do you want to achieve in your teaching?
8. How do you give instructions in class?
9. Do you have any preferred methods of teaching?
10. What content do you think is the most important to teach or for the students to learn in your classes?
11. How do you see your role at the school?
12. How do you understand your relationship with your colleagues and students?
13. Can you describe an average Chinese class that you have taught?
14. What challenges have you come across, particularly in relation to your role of being a teacher?
15. Is there anything in particular you would like to share regarding your teaching experience?
16. Do you have any suggestions for future Chinese language teachers in Denmark?

Interview questions after teachers were observed

1. How do you evaluate the lesson you taught?
2. What do you expect to achieve?
3. Was there anything outside your expectations?

Initial interview protocol for study 3

1. Please tell me the story behind your becoming a Chinese language teacher.
2. Please talk about your educational background and past teaching experience. How does it help you with your teaching?
3. How was your foreign language learning experience in general? Has it helped you with teaching Chinese?
4. Have you received any teacher training? What did you implement from it into your teaching?
5. When did you first begin to teach Chinese here in Denmark?
6. What were your first impressions of the classroom?
7. In general, how is (was) your work now similar to or different from what you (had) thought it would be?
8. In what ways are (were) you a different teacher in Denmark than you might be in China?
9. What were some of your memorable experiences in the classroom?
10. How was your initial teaching experience?
11. What challenges did you have in the initial stages of teaching? What about now?
12. Do you think you have already undergone some changes? If so, could you please describe these changes and the turning points that caused you to make these changes?

Interview questions after the observation

1. How do you evaluate the lesson you taught?
2. What did you expect to achieve?
3. Was there anything outside your expectations?
4. What do you want to achieve in your teaching?
5. What role do you expect to play?
6. How is your relationship with your students?
7. What methods do you prefer to apply in your teaching? How do they work?
8. What contents do you emphasize most in your teaching?
9. Have you recently gone through any changes regarding the above aspects?

Appendix C. Co-authorship statement of Articles 1-3

Co-authorship statement of Article 1

Co-author statement in connection with submission of PhD thesis

With reference to Ministerial Order no. 1039 of August 27 2013 regarding the PhD Degree § 12, article 4, statements from each author about the PhD student's part in the shared work must be included in case the thesis is based on already published or submitted papers.

Paper title: Cultural influences on Chinese language teachers' perceptions and beliefs in a Danish context

Publication outlet:
In Kirkebæk, M. J., Du, X., & Aarup Jensen, A. (eds.) *Teaching and Learning Culture: Negotiating the Context*. Sense Publishers
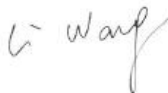
List of authors:
Li Wang
Annie Aarup Jensen

PhD student:
Li Wang

Scientific contribution of the PhD student (all participating PhD students) to the paper:
The PhD student Li Wang has contributed 90% contributions to publish this paper. She has defined the overall problem, proposed the core scientific ideas presented in the paper, collected and analyzed the data. She wrote the entire draft version of the paper. She conducted the empirical data collection and analysis with comments from the co-author. Co-author Annie Aarup Jensen has contributed to the discussion of the research design and also gave comments to the writing and the revision process of the paper.

Signature, PhD student

Signatures, co-authors

Co-authorship statement of Article 2

Co-author statement in connection with submission of PhD thesis

With reference to Ministerial Order no. 1039 of August 27 2013 regarding the PhD Degree § 12, article 4, statements from each author about the PhD student's part in the shared work must be included in case the thesis is based on already published or submitted papers.

Paper title: Chinese Teachers' Professional Identity and Beliefs about the Teacher-Student Relationship in a Danish Context

Publication outlet:
Frontiers of Education in China, 9(3): 429–455.
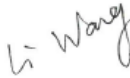
List of authors:
Li Wang
Xiangyun Du

PhD student:
Li Wang

Scientific contribution of the PhD student (all participating PhD students) to the paper:
The PhD student Li Wang has contributed 90% contributions to publish this paper. She has defined the overall problem, proposed the core scientific ideas presented in the paper, collected and analyzed the data. She wrote the entire draft version of the paper. Co-author Xiangyun Du has contributed to the discussion of the research design and also gave comments to the writing and the revision process of the paper.

Signature, PhD student

Signatures, co-authors

Co-authorship statement of Article 3

Co-author statement in connection with submission of PhD thesis

With reference to Ministerial Order no. 1039 of August 27 2013 regarding the PhD Degree § 12, article 4, statements from each author about the PhD student's part in the shared work must be included in case the thesis is based on already published or submitted papers.

Paper title: Chinese language teachers' beliefs about their roles in the Danish context

Publication outlet:
System: an international journal of educational technology and applied linguistics, in press

List of authors:
Li Wang
Xiangyun Du

PhD student:
Li Wang

Scientific contribution of the PhD student (all participating PhD students) to the paper:
The PhD student Li Wang has contributed 90% contributions to publish this paper. She has defined the overall problem, proposed the core scientific ideas presented in the paper, collected and analyzed the data. She wrote the entire draft version of the paper. Co-author Xiangyun Du has contributed to the discussion of the research design and also gave comments to the writing and the revision process of the paper.

Signature, PhD student

Signatures, co-authors