

UNIVERSITÉ DU QUÉBEC

MÉMOIRE PRÉSENTÉ À
L'UNIVERSITÉ DU QUÉBEC À TROIS-RIVIÈRES

COMME EXIGENCE PARTIELLE
DE LA MAITRISE EN ÉDUCATION

PAR
PAUL-EDWARD SMITS

ONLINE TUTORING AS A MEANS OF SUPPORT FOR
FUTURE ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE
TEACHERS' KNOWLEDGE AND
MASTERY OF ENGLISH

DÉCEMBRE 2017

Université du Québec à Trois-Rivières

Service de la bibliothèque

Avertissement

L'auteur de ce mémoire ou de cette thèse a autorisé l'Université du Québec à Trois-Rivières à diffuser, à des fins non lucratives, une copie de son mémoire ou de sa thèse.

Cette diffusion n'entraîne pas une renonciation de la part de l'auteur à ses droits de propriété intellectuelle, incluant le droit d'auteur, sur ce mémoire ou cette thèse. Notamment, la reproduction ou la publication de la totalité ou d'une partie importante de ce mémoire ou de cette thèse requiert son autorisation.

*To my smart and beautiful
daughter, "Keep pushin' even if
you think your strength is gone."
(REO Speedwagon)*

Abstract

Braine (1999) estimates that about 80 percent of English teachers worldwide are people for whom English is not their “native” language; it is their second (L2) or third language (L3). Language proficiency remains the bedrock of English teachers’ professional confidence and the most essential characteristic of a good language teacher, and it seems the only variable where a non-native speaking English teacher is inevitably handicapped (Medgyes, 1992). Within the teacher-training program in Quebec universities, students develop 12 professional competencies (Gouvernement du Québec, 2001). The first two professional competencies concern the English language, the first as subject matter knowledge and culture and the second as a means of communication. The current case study examines online tutoring as a means of support to develop language proficiency to answer the level of mastery required by the orientations of the professional competencies (Gouvernement du Québec, 2001). Results demonstrate that online tutoring provides an additional tool for future ESL teachers who tutor students in developing teacher language awareness.

Keywords: native speaking and non-native speaking English teachers, teacher language awareness, tutoring, ESL teacher-training program

Résumé

Braine (1999) estime que pour environ 80 pourcent des enseignants¹ d'anglais, langue seconde dans le monde, l'anglais n'est pas leur langue maternelle, mais plutôt leur langue seconde (L2) ou leur langue tierce (L3). La maîtrise de la langue d'enseignement demeure la base de la confiance professionnelle d'un enseignant d'anglais et l'une des caractéristiques primordiales afin de bien exercer la profession (Medgyes, 1992). Cependant, on dénote que la compétence langagière des enseignants, pour qui l'anglais est une L2 ou L3, éprouvent des difficultés, ce qui a des effets sur cette confiance (*Ibid.*, 1992). Au Québec, la formation universitaire des enseignants qui se base sur l'approche par compétence, utilise un référentiel édictant 12 compétences professionnelles (Gouvernement du Québec, 2001) que les futurs enseignants doivent développer pour devenir enseignants. Les deux premières compétences professionnelles concernent la culture et le savoir que l'enseignant doit prendre en compte dans l'exercice de sa profession ainsi que la compétence langagière qu'il doit développer et maîtriser, tant à l'oral qu'à l'écrit. L'enseignant d'anglais langue seconde (ALS) transmet la matière, qui est l'anglais, en anglais. La présente étude de cas examine le tutorat en ligne comme moyen de soutien pour développer les compétences langagières requises pour répondre au niveau de maîtrise exigé par le référentiel de compétences professionnelles (Gouvernement du Québec, 2001). Les résultats démontrent que le tutorat en ligne fournit

¹ La forme masculine est utilisée pour alléger le texte.

un outil supplémentaire aux futurs enseignants d'ALS, donnant du tutorat, dans le développement de leur conscience linguistique.

Mots-clés: enseignant d'anglais natif, enseignant d'anglais non-natif, conscience linguistique de l'enseignant, tutorat, programme de formation des enseignants d'anglais, langue seconde

Table of Contents

Abstract.....	iii
Résumé.....	iv
Table of Contents.....	vi
List of Tables	x
List of Figures.....	xi
Acknowledgments.....	xii
Introduction.....	1
Research Problem	8
1.1. Context of English Qualifications for English Second Language Teachers	9
1.1.1. Teacher Qualifications for English as a Second Language	10
1.1.2. Native-Speaking and Non-Native Speaking English Teachers	13
1.2. Theoretical and Practical Pertinence of the Study.....	15
1.2.1. Defining Native-Speaking and Non-Native Speaking English Teachers ...	15
1.2.2. Research on Non-Native Speaking English Language Teachers.....	17

1.2.3. Research on English as a Second or as a Foreign Language Teachers’ Proficiency.....	20
1.2.4. The Role of Universities in ESL Teacher-Training Programs.....	21
1.2.5. Language Improvement in ESL Teacher-Training Programs.....	24
1.2.6. Tutoring for Future ESL Teachers.....	25
1.3. Research Question	27
Conceptual Framework.....	31
2.1. Proficiency and Communicative Competence.....	33
2.2. Communicative Competence.....	34
2.3. Components of Communicative Competence	36
2.4. Performance and Competence	39
2.5. Declarative Knowledge and Procedural Knowledge	40
2.6. Teacher Language Awareness	42
2.7. Computer-Mediated Communication	45
2.7.1. Tutoring.....	46
2.8. Conceptual Map of the Framework	48
Method	50
3.1. Research Design.....	52
3.2. Context of the Study	53
3.3. Recruitment.....	54
3.4. Participants.....	54

3.5. Context of the Tutoring.....	56
3.6. Data Collection	57
3.6.1. Sources of Evidence.....	58
3.7. Quality of Research Design	62
3.7.1. Reliability.....	63
3.7.2. Validity	63
3.8. The Roles of the Case Researcher	66
3.9. Method for Data Analysis.....	67
Data Analysis and Results	69
4.1. Participant’s Prior English Language Knowledge.....	70
4.2. Tutoring.....	71
4.2.1. Focus on the Details of Grammatical Rules	72
4.2.2. Practice Correcting Errors.....	73
4.2.3. Explain Rules.....	74
4.2.4. Supervised Individually	75
4.2.5. Record Themselves.....	75
4.2.6. Practice Teaching the Same Lesson Multiple Times	76
4.3. Teacher Language Awareness	76
4.3.1. Willingness to Engage with and Reflect on Language-related Issues	77
4.3.2. Self-awareness of Limitations of Own Knowledge Accompanied by a Desire of Self-improvement	79

4.3.3. Awareness of Their Own Key Role in Input for Learning	80
4.3.4. Awareness of Learners' Potential Difficulties.....	81
4.3.5. Love of Language	82
4.4. Results.....	82
4.4.1. Characteristics of Tutoring	83
4.4.2. Characteristics of Teacher Language Awareness	83
4.4.3. Knowledge and Mastery of the English Language.....	85
Interpretation of Results and Conclusion.....	86
5.1. Summary of the Research	87
5.1.1. Connection to Similar Research.....	89
5.2. Limits	90
5.3.1. Biases in Research	92
5.3. Recommendations for Future Research.....	94
5.4. Conclusion	95
References.....	97
Appendix A.....	108
Appendix B.....	111

List of Tables

Table 1. Characteristics of tutoring with the sources of evidence.	59
Table 2. Characteristics of teacher language awareness with the sources of evidence. ..	60

List of Figures

Figure	Title	Page
Figure 1.	The interlanguage continuum	30
Figure 2.	Canale and Swain's (1980) and Canale's (1983) communicative competence model.....	31
Figure 3.	Framework for estimating developing proficiency and increasing confidence	35
Figure 4.	Conceptual map for research question	43

Acknowledgments

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to Dr. Mariane Gazaille, one of my dissertation supervisors. She has been a mentor and a guide throughout my Bachelor's and Master's. Working with her gave me the desire to pursue graduate studies. Her input, knowledge, and advice have made me a competent teacher. With her help and patience, I was able to overcome the many obstacles and difficulties during this arduous endeavour.

I would also like to express my greatest appreciation to Dr. Stéphane Martineau, my other dissertation supervisor and one of its evaluators. He has allowed me to have a greater understanding of the research process. His invaluable input provided much intellectual nourishment.

A thank you goes to the two evaluators, Nancy Goyette and Maria-Lourdes Lira-Gonzales, who accepted to review this dissertation. Their input has enriched this work.

My eternal gratitude goes to my dearest family, Allison Brennan, Sheldon Toupin, and Leona, who took this enriching venture with me. Their constant support throughout has been remarkable. Their help in providing time and effort so that I may invest in this research have helped its realisation.

A special appreciation goes to my relatives and friends, namely: Richard Smits, Elisabeth Smits, Blanca De Gobbi, Bruno Bégin, Suzanne Rehel, and Pascal Tessier.

Each of them, in their own way, has been a source of inspiration or an example to follow of strength in adversity.

A word must be said in memory of my late father, Leonard, who always supported and encouraged me with my decisions. He is not here to see this accomplishment, but I hope he is smiling, wherever he is.

Last, I thank the “Département des langues modernes et traduction” and the “Département des sciences de l’éducation” at the Université du Québec à Trois-Rivières for their professionalism and input regarding my dissertation.

Introduction

In the 21st century, we now live in a globalized world where English is the most commonly used language in many situations (Crystal, 2003). Baugh and Cable (2002) state that “in number of speakers as well as in its uses for international communication and in other less quantifiable measures, English is one of the most important languages of the world.” (p. 2). Spoken in many countries of the world and the required language in areas such as communications, business, science and technology, and others, English is regarded as the universal language (Crystal, 2003). Due to the importance of English worldwide, many countries incorporate the learning of English as a second or as a third language in their curriculum, from primary school to university (Leaver & Shekhtman, 2002), along with other subjects such as Mathematics, Science, and History. Including learning English in the curriculum has brought many changes to the English language teaching profession (Llurda, 2004). For example, with the propagation of English, there is arguably more pressure on teachers to use English proficiently, so they can use English naturally, spontaneously, and confidently in the classroom (Cullen, 1994).

In some countries, such as China or Japan, English is considered a foreign language, referred to as English as a Foreign Language (EFL). As for Canada, constitutionally, English and French share equal status, and each is a second language to the other, thus we use the terms English as a Second Language (ESL) and French as a

Second Language (FSL) (Byram, 2002). As such, in Canada, education programs come under provincial jurisdiction, meaning that each province implements its own education program. In Quebec's education program, the *Ministère de l'Éducation et de l'Enseignement supérieur* (MÉES)² includes the learning of a second language, where students attending a French school learn ESL, and students attending an English school learn FSL.

Nevertheless, in order to maintain and protect the French culture and language, Quebec adopted a law in 1977, commonly called Bill 101, from which originates the *Charte de la langue française* (The Charter of the French Language). Article 72 of the Charter stipulates: "Instruction in the kindergarten classes and in the elementary and secondary schools shall be in French, except where this chapter allows otherwise", meaning that for most students, education is in French. There are very few exceptions to this article, and they are detailed in the next article of Charter. As an example, in the Trois-Rivières region, according to the *Fédération des commissions scolaire du Québec*, there are 11 French public institutions at the school board which offer a high school diploma, with a total of about 11,000 students; this does not include the three private high schools in the region. Within the same region, there is only one English-speaking high school which offers a high school diploma, and it has no more than 150 students. Moreover, Quebec counts six million French-speaking people surrounded on all sides by

² Successive governments have renamed this ministry following departmental reshuffling. Before 2005, it was the *Ministère de l'Éducation* (MÉQ). From 2005 until 2016, it was the *Ministère de l'Éducation, du Loisir et du Sport* (MELS). Since 2016, it is the *Ministère de l'Éducation et de l'Enseignement Supérieur* (MÉES).

332 million English-speaking people (Léger, 2011). Thus, learning English as a second language is a necessity for French-speaking students in Quebec.

From an educational point of view, in a comprehensive study on the importance and priority of French for the Quebec population, Pagé and Olivier (2012) established that, for the Quebec population as a whole, the general perception was that French and English were equally important to succeed in life. These authors (2012) defined success as the recognition of competences and the attainment personal objectives, indicating that success is based on Quebecers' perception of the place of the French and English languages in accession to success in Quebec society. Furthermore, these authors claim that parents in Quebec realize that career opportunities increase if their child can use English.

In 1977, the *Ministère de l'éducation du Québec* (MÉQ) introduced, for the first time, English as a second language (ESL) in its curriculum from the fourth grade (MÉQ, 1977). In 1995–1996, the final report from the Estates General on Education stated that learning a second language was unavoidable, and that English must take a prominent place for students educated in French schools (Government of Quebec, 1996). Since then, the number of hours per year dedicated to teaching and learning English in school has generally increased. In 2002, students started learning ESL in the third grade. Since 2007, ESL has been taught from the first grade. In 2011, the government considered implementing an English intensive program for all grade six students. These measures have required and will continue to require hiring more ESL teachers. However, it is not

because someone speaks English that makes him or her capable of teaching English (Svetgoff, 2007). There are many more factors than the ability of speaking English involved in the ability of teaching ESL, for example lesson planning, classroom management. Regardless, ESL teachers must be proficient with the English language as it is the content of the course and the means of delivery of the content.

This research focuses on analyzing a tool – online tutoring – where future ESL teachers tutor students. This analysis studies how these tutors become more proficient with the English language. In order to do so, in chapter 1, I explicate, in the first part, English second language teachers' qualifications, particularly with the teaching of English as a subject-matter and as a means of communication. Next, I explain the historically constructed dichotomy between native-speaking (NS) and non-native speaking (NNS) English teachers. The second part of the chapter establishes the theoretical and practical pertinence of the study. This part defines NS and NNS English teachers and research related to them. I also list some research on proficiency. This brings us to the role of universities in ESL teacher-training programs, where I investigate a language improvement component in the programs and offer tutoring as a means of language improvement for future ESL teachers. This becomes the research question: "How does tutoring help future ESL teachers increase their knowledge and mastery of English?" The objective of the research is to analyze the impacts of tutoring on the knowledge and mastery of English.

Chapter 2 establishes the conceptual framework to verify the objective. First, I consider proficiency and communicative competence as a framework. This leads to thinking about performance and competence. Declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge help to determine competence. Declarative knowledge prepares to understand teacher language awareness (TLA), which becomes the part of the framework to verify the research objective. The second part of the framework looks at being a tutor as a means to help future ESL teachers with TLA.

Chapter 3 details the case study as a method used for this study. I explain the research design, the context of the study, the recruitment, the participants, and the context for the tutoring. For the data collection, I provide six sources of evidence for the study. Then, the quality of the research design is evaluated with regards to reliability and validity. I determine the roles of the case researcher and the method for data analysis.

Chapter 4 analyzes the data and provides results. First, the participant's prior English language knowledge is clarified. Second, the analysis concerning the six characteristics of tutoring is specified. Third, I dissect the data concerning TLA into five characteristics. Lastly, the results on the characteristics of TLA and tutoring ascertain knowledge and mastery of the English language.

In chapter 5, I interpret the results and determine a conclusion in light of the results. First, a summary of the research is given with connections to similar research. Then, the limits are exposed, particularly with any biases. I supply recommendations for further research. Lastly, I conclude that offering online tutoring as language improvement

could be a promising tool to help future ESL teachers develop mastery and knowledge of English.

Research Problem

The research problem section includes the context of English qualifications for ESL teachers as well as the theoretical and practical pertinence of this study. The social context justifies the importance of future ESL teachers' English-language proficiency; especially future ESL teachers for whom English is a second language (L2) or a third language (L3). The theoretical and practical pertinence of the research lists some of the research related to the native-speaking (NS) and non-native-speaking (NNS) English teachers, focusing on proficiency difficulties of NNS English teachers and the role of universities in training future ESL teachers. Then, I provide context for the problem studied and conclude with the research question and objective.

1.1. Context of English Qualifications for English Second Language Teachers

This first section explains the qualifications required of an ESL teacher. I provide the social context for these qualifications and describe the teaching-training programs in Quebec universities. After, I detail two professional competences within the teacher-training program. Lastly, I explain the reality that many ESL teachers are non-native speakers of the language and the social difficulties associated with this reality.

1.1.1. Teacher Qualifications for English as a Second Language

Upon completing their high school studies in Quebec, many students have insufficient knowledge of English (Government of Quebec, 1996). From a learner's perspective, factors often researched in second language acquisition (SLA) include: social context, age, exposure to English, aptitude, attitude, motivation, memory, and quality of instruction (Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Goodwin, 1996; Lacroix, 2002; Michael & Gollan, 2005; Saville-Troike, 2012).

Nevertheless, Lacroix (2002) claimed that, "there are many reasons for [students'] low achievement, some of which are teacher related" (p. 1). In addition, Savignon (1991) says that the language teacher in language teaching has been overlooked in SLA research. SLA research seems to pay much attention to the learning process and the learner, comparatively, very little to the teacher (Árva & Medgyes, 2000). In terms of SLA research, more needs to be done to understand the role of the teacher as a major factor in ESL learning. "[U]nqualified teachers have long been a problem and concern of parents and administrators" (Svetgoff, 2007, p. 2). Chiefly, "[t]he effectiveness of the teacher is the major determinant of student academic progress" (Sanders & Horn, 1998, p. 247). In 1995–1996, in the final report on the Estates General on Education, it was importantly stated that the teachers' qualifications should be ensured (Government of Quebec, 1996). Consequently, the problem of ESL teacher qualifications should also be a concern for universities because they are responsible for training future teachers.

The government of Quebec decides on a teacher-training program for universities to follow with regards to teacher qualifications. This program encompasses two key orientations: professionalization and cultural approach to teaching (Gouvernement du Québec, 2001). To achieve the two orientations, the Government of Quebec adopts the concept of competencies by defining 12 professional competencies (PC), which all future teachers develop during their initial training and should continue developing throughout their career (*Ibid.*, 2001). “To practise their profession, teachers must have mastered the set of competencies to varying degrees” (*Ibid.*, 2001, p. 26). Among the 12 PC, the first concerns the English language as knowledge and culture and the second a means of communication for future ESL teachers.

The first PC states that the teacher “act[s] as a professional who is inheritor, critic and interpreter of knowledge or culture when teaching students” (*Ibid.*, 2001, p. 56), knowledge or culture, in this case, referring to the English language. Briefly, this PC connects the objects of culture with knowledge to be taught. Again, the objects of culture and knowledge relate to teaching the subject matter: English as a second language. Adopting a cultural approach suggests that, in order to be a cultural critic, the teacher must know more than what is contained in the training program (*Ibid.*, 2001). English teachers must exhibit a critical understanding of the knowledge to be taught (*Ibid.*, 2001). With insufficient knowledge of English as a subject matter, teachers are unable to relate cultural content elements to help the students establish links between elements of knowledge (*Ibid.*, 2001). Therefore, future teachers must be aware of their own cultural

development with its potential and limitations (*Ibid.*, 2001). The *Conseil supérieur de l'éducation* (1987, in Gouvernement du Québec, 2001) notes that language is seen as a major cultural tool and a key to knowledge and as an instrument of communication, thus connecting PC 1 and PC 2.

The second PC states that the teacher “communicate[s] clearly in the language of instruction, both orally and in writing, using correct grammar, in various contexts related to teaching” (Gouvernement du Québec, 2001, p. 63); the language of instruction in the ESL classroom is English (Gouvernement du Québec, 2001). According to Lebrun and Préfontaine (1999), the school – thus its teachers – is almost irreplaceable in introducing students to the standardized written and spoken language. In ESL, teachers are assets as linguistic and cultural models and must speak English at all times (*Ibid.*, 2001). ESL teachers are constant models for their students (*Ibid.*, 2001).

As ESL teachers are constant models for their students, it is expected that they use English in a professional way and that their linguistic competency be greater than the ordinary citizen (Gouvernement du Québec, 2001). Furthermore, one of the required levels of mastery of this PC establishes that, by the end of the initial teacher-training program, the teacher must “[e]xpress himself or herself with the ease, precision, efficiency and accuracy expected by society of a teaching professional” (Gouvernement du Québec, 2001, p. 67). Seemingly, in unilingual French areas, where universities train future ESL teachers, this may not be attained.

Acquiring linguistic competence is an ongoing process (Gouvernement du Québec, 2001); however, a number of future ESL teachers may have not mastered these two PC to the extent expected by society upon completion of their program. Linguistic competence, a component of communicative competence (Canale & Swain, 1980), helps future ESL teachers, often language learners themselves, internalize the grammatical structures, pronunciation, and vocabulary within a cultural context of “native-likeness” (Frost, 1999). In addition, according to the government of Quebec (2001), teachers must acquire an extensive vocabulary and a varied syntax to satisfy a wide range of communication situations.

“Language training in pre-service education should be a matter of paramount importance” (Medgyes, 1999, p. 179). Furthermore, language proficiency remains the bedrock of English teachers’ professional confidence and the most essential characteristic of a good language teacher (Medgyes, 1999). Additionally, the key issues in pre-service education are proficiency and professional preparation (Pasternak & Bailey, 2004). Thus, it would seem that English language proficiency is the core of ESL pre-service education.

1.1.2. Native-Speaking and Non-Native Speaking English Teachers

The dichotomy between native-speaking (NS) and non-native-speaking (NNS) English teachers can be a source of tension among language teachers because it expresses historically constructed social perceptions (Derivry-Plard, 2011). Derivry-Plard (2011) affirms that the concepts of native speakers and non-native speakers continue to be

present in society, particularly for language teachers. For example, the author mentions job offers still using the native/non-native dichotomy.

Braine (1999) estimates that about 80 percent of ESL teachers worldwide are people for whom English is not their “native” language, but their second (L2) or third language (L3). “[NNS English teachers] will continue to outnumber their native-speaking counterparts simply because the vast majority of English users are NNS” (Braine, 2005, p. 23), and these teachers take and will continue to take a prominent place in teaching ESL (Braine, 1999). In the last decades, the issue of NNS English teachers has given rise to much literature, such as Braine (1999), Kachru (1986), Medgyes (1992), Paikeday (1985) to name a few. However, research concerning NNS English teachers is insufficiently done considering the numbers involved (Hayes, 2009). Similarly, Byram (2002) declares: “On the whole, the study of the non-native teacher remains a largely unexplored area in language education” (p. 645).

Medgyes’ study (1992) concluded, essentially that, “the ideal “non-native” English-speaking teacher is the one who has achieved near-native proficiency in English” (p. 349). Similarly, language teacher educators have also expressed the importance of the native speaker being the model and native-like language being the goal of a language learner (Mahboob, 2005).

In Quebec, no figures exist for the number of NNS English teachers; nonetheless, there are many predominantly French unilingual areas (Gazaille, 2010), where English is an L2 or L3 for pre-service and in-service English teachers. Thus, English having taken

importance in Quebec schools, it appears necessary that ESL teachers be proficient language models. Specifically, the ESL teachers' proficiency in English seems more critical when "students in language classrooms are more likely to receive limited exposure to the second language" (Lightbown & Spada, 2006, p. 32).

1.2. Theoretical and Practical Pertinence of the Study

This section reports some of the studies done in ESL teaching. First, I define native-speaking (NS) and non-native speaking (NNS) English teachers. Then, I exemplify some of the research done with NS and NNS English teachers. Next, I consider some of the difficulties with being a NNS teacher of English, particularly in regards to proficiency. This leads to establishing the role of universities with regards to ESL teaching programs, where research on a language improvement component in teaching ESL is considered. Later, I related some research done on tutoring. Lastly, I offer tutoring as a means of support for language improvement.

1.2.1. Defining Native-Speaking and Non-Native Speaking English Teachers

First recorded in 1933, Bloomfield defined the term native speaker as: "The first language a human being learns to speak is his native language; he is a native speaker of this language" (p. 43). Similarly, Noam Chomsky's linguistic concepts remain at the heart of the ideology promoting superiority to the native speaking language teacher (Canagarajah, 1999). Chomsky's notion pervades the ideology that the native speaker is

the authority on the language and the ideal informant of grammatical judgments (Canagarajah, 1999).

The terms native speaker and non-native speaker are widely used by both teachers and researchers (Árva & Medgyes, 2000). These terms are useful terms, precisely because they cannot be closely defined mainly because some people grow up in monolingual societies where the native language is the only one learned; however, most people do not grow up in monolingual societies (Edge, 1988). This native speaker is a linguistic unicorn which cannot be associated to a group of living beings (Edge, 1988). Rampton (1990) argues: “expertise is learned, not fixed or innate” (p. 98), and that expertise shifts the attention from ‘who you are’ to ‘what you know’. Consequently, Jun Liu (1999)³ believes that the concept of expertise reduces prejudice and discrimination against NNS English teachers, and he disputes the idea that the ideal English teacher is a native speaker. Also, Davies (2001) claims: “The native speaker is a fine myth: we need it as a model, a goal, almost an inspiration. But it is useless as a measure” (p. 108). Moreover, Watson Todd and Pojanapunya (2009) come to the realization that NS and NNS English teachers are simply different rather than one being superior to the other.

“[N]ative speakership should not be used as a criterion for excluding certain categories of people from language teaching, [...]” (Paikeday, 1985, p. 88). Paikeday’s (1985) solution is to change the construct of the native speaker, making proficiency the criterion for employment. One could think, as Cheshire (1991), Ferguson (1992), and

³ The full name is given to distinguish Jun Liu from Dilin Liu. Each author published a separate chapter in the same book.

Kachru (1992) suggested of dropping the concept of the native speaker. What remains important is the issue of how qualified an ESL teacher is (J. Liu, 1999). However, even if these arguments seem valid, as Medgyes (1999) claims, we seem to be “a dwindling minority who wishes to retain the dichotomy, if only for the sake of convenience” (p. 177). Even though the native/non-native distinction is held in disregard (Árva & Medgyes, 2000), it provides a useful linguistic competence yardstick, because applied linguistics needs a model, norms, and goals, with regards to language teaching (Davies, 2003). For example, Pasternak and Bailey (2004) apply the NS/NNS English teacher dichotomy for their research, despite claiming it being a simplistic debate and being a problem of finding precise definitions of the terms.

1.2.2. Research on Non-Native Speaking English Language Teachers

One characteristic of the studies concerning NS and NNS English language teachers is that the researchers who conducted the studies recently, in both ESL and English foreign language (EFL) contexts, were mainly non-native speakers of English (Braine, 2005). Braine (2005) claims that graduate and post-graduate students conducted most of these studies for their Master’s theses or for their doctoral dissertations. Thus, being a NS or a NNS of English to all appearances preoccupies graduate and post-graduate students instead of professors teaching these students. Conversely, the research of Péter Medgyes, a Hungarian NNS English professor, still forms the benchmark for many studies regarding NS and NNS English teacher (Braine, 2005).

In 1992, Medgyes wrote the article *Native or non-native: who is worth more?* In 1994, he published his seminal book *The Non-native Teacher*. In his 1992 research, he surveyed NS and NNS English teachers, based on their self-perceptions, to determine their success in teaching English. A survey was conducted with 220 NS and NNS English teachers from ten very different countries. By their own admission, 68 percent of the participants of his research were non-native speakers of English. Within these participants, 84 percent of the NNS English teachers admitted to having various language difficulties, vocabulary and fluency being the most common areas followed by speaking, pronunciation, and listening comprehension. Medgyes (1992) established that one of the most important professional duties NNS English teachers have is to improve their proficiency in English.

Kamhi-Stein (1999) reports that teacher trainees where she teaches a graduate teaching ESL program come from a variety of countries, backgrounds, and experiences. She relates that over 70 percent of the students enrolled in the teaching ESL program voiced their concerns regarding their status as non-native speakers. The study claims that these students seemed to face greater linguistic challenges and self-doubts.

Jun Liu (1999) conducted a study with two full-time teachers and five graduate teaching associates in the ESL program at the University of Arizona in Tucson. The participants represented a wide variety of cultural and linguistic experiences. Jun Liu (1999) examined the participants' perceptions of the impact of NNS English teachers on their students. Liu concluded that a teacher's communicative competence, demonstrated

in daily teaching, will supersede that of being identified as a NS or a NNS English teacher. Furthermore, Dilin Liu (1999) published a survey conducted with 59 non-native students in the teaching ESL program at Oklahoma City University. The participants were asked if they believed they had the English proficiency to be a truly qualified teacher, only eight (14%) said “yes”.

In Canada, Faez (2011), from the University of Western Ontario, conducted a study with 25 ESL teacher candidates from diverse linguistic backgrounds. She examined the participants’ self-ascribed identity of English native speaker or non-native speaker and their self-assessed level of proficiency. These two perceptions were juxtaposed with three instructors’ judgment. Faez (2011) noted that proficiency in English, self-ascription, and validation by others is an inadequate model because the level of proficiency that qualifies one as a native speaker is not clear. The research concluded that linguistic identity is dynamic, dialogic, relational, situated, and it cannot be a simple unitary and fixed isolated phenomenon.

The studies mentioned above are only a few of the most salient in the body of literature on NSS English teachers. However, it is to be noted and highlighted that no studies pertained to NNS English teachers in Quebec were found. Thus, this research focuses on NNS English future teachers in Quebec and their knowledge and mastery of the English language.

1.2.3. Research on English as a Second or as a Foreign Language Teachers' Proficiency

Cullen (1994) observed that the teacher's proficiency in English is largely taken for granted. Dilin Liu (1999) mentions that an area that has been overlooked is the NNS future ESL teacher's lack of English proficiency required for success in their future teaching career. Derivry-Plard (2011) declared that mastery of the language taught composes one of the qualities of a language teacher and constitutes one of the important factors in teaching the target language. Understanding the issue of English language teachers' proficiency can lead to effective teaching (Richards, 2010). This section focuses on research regarding the English language teacher's proficiency.

Murdoch (1994) asserts that "a high level of English language proficiency is the most valued aspect of a non-native English teacher's competence" (p. 253). Murdoch (1994) surveyed ESL teacher trainees in Sri Lanka. This survey showed that 89 percent of the English teacher trainees agreed that a teacher's confidence is most dependent on his or her own degree of proficiency with the language. Samimy and Brutt-Griffler (1999) report that 72 percent of their NNS graduate subjects admitted that their insufficient language proficiency impeded their teaching. Moreover, Reis (2011) believes that many qualified NNS English teachers have the nagging sense of professional inadequacy that prevents them from becoming confident instructors. "One of the most obvious issues facing non-native teachers and causing them stress can be their own language proficiency" (Mousavi, 2007, p. 34).

Ghasemboland and Hashim's (2013) results showed that the teachers' perceived efficacy was positively correlated with self-reported English proficiency. Cullen (1994, 2002) claims that inadequate command of English undermines the teacher's confidence in the classroom, affects his or her self-esteem, makes it difficult to fulfill the pedagogical requirements of a more communicative approach. More importantly, NNS English teachers need to make sure their command of English minimizes "the deficiencies so as to approximate their proficiency, as much as possible, to that of the native speaker" (Reves & Medgyes, 1994, p. 364). In view of their findings, Reves & Medgyes (1994) suggest "frequent exposure to authentic native language environments and proficiency-oriented in-service training activities" (p. 364).

1.2.4. The Role of Universities in ESL Teacher-Training Programs

According to Belcher (2006), few university programs prepare students to effectively teach ESL. "Teacher training courses in English as a foreign language around the world, at both pre-service and in-service levels, usually consist of a fairly predictable set of component parts" (Cullen, 1994, p. 162). For example, trainee teachers are given procedures and advice to follow (Tomlinson, 2003). Seemingly, with few exceptions, three components constitute teaching ESL programs: a methodology /pedagogical skills component, a linguistics component, and a literature component (Cullen, 1994). The first component allows future ESL teachers to explore different methods, techniques, and classroom skills for teaching English successfully. The linguistic component can include topics such as theories of language learning, the place of English in the world, and

English grammatical and phonological systems to help trainees understand how the English language functions, rather than the trainees' mastery of using the English language. The literature component, found in pre-service programs, helps future ESL teachers increase their knowledge of English texts to be able to teach them. Often, language improvement can become confused with the linguistics component (Cullen, 1994).

Dilin Liu (1999) states that most ESL teaching programs contain compulsory English grammar courses dealing with: phonological, morphological, and syntactical systems of the language. In most cases, this linguistic component usually does not help NNS students improve because most of these NNS students have learned English largely by studying grammar (D. Liu, 1999). Moreover, knowledge of linguistics does not in itself lead to one's own success in using the language (Wright, 2002). After examining the relationship between metalinguistic knowledge and language proficiency from 509 first-year undergraduate students of French, Alderson, Clapham, and Steel (1997) found that explicit knowledge did not improve the students' language proficiency. However, implicit knowledge enables "a language user to communicate with confidence and fluency" (Andrews, 2007, p. 14).

Dilin Liu (1999) observed that many future ESL teachers "still speak and write in a way that may be grammatically correct but difficult to understand because of the interference from their native language structure and usage" (p. 205). Thus, many NNS English teachers, having learned English grammar for many years as primary and high

school students may possess sufficient knowledge of grammar (J. Liu, 1999); however, these teachers would continue to make errors in their discourse⁴.

These three components (methodological/pedagogical skills, linguistics, and literature) of the teaching ESL program are still present today in Quebec universities. Appointed by the MÉES, the *Comité d'agrément des programmes de formation à l'enseignement* (CAPFE) examines, approves, and oversees all teacher-training programs for preschool, elementary, and secondary level in Quebec universities. The CAPFE accredits a program if it respects the 12 professional competencies determined by the MÉES, and if it satisfies ministerial requirements. Universities are free to develop their own teacher-training programs as long as they respect the MÉES' requirements. Teaching ESL programs in Quebec still seem to use the three components mentioned above, even with the freedom of developing their own teaching ESL programs.

Often, teaching ESL programs tackle language improvement indirectly through the courses, being that they are generally conducted in English (Cullen, 1994). It would seem that something more direct is required (Cullen, 1994). Some consideration could be given to include a language improvement component for future ESL teachers who still struggle with proficiency; even if in many cases, it may be difficult to introduce without sacrificing other parts of the program (Cullen, 1994).

⁴ Examples of mistakes personally heard or corrected in students' assignments: I'm agree, I will discuss about, explain me the problem, the teacher is a modal for me, I took my courage with both hands, one class was a mixture of 9 boys and 10 girls.

1.2.5. Language Improvement in ESL Teacher-Training Programs

On the one hand, Lever and Shektman (2002) claim that universities face the challenge of building programs that will help students attain higher language skills by putting different methods at their disposal. On the other hand, the majority of trainees are content to behave like ordinary learners; simply learning what is required from the teacher-training program (Cullen, 1994). Thus, a language improvement component should be mandatory and at the center of teacher-training programs.

Low levels in English among the teaching force should also be a concern of those involved in planning pre-service teacher-training programs, which seems to be a worldwide struggle (Cullen, 1994; Trappes-Lomax & Ferguson, 2002). Murdoch (1994) suggests: “a greater concern with language training, particularly during the early phases of the training programme, would produce more competent teachers” (p. 259). Furthermore, Dilin Liu’s (1999) study found that “when asked if the program should incorporate a language improvement component in all its courses, 55 (93%) replied “yes,” 4 (7%) “not sure,” and none replied “no” (p. 206). Evermore, Lavender’s (2002) research concluded that trainee teachers viewed language improvement as the most important component.

Kamhi-Stein (1999) encourages teacher educators to become agents of change for teaching ESL programs. Keeping this in mind, different program models are possible. One such model could include tutoring as a language improvement component to help

future ESL teachers to develop their proficiency in English. The next section explains how tutoring can help with this endeavour.

1.2.6. Tutoring for Future ESL Teachers

Cruickshank, Newell, and Cole (2003) explain that a concern has arisen in teacher education programs in regards to the English language needs of students from non-English backgrounds. These researchers examined what constitutes adequate and efficient support in English for overseas teachers studying English in Australia. University support staff tutored individuals or small groups on specific areas of English needs. For the learners, the benefit involved intensive and flexible support, which can focus on their needs. The research showed that through tutoring, students gained confidence, skills, and knowledge.

Another study on tutoring by Shin (2006) details how 12 pre-service ESL teachers in the United States tutored one-on-one immigrant students on how to write in English. The highlight of the study expresses the benefits of tutoring in a teacher-training program, particularly when teaching ESL. Among those benefits, Shin (2006) mentions that tutoring can increase the tutors' confidence and skills at integrating and applying the knowledge from the courses taken. Shin (2006) mentions a few repercussions from tutoring such as: "increased sense of accomplishment and self-esteem, better mastery of academic skills, increased ability to apply and integrate knowledge taught in different courses and a broader, a more realistic outlook on the process of teaching and learning" (p. 327). This study demonstrated that tutoring was a valuable experience for student

teachers, being able to integrate theory and practice, while developing a personal style of teaching English.

Mosley and Zoch (2012) conducted a study with future ESL teachers who tutored immigrant adults learning English. The study showed that the notions learned at university allowed the pre-service teachers to gain experience through real-life practice and to have a better preparation when starting their teaching career. The experience provided the tutors with an opportunity to construct their own knowledge on language acquisition, to take responsibility for their students' learning, and to reflect on the different contexts that shape teaching. Another study by Gazaille (2010), where future ESL teachers tutored students at college level, concluded that tutoring offers a learning experience of teaching where university training and real-life practice intersect.

In Hong Kong, Gan (2012) explains that ESL student teachers do not have many opportunities to speak English regularly. These students need courses to improve their English skills, mainly speaking, and have very few opportunities to listen to English outside their courses. The research focused on the English speaking problems of students in a teaching ESL program. The research concluded that second language speaking is complex, particularly because these specific learners try to process an imperfectly known language, causing them to make choices such as to prioritize accuracy or fluency.

1.3. Research Question

To begin, I state that English proficiency for ESL teachers is important at all levels of education, primarily because ESL teachers are models in the classroom. Next, I briefly consider the grammatical accuracy of ESL teachers as a criterion for proficiency. Then, I relate the reality of future ESL teachers and the non-existence of a language improvement component in ESL teacher-training programs at universities in Quebec. Last, I present our research question.

Contrary to popular belief, a teacher's proficiency in English is just as important in elementary schools as in high schools. Moreover, of all the attributes required for teaching ESL (experience, age, sex, aptitude, charisma, motivation, training, etc.), language competence is the only variable where a NNS English teacher is inevitably handicapped (Medgyes, 1992). Lantolf (2006) declares that imitation is the students' first mechanism in SLA, meaning the students may imitate the teacher as a model of English. More importantly, the ESL teacher is the primary model of the English language for students (Braine, 2010). If the model – the teacher – uses English incorrectly, his/her students may themselves remember these forms as the correct way of using the language, leading some students to use the same incorrect forms. Thus, an ESL teacher having a lower proficiency in English and teaching in an elementary school can hinder the learning of English for his/her students from the onset by providing an erroneous version of English (Braine, 2010). Consequently, in order to meet the MÉES' requirements for

teacher qualifications regarding the English proficiency of future ESL teachers, many pre-service ESL teachers could gain from improving their English language competence.

Grammatical accuracy would be a very important element communicative competence (Leaver & Shekman, 2002). These authors claim that poor control of grammar is the main reason why future ESL teachers cannot concentrate on the message they are trying to convey or to understand; they must deal with how to say it and what is being said. Furthermore, accuracy, which reduces the amount of errors a teacher makes, is an important criterion in language proficiency (Brown, 2007).

Generally, the role of ESL teacher training is to introduce the methodological choices available and to demonstrate a range of the theories that are common in language teaching to trainees (Mann, 2005). Teaching ESL programs may or may not contain a language improvement component (Cullen, 1994). As part of their mission, university teaching ESL programs must play a role in helping future ESL teachers improve their teaching skills, which should also include a language improvement component (Cullen, 1994). A cursory examination of all the websites of francophone universities in Quebec shows that there does not seem to be any support measures within their teaching ESL programs for students to improve their English language competence. Having little or no support measures to help future ESL teachers who have weaknesses in English can lead to unqualified ESL teachers with regards to mastery of PC 1 and PC 2.

The location where ESL is taught determines to what extent and in what way being a NNS teacher may affect a language teacher (Llurda, 2005). Significantly, as

Quebec does not escape the reality that English constitutes an L2 or L3 for many of its ESL teachers. As such, some future ESL teachers may not “master the rules of oral and written expression” (Gouvernement du Québec, 2001, p. 67). Such future ESL teachers may not “express [themselves] with the ease, precision, efficiency and accuracy expected by society of a teaching professional” (*Ibid.*, 2001, p. 67).

In Quebec French-speaking universities offering a teaching ESL program, the opportunities for those future teachers to practice their English oral skill within or outside the classroom are nearly non-existent. As an illustration, during the teaching ESL program, students receive instruction in English but are given very few moments to interact during class time. When professors/lecturers offer students with opportunities to express themselves, few participate actively. Thus, many student teachers do not take the opportunity to practice. Outside the classroom, most students would not speak English among each other; many saying they were afraid of making mistakes in front of their peers. Actually, many of them have learned and will preach that “to acquire a language, they must read widely, speak the language at every opportunity, participate in conversations, and watch TV and movies.” (Braine, 2010, p. 83). Yet, these students do not practice what they will preach (Brain, 2010).

The situation needs to be addressed in order to have more qualified primary and high school ESL teachers with regards to PC 1 and PC 2. In short, language teaching is a “decision-making process based on four constituents: knowledge, skills, attitude and awareness” (Freeman, 1989, p. 27). With this in mind, a language improvement

component such as tutoring may help with the knowledge and mastery of English for these future ESL teachers. Thus, the research question is: How does tutoring help future ESL teachers increase their knowledge and mastery of English? The objective of the research will analyze the impacts of tutoring on the knowledge and mastery of English.

Conceptual Framework

Second language acquisition (SLA) research and applied linguistics determine the importance of native-speakerism as the model and native-like language as the goal for a language learner or teacher (Mahboob, 2005). Applied linguistics studies second and foreign language learning and teaching (Richards & Schmidt, 2013). In consequence, applied linguistics develops its own theoretical models of language use, taken from information from different fields of study (Richards & Schmidt, 2013).

Anderson (1998) defines a framework as “a model which allows the researcher to explore the relationships among variables in a logical and prescribed fashion. It clarifies questions by relating questions and their constituent subquestions and it summarizes the overall concept being investigated” (p. 62).

VanPatten and Williams (2007) write:

[a] model describes processes or sets of processes of a phenomenon. A model may also show how different components of a phenomenon interact. A model does not need to explain why, only how. Whereas a theory can make predictions based on generalizations, this is not required of a model. (p. 5)

Anderson (1998) explains that when no framework formulates the link between the concepts, the specific question of the research becomes the framework. Thus, this research focuses on the concepts of knowledge and mastery

of English for future ESL teachers for whom English is an L2 or an L3 and tutoring in order to establish a framework.

At first, these concepts may seemingly be simple concepts, such as the concept of effectiveness exemplified in Anderson (1998). For example, regarding the issue of how much of a language one needs to know to be able to teach it effectively, Richards (2010) determines 12 language-specific competencies required to be an efficient language teacher. These include, among others, the ability to: provide good language models, maintain fluent use of the target language, and monitor his/her own speech and writing for accuracy. If we consider some of the language-specific competencies required, Richards (2010) mentions fluency, grammatical competence, and accuracy. Thus, upon further examination of the term proficiency, we find similar terms: communicative competence, performance and competence, declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge, and teacher language awareness (TLA). To establish a framework, I define these terms to determine the concept of knowledge and mastery of English for the research. Then, I explain the characteristics of online tutoring as a means of support for knowledge and mastery of English.

2.1. Proficiency and Communicative Competence

For the second language classroom to be an efficient place to facilitate language learning, the teacher should provide optimal input (Krashen, 1985). Four characteristics determine optimal input. Of these characteristics, Krashen (1982)

claims that comprehensible input is the most important characteristic. To aid comprehensible input, the author offers some advice. However, Krashen (1985) does not mention anything about the language teacher's proficiency. He appears to forgo the teacher's proficiency and to focus only on the learner's proficiency. Thus, the concept of the language teacher's proficiency requires a closer examination.

Francis (2012) refers to proficiency as aspects of skill and performance, synonymous with ability. First, Bachman (1990) defines language proficiency as "knowledge, competence, or ability in the use of a language, irrespective of how, where, or under what conditions it has been acquired" (p. 16). Then, the author defines the term communicative competence, "which also refers to ability in language use, albeit a broader view of such use than has been traditionally associated with the term 'language proficiency'" (p. 16). Consequently, the latter term, having a broader view of the ability to use the language than proficiency, is more extensively defined.

2.2. Communicative Competence

Grenfell and Harris (1999) write that Hymes was the first to use the term communicative competence. Hymes, in 1972, wanted to expand Chomsky's definition of linguistic competence (Johnson, 2004). According to this author, Hymes used the term communicative competence in order to go beyond the knowledge of tacit grammatical rules expressed in Chomsky's definition

(Johnson, 2004). “The major conclusion from this view is that learning a language involves not only mastering grammatical accuracy, developing syntactic competence, but also acquiring the paralinguistic and metalinguistic features involved in performing a linguistic act in an acceptable manner” (Grenfell & Harris, 1999, p. 16). Communicative competence includes mastery of the linguistic code (phonology, morphology, syntax, lexicon) together with the function (speech act) expressed (Llurda, 2000).

The *Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics* (Richards & Schmidt, 2013) defines communicative competence as “knowledge of not only if something is formally possible in a language, but also whether it is feasible, appropriate, or done in a particular speech community” (p. 99). Ellis (1994) defines it as “consist[ing] of the knowledge that users of a language have internalized to enable them to understand and produce messages in the language” (p. 696). Saville-Troike (2003; in Saville-Troike, 2012) defines communicative competence as “what a speaker needs to know to communicate appropriately within a particular language community” (p. 106).

Davies (2003) applies three characteristics to communicative competence:

- 1) competence means performing without thinking (the notion of automaticity);
- 2) competence does not mean performing well but at what level of performance;
- 3) competence means knowing and being familiar with all structural resources of a code (though not with its rhetoric), and being able to make judgements about

structural realisations. Accordingly, Saville-Troike (2012) writes that L2 learners never fully achieve “near-native” or “native like” competence because English and other languages differ in grammatical structure and pronunciation. In the end, the concept of communicative competence is generally realized by the ability to communicate with native speakers in real-life situations (Leaver & Shekhtman, 2002).

Medgyes (1992) finds that efforts to define what it takes to be considered a native speaker of English can be controversial. He suggests the idea of an interlanguage continuum where somebody might situate himself or herself (Medgyes, 1992, p. 347) (See *figure 1*), whereby non-native speakers constantly move along the continuum.

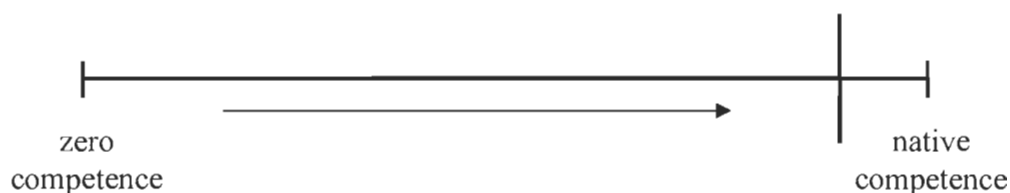


Figure 1. The interlanguage continuum (Medgyes, 1992, p. 347)

Jun Liu (1999) also sees communicative competence on a continuum, not as a native/non-native dichotomy, and that the importance attached to being native or non-native will give way to one’s communicative competence.

2.3. Components of Communicative Competence

The components of communicative competence suggest that it is not a unified whole but consists of subcompetences (Leaver & Shekhtman, 2002).

There are many components underpinning the communicative competency, such as the social code and the socially acceptable norms of language (Frost, 1999). These different components are part of PC 1 and PC 2 in the MÉES' orientations.

The segmentation of the concept of communicative competence into components provides a framework, which highlights the varying needs of students as they progress in their learning (Leaver & Shekhtman, 2002). First, Canale and Swain (1980) identified three components: 1) grammatical (or linguistic) competence (ability to comprehend and use the lexical and grammatical structures of a language), 2) sociolinguistic competence (ability to understand and use the social rules of linguistic interaction), and 3) strategic competence (the ability to apply appropriate learning strategies for acquisition of a new language). In 1983, Canale added discourse competence (the ability to understand and apply text structure) to the original model (See *Figure 2*).

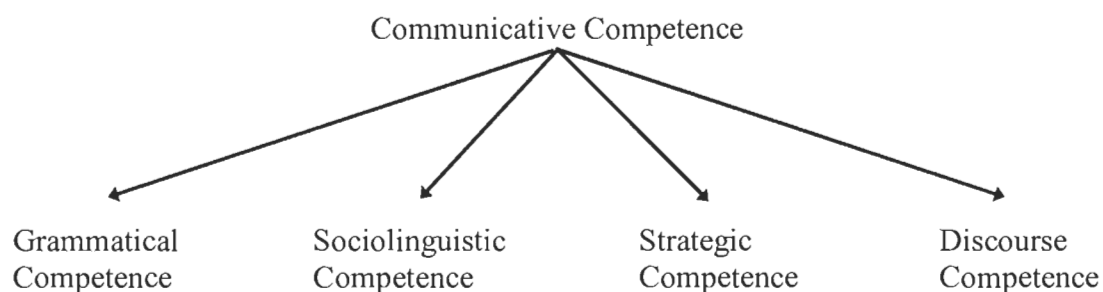


Figure 2. Canale and Swain's (1980) and Canale's (1983) communicative competence model.

Before the communicative competence model defined by Canale and Swain's (1980, 1983), Hymes (1972) used the term linguistic competence. For Hymes (1972): "Linguistic competence is understood as concerned with the tacit knowledge of language structure, that is, knowledge that is commonly not conscious or available for spontaneous report, but necessarily implicit in what the (ideal) speaker-listener can say" (p. 54). Ellis (1994) claims:

Various models of communicative competence have been proposed, but most of them recognize that it entails both linguistic competence (for example, knowledge of grammatical rules) and pragmatic competence (for example, knowledge of what constitutes appropriate linguistic behaviour in a particular situation). (p. 696)

Gan (2012) also sees language competence consisting of organizational competence (i.e. grammatical and textual competence) and pragmatic competence (i.e. illocutionary competence and sociolinguistic competence).

Pragmatic competence, a subfield of linguistics, concerns the study of the use of language in context, by real speakers and hearers in real situations (Eisenchlas, 2011). Pragmatic competence, for example, requires some awareness of forms and of their functional meanings in the social contexts in which they occur (Svalberg, 2007). Acquisition of pragmatic competence is essential; learners cannot fully participate in everyday interactions without it. However, research shows that grammatical competence does not guarantee the development of pragmatic competence (Eisenchlas, 2011).

However, it becomes difficult to establish with the model of communicative competence, which encompasses many components and many aspects, how a future ESL teacher has gained knowledge and mastery of English. Nevertheless, as communicative competence seems to be widely used in applied linguistics, I tried to consider this framework for my study. Thus, I examine performance as a framework for these concepts.

2.4. Performance and Competence

Johnson (2004) states: “Our current models of SLA make a clear distinction between linguistic competence (that is, knowledge of language) and linguistic performance (that is, the use of language competence in real-life contexts)” (p. 4). SLA is essentially described as “more” and “better” incorporation of various separate attributes that make up language performance (Byrnes, 2002). Conveying situated and goal-oriented meaning influences language performance (Byrnes, 2002). Chomsky, in 1965, claimed that competence refers to the linguistic system that an ideal native speaker has internalized, and performance concerns the psychological factors involved in the perception and production of speech (Canale & Swain, 1980). Canale and Swain (1980) adopt the term communicative competence to refer to the relationship between knowledge of grammar rules and knowledge of the rules of language use. As for communicative performance, these authors see it as the realization of the knowledge within communicative competence. As performance only considers

the production of language, it is a limited method of establishing the concepts for this research.

2.5. Declarative Knowledge and Procedural Knowledge

Kamhi-Stein (1999) lists the qualities of a good language teacher. One of the qualifications most mentioned by teacher trainees is an in-depth understanding of the English language. Pasternak and Bailey (2004) refer to the distinction between declarative knowledge (knowledge about something) and procedural knowledge (ability to do things).

Ellis (2004) explains: “Explicit L2 knowledge is the declarative knowledge of the phonological, lexical, grammatical, pragmatic, and sociocultural features of an L2 [...]” (p. 244). In language teaching, declarative knowledge includes important kinds of knowledge about: the target language, the target culture, and teaching (i.e. content and schemata) (Pasternak & Bailey, 2004). Procedural knowledge includes the ability to have a sustained discussion in English. For ESL teachers, other procedural knowledge relates to teaching; for example, “how to plan lessons, how to treat students’ oral errors, or how to conduct pair work” (Pasternak & Bailey, 2004, p. 157).

According to Pasternak and Bailey (2004), declarative knowledge entails knowing about the target language and procedural knowledge results in how to use it. The authors claim that procedural and declarative knowledge provide a

framework to assess where improvement is needed. Their framework tried to estimate developing language proficiency and professional preparation (see *Figure 3*). For them, it is irrelevant whether someone is native or non-native; they assume that the greater the procedural and declarative knowledge, the more confident a teacher will be.

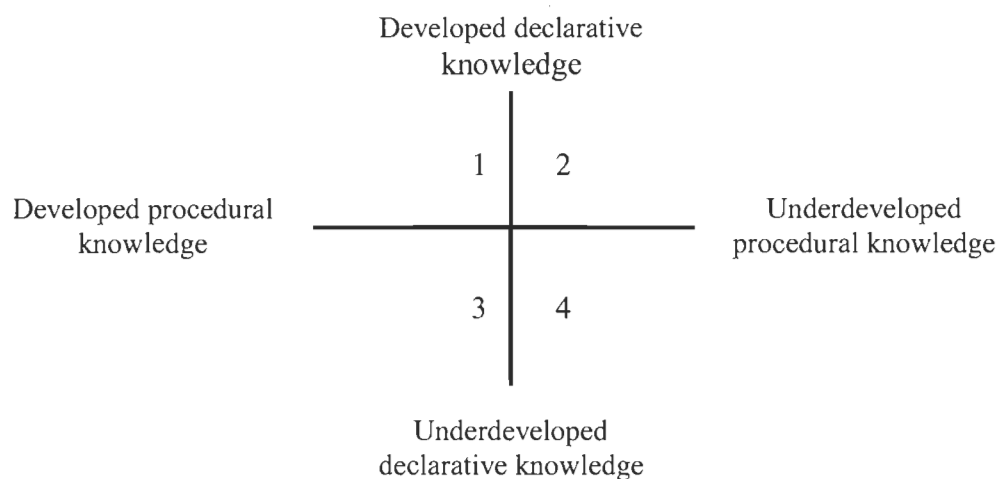


Figure 3. Framework for estimating developing proficiency and increasing confidence (Pasternak & Bailey, 2004, p. 171)

However, procedural knowledge in Pasternak and Bailey's (2004) framework goes beyond the scope of this research because for them, procedural knowledge also relates to how to planning lessons and conducting pair work; these are not part of what I am researching.

2.6. Teacher Language Awareness

Linguistics, regarding language awareness, uses four terms: language awareness (LA), linguistic awareness, metalinguistic awareness, and knowledge about language. These terms are often linked or intertwined. However, in this study, these terms are treated equally as language awareness. The Association for Language Awareness defines LA as “explicit knowledge about language, and conscious perception and sensitivity in language learning, language teaching and language use” (ALA, 2017). Studies in LA examine the benefits of developing good language knowledge, of how people learn and use language (ALA, 2017).

The National Council for Language in Education Working Party on Language Awareness produced a definition, cited in its report (Donmall, 1985), as: “Language awareness is a person’s sensitivity to and conscious awareness of the nature of language and its role in human life”. Noticing features of the language and awareness of the language facilitate its learning (Svalberg, 2007). Moreover, foreign language teachers believe that there is a clear positive relationship between LA and language proficiency (Alderson et al., 1997).

In addition, Ellis (2004) determines that awareness of grammatical rules or features needs to be distinguished from metalanguage. Metalanguage contributes to the development of explicit knowledge as awareness, which leads the learner to greater precision and accuracy (Ellis, 2004). Most of the studies on awareness require learners to perform three tests: (a) identification of the ungrammatical

sentences, (b) correction of the errors, and (c) provision of rules (Ellis, 2004). Ellis (2004), however, claims that language tests cannot provide valid measures of explicit knowledge.

Teacher language awareness (TLA) is the “knowledge that teachers have of the underlying system of the language that enables them to teach effectively” (Thornbury, 1997, p. x). Andrews and McNeill’s (2005) definition of TLA includes teachers’ beliefs, knowledge, and awareness of the learners’ perspective and interlanguage.

“TLA is essentially concerned with subject-matter knowledge and its impact upon teaching” (Andrews, 2001, p. 76). Additionally, the relationship between subject-matter knowledge and “communicative language ability” (Bachman, 1990) are intertwined, as the content of language teaching and the medium of instruction are the same (Andrews, 2001). To be noted, Andrews and McNeill’s (2005) study revealed five characteristics of TLA that may be generalizable in relation to the language teachers worldwide: 1) willingness to engage with and reflect on language-related issues, 2) self-awareness of their limitations of their own knowledge accompanied by a desire of self-improvement, 3) awareness of their own key role in input for learning, 4) awareness of learners’ potential difficulties, and 5) a love of language.

The first two characteristics were examined closely as part of their research. The first characteristic – willingness to engage with and reflect on

language-related issues – “is a significant variable influencing the application of [TLA] in practice” (Andrews & McNeill, 2005, p. 170). In these authors’ research, “Good Language Teachers” engage with content in their own way, but the issues with content remain at the core of their thinking, planning, and teaching. The second characteristic, concerning the subjects’ limitations of their own knowledge, allows them to engage with language issues, which enhances their sensitivity to the challenges their learners encounter. The subjects of Andrews and McNeill’s (2005) research reveal the time and effort spent consulting reference materials to improve their subject-matter knowledge. This awareness is associated with an awareness to engage in a reflection as part of their pedagogical practices.

The study revealed three other characteristics of language-awareness behaviour related to TLA. However, only the first two are explained. These two characteristics, along with the other three, form part of and are interrelated with pedagogical content knowledge (Andrews & McNeill, 2005).

For the framework of this research, on the concepts of knowledge and mastery of the language, I thus consider Andrews and McNeill’s (2005) five characteristics of TLA. These authors emphasize the close relationship between pedagogical content knowledge and TLA. Moreover, pedagogical content knowledge is directly linked with PC 1 and PC 2 of the MÉES’ orientations, as “a language is taught through language” (Andrews, 2001, p. 78).

2.7. Computer-Mediated Communication

It is important to note that English language teaching is influenced by many cultures and by modern technology (Lacroix, 2002). With the use of technology, it is now possible to teach and to learn anything including English. From the Do-it-yourself videos on YouTube to online courses and programs, there is a wide variety of technological tools for learning English. For this research, tutors apply technology in a specific way to help students, using an online virtual classroom. Thus, regarding the concept of tutoring, the considerations cover computer-mediated communication, online learning, and more specifically synchronous online tutoring.

Preparing ESL teachers for their careers is a complex process requiring among others, reflection and opportunities to apply theory to real-life situations (Arnold & Ducate, 2006). Moreover, the recent growth of the Internet and the evolution of computer-mediated communication (CMC) technologies have opened learning opportunities beyond the traditional classroom and can be comprised of participants living all around the world (Abraham & Williams, 2009).

Moreover, according to Arnold and Ducate (2006):

CMC has been used in a wide variety of contexts to replace or supplement face-to-face communication. In schools, colleges and universities across the world, teachers have used electronic exchanges, e-mail, bulletin boards (ACMC) and real-time chats (synchronous CMC), in a variety of disciplines. (p. 43)

These same authors state:

Computer-mediated communication (CMC) is a widely used educational tool because it lends itself to instruction based on sociocultural principles. It has been suggested by Vygotsky (1978) [...] that learning takes place in a social environment and is facilitated by dialogue. During this exchange of ideas, each individual interlocutor is able to internalize the new jointly constructed knowledge. (p. 43)

Johnson (2004) explains that the Vygotskian school of psychology asserts that higher mental functions originate on the social plane. Morita (2000) promotes the idea that individuals can develop higher mental functions (such as knowledge and mastery of a language), by socially specific activities where they can be used. She also notes that very little research on students' academic discourse emphasize oral interaction. In synchronous online tutoring particularly, a form of CMC, oral interaction abounds.

2.7.1. Tutoring

The *Collins Online English Dictionary* defines tutoring as: "1. The act of teaching or instructing; 2. remedial or additional teaching, designed to help people who need extra help with their studies." This general definition needs refinement, as a variety of tutoring situations exists, for example: face-to face, one-on-one, small groups, online, etc. When online tutoring is done, it can be in synchronous distance learning (*e.g.* chats, video conferencing). If tutors and tutees interact at a different time, this is asynchronous distance learning such as emails and online forums. With synchronous distance learning, tutors and tutees find the experience

“more social and avoid frustration by asking and answering questions in real time” (Hrastinski, 2008, p. 52).

For this research, we use Gazaille’s (2011) definition as it reflects the type of tutoring used. Distance inter-institution tutoring describes tutoring done by a tutor from a higher level of education and who attends a different school establishment from the tutee. In this case, the tutor is studying at university, and the tutee is studying at a college in a different city.

Tutoring consists of an exchange between the tutor and the tutee. These exchanges will or can lead the tutee to ask questions to which the tutor may not have the answer. The tutor will need to search and research the answers in order to provide the tutee with an answer to their question. For the tutor, this represents a true source of learning with regards to constructing language awareness, which, in turn, may lead to greater knowledge and mastery of the language. Concerning tutoring, Barratt (2010) declares:

Even more than teaching, tutoring provides the tutor with a chance to focus on the details of grammatical rules. Future teachers can practice correcting errors and explaining rules, supervised by their submitting tutoring reports, by videotaping themselves, by tutoring in pairs, by mock tutoring sessions with classmates, or by some other means. (p. 196–197)

2.8. Conceptual Map of the Framework

In order to answer my question, “How does tutoring help future ESL teachers increase their knowledge and mastery of English?”, I developed a framework. The concept map (*Figure 4*, p. 43) displays the framework. First, the map shows how tutoring can help develop TLA. The map then portrays how tutoring benefits the tutors, based on Barratt’s (2010) research. Tutors can: 1) focus on the details of grammatical rules, 2) practice correcting errors, 3) explain rules, 4) are supervised individually, 5) record themselves, and add a benefit not mentioned by Barratt (2010), 6) practice teaching the same lesson multiple times. The concept map then reflects Andrews and McNeill’s (2005) five characteristics of TLA: 1) willingness to engage with and reflect on language-related issues, 2) self-awareness of their limitations of their own knowledge accompanied by a desire of self-improvement, 3) awareness of their own key role in input for learning, 4) awareness of learners’ potential difficulties, and 5) a love of language.

“[O]ne of the goals of language instruction is that the learners move in the direction of achieving the kind of proficiency in the language that native speakers have, what is generally termed ‘communicative competence’ (Thornbury, 1997, p. xiii). Thornbury (1997) claims that, for learners, noticing features of the language is necessary for language acquisition. He believes that teachers need sufficient language awareness to be able to alert learners to the features of the

language to be ‘noticed’. Thus, as it is important that future ESL teachers develop language awareness in their training, the objective is to determine how tutoring impacts the knowledge and mastery of English for future ESL teachers through TLA because LA explores the benefits of developing good language knowledge, of how people learn and use language (ALA, 2017).

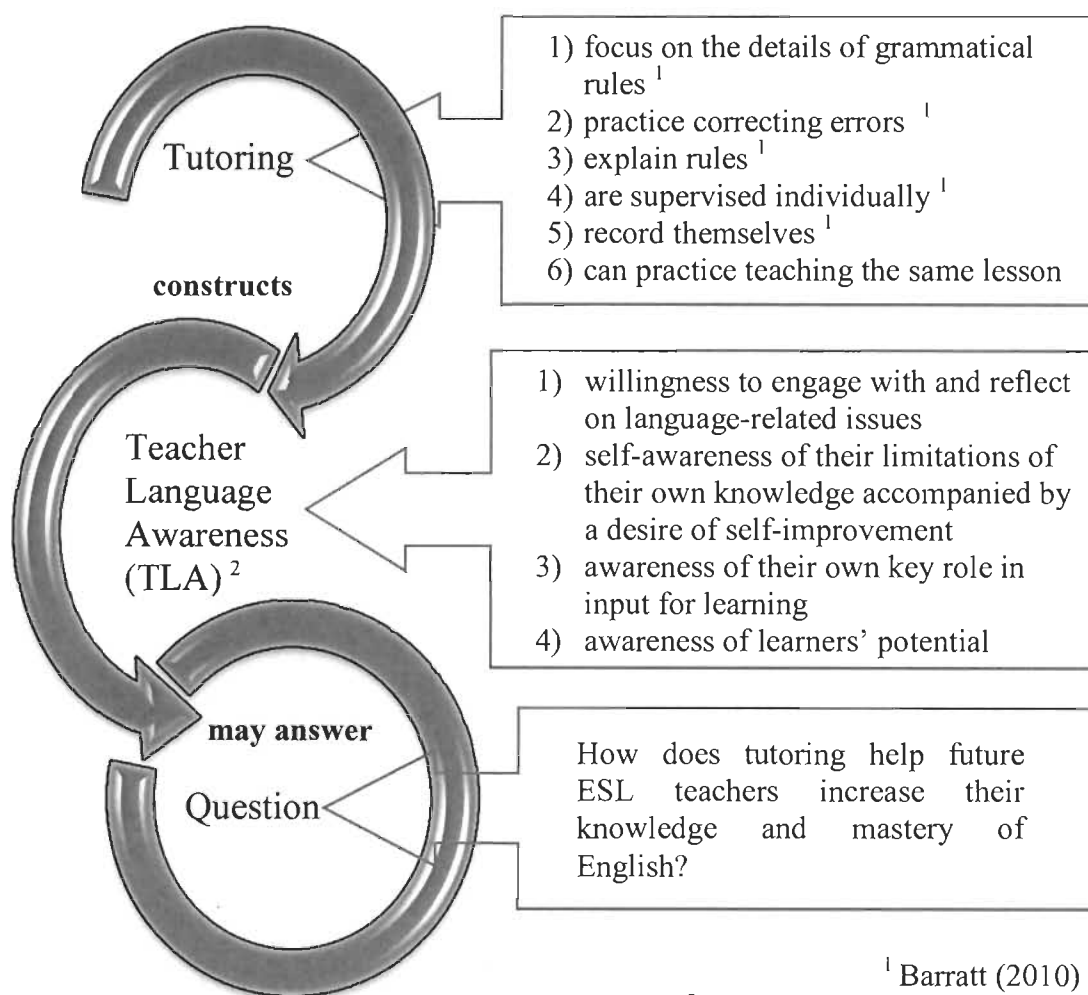


Figure 4. Conceptual map for research question

Method

“A variety of legitimate scientific approaches exist [sic] in education research” (Shavelson & Towne, 2002, p. 98). The research method must be carefully selected to answer best the question (Shavelson & Towne, 2002). The research objective tries to establish the impacts of tutoring on the knowledge and mastery of English.

A qualitative research considers that social reality is rooted in and impossible to dissociate from the social setting (Bhattacharjee, 2012). “As Vygotsky points out in his theory of mind, the property of human mental functioning can be discovered by the investigation of the individual’s environment [...]” (Johnson, 2004, p 16). In addition, qualitative research allows us to interpret the data and to explore hidden reasons behind a multifaceted social process (Bhattacharjee, 2012). It is also suitable for studying a context-specific and unique event (*Ibid.*, 2012). It helps uncover interesting issues for follow-up research.

Within this qualitative approach, the case study analyzes best the research question. “Education is a process and, at times, requires a research method which is process-oriented, flexible and adaptable to changing circumstances and a dynamic context. Given these boundaries, case study method is often appropriate” (Anderson, 1998, p. 161). This section will explain the choice of a case study as part of a qualitative

research. To this end, the research design, the context of the study, the quality of the research design, the participants, and the data collection are covered in this chapter.

3.1. Research Design

Robert Stake (1995) defines a case study as “the study of the particularity and complexity of a single case, coming to understand its activity within important circumstances” (p. xi). “Case focuses on particularities rather than on our ability to generalize findings to a population at large” (Johnson, 2004, p. 16), and “it highlights the importance for human cognitive development of social interaction in a variety of sociocultural and institutional settings” (Johnson, 2004, p. 16). Moreover, case studies seem to provide important insights of an individual’s cognitive development (Johnson, 2004). The individual is at the center of this type of scientific inquiry (*Ibid.*, 2004).

The emphasis in a case study is to try to understand a phenomenon (Anderson, 1998). Case study research aims at understanding one or more particular instances of a bounded phenomenon by examining it in depth, in a holistic manner, and in a natural context (Chapelle & Duff, 2003). Case studies consist of detailed inquiry where the researcher examines a relevant issue (Salkind, 2010). This type of research is useful because the researcher can explore a single phenomenon or multiple phenomena or multiple examples of one phenomenon (*Ibid.*, 2010).

According to Willis (2008), in general, case studies help answer “how” questions: when the researcher has little control over events, and when the focus is on a

contemporary phenomenon within some real-life context. For this author, a descriptive case study details the setting and the phenomenon. Additionally, generalization and implications are typically left to the reader rather than undertaken by the researcher. Recently, teaching ESL case studies have adopted a more interpretive stance, with less emphasis on, among others, the acquisition of specific linguistic elements and more emphasis on issues such as: skill development and its consequences for learners, future teachers' professional development, and the implementation policies in programs (Willis, 2008). A case study is one which investigates a case or multiple cases to answer a specific research (Gillham, 2000). As an example, Stake (1995) mentions that we might choose several people to study rather than just one. Thus, the case study for this research offers the best choice to analyze the future teachers' professional development in knowledge and mastery of English.

3.2. Context of the Study

Reves and Medgyes (1994) concluded that proficiency-oriented activities for in-service ESL teachers would improve language difficulties. However, the participant for this research is a pre-service ESL teacher; thus, I study a pre-service proficiency-oriented activity, more specifically tutoring.

Between 2009 and 2012, Université du Québec à Trois-Rivières (UQTR) conducted an online tutoring project. The project consisted of university students, mainly future ESL teachers, who tutored college students online. During the tutoring sessions,

one of the college teachers remarked that some tutors corrected some mistakes that were not and omitted to correct some that were.

Following in the footsteps of the initial project, an elective ESL tutoring course was offered. The three-credit course, part of a *Projet d'intervention dans la communauté (Picom)* (Community intervention project), is project-based. The online tutoring course allowed up to five students to cooperate as a team in building and in carrying out online ESL tutoring activities to college students in a unilingual milieu, where practicing spoken English is almost non-existent. An online learning and conferencing platform called Via was used.

3.3. Recruitment

Picom is not a well-known elective course. Even though there are many posters throughout the university, a Facebook page about it, as well as promotion within various faculties at university, many students do not know what it is or what it entails. Thus, to promote the Picom, I presented this project in three different classes within the teaching ESL program, with three different cohorts. Emails were sent to all the students in the teaching ESL program explaining what the project was about and offered to answer any questions. The “Picom” was also promoted within the university when meeting students.

3.4. Participants

The first attempt for the study took place in the winter semester of 2016 with five students. The five participants were one man, 31 years old and English was a second

language for him, and four women aged 21, 25, and 27. One did not complete the pre-tutoring questionnaire; thus, there is no data on her age. Of the three women who complete the pre-tutoring questionnaire, the 21 and 27-year old considered English to be a second language. The 25-year old considered English to be her first language.

I informed the five students that the project would be part of a Master's research. As this research required the participation of human beings, I applied at UQTR for an ethical certificate from the "Comité d'éthique de la recherche (CER)" (Ethical Committee on Research) and obtained it (Certificate Number: CER-15-217-07.16). The five participants first read a letter of information explaining the objectives, the tasks, the risks involved, and the benefits of participating in this research. Once the students had read the information letter, they signed a letter of consent.

Due to complications, many pieces of data could not be collected. Namely, one pre-tutoring questionnaire had not completed, very little feedback was given to the tutors, and only one student sent their journal entries. Moreover, the focus group discussion at the end spotlighted solely the difficulties that the tutors encountered with their students during the online tutoring; thus, the discussion contained no data concerning the tutors English language improvement after doing the tutoring. However, all these participants completed the post-tutoring questionnaire, which provided valuable data. Moreover, this case can be considered a pilot case because the researcher realized, with the data collected, that adjustments needed to be made for the future. To be noted, part of the data

collected from the post-tutoring questionnaire of this first attempt will be referred to in the conclusion.

In the fall of 2016, the university again offered the ESL online tutoring. However, only two new students registered, which was not a sufficient number to offer the course; thus, it did not take place. Nonetheless, one student wanted to experience online tutoring. I contacted the college where the online tutoring took place during the winter of 2016. The English teacher at the college asked a student if she wanted to participate in the online tutoring again, having done it in fall 2015 and in winter 2016.

The researcher asked the volunteer tutor if she wanted to participate in a research. The tutor read the letter of information explaining the objectives, the tasks, the risks involved, and the benefits of participating in this research. She then signed the letter of consent. The participant (whom I will refer to as Jane⁵) was a 23-year-old female. She was a fourth-year student in the ESL teaching Bachelor's, for whom English was her second language. She had very little teaching experience. Her experience consisted of three practica and individual homework support.

3.5. Context of the Tutoring

Before the tutoring began, the teacher/researcher⁶ met with the future ESL teacher, a fourth-year student in the teaching ESL program at UQTR to explain what the tutoring involved and the online platform used. First, the teacher explained how tutoring

⁵ The name is fictitious to preserve the anonymity of the participant.

⁶ Hereafter referred to as the teacher.

was done. This consisted of seven weekly online sessions with a college student in another city, who had previously participated to the tutoring. Second, the tutor would need to create the online session and weekly activities for the session. Third, the tutor would have to submit the plan for the weekly session activities to the teacher for review, where the teacher could review the planned weekly activity, and he would send a revised version, if necessary. After, the teacher gave some background information about the student: mature student, returning to school, studying in the paralegal program, with four children, motivated to do the tutoring again.

Next, the teacher explained the Via online e-learning platform, including how to set up meetings, how to record the meetings, and the features of the online platform. For example, the platform offers an interactive whiteboard (where tutor and student can, among others, write, highlight, circle), the possibility of uploading Word and PDF documents, as well as some links for websites, and a chat feature. More importantly, the tutor and the student can talk to each other. There is also the possibility of using a webcam. However, for this research, a webcam was not used as it decreases the speed of the bandwidth causing a greater lag. Lastly, this platform allows the sessions to be recorded. This feature was exploited for the teacher to provide feedback and for the tutor to listen to the recorded session.

3.6. Data Collection

Case studies typically involve the collection and analysis of several types of data (Obiakor, Bakken, & Rotatori, 2010; Willis, 2008). Data collected for this research came

from six sources of evidence: a pre-tutoring questionnaire and a post-tutoring questionnaire, personal observations of recorded online tutoring sessions, e-mail feedback to the tutor, weekly journal entries by the participant, and an interview at the end of the tutoring sessions. Data gathered using different methods on the same issue are part of a multi-method approach; moreover, if the different methods intersect, then a true picture of the studied phenomenon can emerge, known as triangulation (Gillham, 2000).

The tutor was asked to have seven weekly sessions. The duration of the session was established at 30 minutes per week for seven weeks. However, both the tutor and the student agreed between them to one-hour-and-a-half sessions every week for nine weeks.

3.6.1. Sources of Evidence

For this research, a number of tools were used as source of evidence for the data:

- 1) Pre-tutoring questionnaire: (see Appendix A for questions)
- 2) Weekly tutoring sessions
- 3) Weekly journal entries by the participant
- 4) Feedback
- 5) Post-tutoring questionnaire: (see Appendix B for questions)
- 6) Interview

These sources of evidence helped in analyzing the five characteristics of tutoring and the six characteristics of TLA. The pre-tutoring questionnaire indicated prior English language knowledge and the participant's expectations concerning language learning. The weekly tutoring sessions allowed the tutor to put into application her declarative knowledge of the English language. The weekly journal entries helped the tutor reflect on the declarative knowledge that she had taught and that she had learned. The weekly

feedback supplied information to tutor on some improvements and adjustments to her language knowledge. The post-tutoring questionnaire consolidated the various knowledge the tutor gained within the tutoring activity. The interview confirmed what the researcher noticed during the tutoring session and what the tutor wrote in the weekly journals and in the post-tutoring questionnaire.

Pre-tutoring questionnaire. Once Jane signed the consent form, she completed the pre-tutoring questionnaire. This English questionnaire contained socio-demographic information: name, date, age, gender, English as a first, second, or third language, study program, year in the program, and teaching experience. The first question concerned the context in which the participant learned English. The second question asked about what the tutor did to improve her English skills before starting university. The third focused on means taken during the teaching ESL Bachelor's studies to improve her English skills. The fourth question considered the participant's greatest strength with regards to the English language. The fifth question was regarding aspects of the English language that were more difficult. The sixth question asked: "Why did you take part in the tutoring?" The seventh question concerned the participant's beliefs in how tutoring can help with regards to the English language. The last part of the questionnaire was a text to write (10 to 15 lines). The first paragraph was to describe the past experience in learning English. The second paragraph was to explain the motivation for studying in their field. The third focused on career expectations, hopes, and dreams.

Weekly tutoring sessions. The participant and the college student had nine weekly online tutoring sessions. Using the Via online platform, it is possible for each session to be recorded. On three occasions, the tutor reviewed the session with her student. It also allows the researcher to watch the session to note some language elements where it is possible for the tutor to improve. For each weekly session, the tutor provided a plan of the grammatical rules seen and the activities associated with what was seen.

Weekly journal entry. The participant was asked and kept a journal, written in English, about the tutoring, particularly in regards to the aspects concerning her teaching and learning of the English language. The participant submitted her journal with nine entries at the same time as the post-tutoring questionnaire and prior to the end-of-tutoring interview.

Feedback. The researcher listened to parts of the weekly session and noted elements to provide the tutor with feedback. The researcher wrote a weekly email providing feedback on various elements of the tutoring session held. The main contents of the feedback were the elements that the researcher thought would be useful for the tutor, such as improving grammar explanations.

Post-tutoring questionnaire. The participant completed the post-tutoring questionnaire after all the tutoring sessions were done. The first part of the questionnaire was to make sure to connect the pre-questionnaire with the correct post questionnaire; thus, socio-demographic questions were asked: name, gender, date, and age. The first question was a general question about the tutor's positive experience in ESL tutoring.

The second question asked: “In general, what will you retain or gain from your experience as a tutor? What are some of the things you learned? What skills have you developed?” The third question concerned more specifically the tutor’s beliefs about the aspects of English she improved the most. The fourth question concerned if a friend asked the tutor advice about the tutoring, what would she say? The fifth question looked at the tutoring experience in a broader spectrum. It asked if tutoring should be part of the ESL teaching program and why. The last question was a text to write (10–15 lines). The first paragraph was to detail the tutoring experience. The second paragraph explained how the tutoring experience would affect the tutor’s way of seeing the teaching profession. The third paragraph specifically focused on how the tutoring would change her way of teaching ESL.

Interview. At the end of the tutoring sessions, the researcher conducted an interview which lasted 40 minutes. There were no preset questions. However, the researcher/interviewer⁷ always had in mind the research question: how does tutoring help future ESL teachers’ knowledge and mastery of the English language? The researcher wanted the tutor the opportunity to debrief her tutoring experience. The first eight minutes concerned the tutor’s exchanges with the student. Both the tutor and the student had weekly sessions lasting at least an hour and a half on a Saturday, and the student had four children. Following this debrief, the researcher explained that in his previous experience working on the tutoring, he had noticed that tutoring help the tutors improve

⁷ Hereafter, the researcher

their English skills. The first question was, “How did you truly improve in your English skills, whether it be speaking, grammar, explanations, etc.?” The second question tried to determine what factors helped the tutor improve. Was it the feedback? Personal research? Different factors combined? The next question focused on the type of feedback the tutor received, and her comments regarding the feedback. The interview continues with questions regarding the tutor’s journal entries and what was covered in the entries. The follow-up questions were how this exercise helped the tutor and if she would maintain this practice in her teaching profession. Then, the researcher asked if the tutor had listened to some of her sessions and what she realized for herself. The researcher asked the tutor if teaching ESL was her ultimate goal. Towards the end of the interview, the tutor was asked what she would remember and take from the tutoring experience. The interview proceeds with the researcher’s and the tutor’s personal reflections on the tutoring experience. There are about 15 minutes of digression where the researcher discusses with the tutor the possibility for her to do a Master’s. In the last eight minutes, the researcher ponders on the fact that students did not participate in the tutoring. The tutor then expresses her disappointment that the course had been cancelled.

3.7. Quality of Research Design

According to Yin (2014), there are four key design attributes commonly used to establish the quality of the research design: reliability, construct validity, internal validity, and external validity of the data. There are several ways of dealing with these four elements when doing a case study (Yin, 2014).

3.7.1. Reliability

Bhattacharjee (2012) defines reliability as “the degree to which the measure of a construct is consistent or dependable” (p. 56). In other words, if we use the same scale every time, will the results pretty much similar? “Reliability implies consistency but not accuracy” (Bhattacharjee, 2012, p. 56). A case study protocol is a way of increasing the reliability of the case study research.

According to Yin (2014), a case study protocol should have four sections. The first section provides an overview of the case and its objectives. The second section pertains to data collection procedures and to the protection of human subjects. The third section concerns the researcher and the specific questions to keep in mind in collecting data and potential sources of evidence. The last section is a guide for the case study report; for example, an outline of the report and a format for the data.

3.7.2. Validity

“Validity is the complement to reliability and refers to the extent to which what we measure reflects what we expected to measure” (Anderson, 1998, p. 13). Generally, validity in qualitative research refers to the stated interpretations are in fact true (Anderson, 1998).

Internal validity. Internal validity relates to issues of truthfulness of responses (Anderson, 1998). Internal validity requires three conditions (Bhattacharjee, 2012). In explanatory case studies, when trying to explain how event x led to event y , Yin (2014)

writes that the researcher needs to consider that a third event – z – may have caused y ; otherwise, the internal validity may fail. In addition, internal validity in case study research basically involves inferences (Yin, 2014). This author means that a researcher will infer that event y resulted from an earlier occurrence. However, a research design that anticipates inferences reduces the problem of internal validity (Yin, 2014). The research design for this case study relied on many pieces of evidences which relate to the research question. In the post-questionnaire, the interview, and the journal entries, there are constant reminders of how tutoring improves the tutor’s knowledge and mastery of English. Thus, it means trying to ensure that a factor z does not influence the results of the research throughout the data collection.

External validity. External validity “refers to whether the observed associations can be generalized from the sample to the population (population validity), or to other people, organizations, contexts, or time (ecological validity)” (Bhattacharjee, 2012, p. 36). Yin (2014) states that the form *how and why* of the research question can influence the strategies used in striving for external validity. Also, the data collected for this case study can be applied to other ESL teaching programs offered in a unilingual setting other than English, where future ESL teachers have little opportunities to practice their English skills.

Construct validity. Construct validity refers to the extent to which a measure adequately represents what it is supposed to measure (Bhattacharjee, 2012). Gillham, (2000) claims: “No one kind or source of evidence is likely to be sufficient (or

sufficiently valid) on its own. This use of multiple sources of evidence, each with its strengths and weaknesses, is a key characteristic of case study research” (p. 2).

In order to have construct validity, a researcher must be sure to define the specific concepts and connect them to the object of the study and identify the elements that match the concepts (Yin, 2014). In the previous chapter, I defined my concepts (tutoring and TLA) and identified elements of the concepts. In Table 1 and Table 2, I identify the data collected for the six elements of tutoring and the data collected for the five elements in TLA. Thus, I am able to have construct validity.

Table 1

Characteristics of tutoring with the sources of evidence.

Tutoring	Sources of evidence
1) focus on the details of grammatical rules	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • during the tutoring sessions • feedback the tutor received • journal entries • post-tutoring questionnaire
2) practice correcting errors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • journal entries • feedback the tutor received • post-tutoring questionnaire
3) explain rules	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • during the tutoring sessions • journal entries • feedback the tutor received • post-tutoring questionnaire • interview
4) are supervised individually	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • feedback the tutor received • interview
5) record themselves	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • interview
6) practice teaching the same lesson multiple times	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • no data was recorded

Table 2

Characteristics of teacher language awareness with the sources of evidence.

Teacher language awareness (TLA)	Sources of evidence
1) willingness to engage with and reflect on language-related issues	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • pre-tutoring questionnaire • journal entries • feedback the tutor received • post-tutoring questionnaire • interview
2) self-awareness accompanied by a desire of self-improvement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • pre-tutoring questionnaire • journal entries • feedback the tutor received • interview
3) awareness of their own key role in input for learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • pre-tutoring questionnaire • post-tutoring questionnaire • interview
4) awareness of learners' potential difficulties	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • pre-tutoring questionnaire • journal entries • post-tutoring questionnaire • interview
5) love of language	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • pre-tutoring questionnaire • journal entries • post-tutoring questionnaire

3.8. The Roles of the Case Researcher

“The case researcher plays different roles and has options as to how they will be played” (Stake, 1995, p. 91). The roles may include teacher, interpreter, interviewer, reader, storyteller, advocate, artist, and others (Stake, 1995).

“The intention of research is to inform, to sophisticate, to assist the increase of competence and maturity, to socialize, and to liberate. These are also the responsibilities of the teacher” (Stake, 1995, p. 91–92). Few interpretations of data remain completely

neutral and have the same meaning to different readers because the researcher's role includes being the exemplar and the persuader (Stake, 1995). The researcher is part of the data collection instruments because he provides feedback to the participant. However, being part of the data does not deter the researcher from maintaining a high ethical standard, such as not falsifying information and being honest (Stake, 1995). Moreover, "the naturalistic researcher is [...] a participant observer who acknowledges (and looks out for) their role in what they discover" (Gillham, 2000, p. 7).

3.9. Method for Data Analysis

Data analysis of case study research consists of examining, categorizing, or recombining evidence to produce empirically-based findings (Yin, 2014). "The richness of case studies is related to the amount of detail and contextualization that is possible when only one or a small number of focal cases and issues are analyzed" (Chapelle & Duff, 2003, p. 164). Descriptive/interpretive approaches are still common approaches in SLA research for analyzing and interpreting data (Chapelle & Duff, 2003). Thus, the analysis describes in detail how tutoring helps future ESL teachers with their knowledge and mastery of English.

"[A]nalysis involves the coding of data and the identification of salient points or structures" (Chapelle & Duff, 2003, p. 166). Yin (2014) writes that there are few fixed formulas in the analysis of case study evidence to help novice researchers. He adds that computer-assisted software such as NVivo will not do the analysis on its own; the software outputs cannot be used as an end to your analysis. Equally, some of the data for

the analysis come from transcriptions of the spoken language: the online tutoring sessions and the final interview. A transcription always represents the perceptions and analyses of a given transcriber (Weinert, Basterrechea, & del Pilar Gracia Mayo, 2013). Following Weinert et al. (2013), the data analysis consist of a usage-based perspective of the spoken language. This perspective allows for a written representation of the spoken language, where the speaker may make hesitations, retakes, mistakes, or errors without impeding on the meaning of the message (Weinert et al., 2013).

Therefore, the coding of the data was done reading and listening to the different pieces of evidence. When reading or listening, I coded the information according to the characteristics of tutoring and/or the characteristics of TLA. Just as Stake (1995), certain questions for data analysis, using many pieces of evidence, allowed probing the complexity of this case. A chronology is associated to the evidence; the chronology covers a 15-week period.

Data Analysis and Results

This chapter describes the data from the case study and provides results. It details and analyzes: the participant's language knowledge prior to the tutoring, the six characteristics of tutoring, and the five characteristics of TLA. In addition, each piece of evidence paints a portrait to state the case regarding the research question. Last, I give the results regarding tutoring and TLA to establish how tutoring impacts knowledge and mastery of English.

4.1. Participant's Prior English Language Knowledge

With regards to the pre-tutoring questionnaire (see Appendix A), it focused on: the participant's English language skills prior to doing the tutoring, her greatest strength with regards to the English language, some aspects of English she wanted to improve, and her expectations concerning the tutoring. These questions helped to see the participant's prior English language knowledge and to understand on what language knowledge the tutor wanted to work.

In fact, the handwritten questionnaire that Jane completed contained very little grammatical mistakes. This could be explained in part by her education and by her interest for the English language. First, she writes that she was in an English concentration program in the first year of high school. Second, at college level, Jane

continued her studies in a language program, which focused on the English language. Third, before starting university, she looked for English books, articles, movies, TV programs according to her interests. Also, Jane relates taking a few trips to English-speaking areas in North America to practice her speaking and listening skills. Lastly, she registered to the teaching ESL program at UQTR, and she was a fourth-year student when she completed the questionnaire.

With regards to the English language, Jane believes that her greatest strengths are her reading and writing skills. She also writes that she has a fairly wide vocabulary repertoire. In addition, she mentions to have “a quite (sic) good grasp of grammar rules in terms of writing and speaking situations.” In the pre-tutoring questionnaire, one question concerned how tutoring can help the tutor with regards to the English language. Jane believes that tutoring can help her continue to work on adapting her speech to the students’ level, especially with word choice, clarity and efficiency of her instructions and comments. She thinks she will improve her speaking and listening skills because, as she mentions, speaking is the main pedagogical focus of the online tutoring.

4.2. Tutoring

This section presents and analyzes the six characteristics of tutoring. First, I examine which grammatical rules the tutor focused on during the sessions. For this, I analyze the recorded tutoring sessions, the feedback the tutor received, and the tutor’s journal entries, and the post-tutoring questionnaire. Second, the characteristic of tutoring, which focuses on practicing errors, is coded and analyzed using the journal entries, the

feedback provided, and the post-tutoring questionnaire. Third, the explain-rules characteristic of tutoring is analyzed using the online sessions, the journal entries, the feedback from the teacher, the post-tutoring questionnaire, and the interview at the end of the tutoring. Fourth, the characteristic of tutoring concerning being supervised individually analyzes the feedback from the teacher, how the tutor is able to apply the feedback, and the interview. Fifth, the characteristic of recording one's self investigates how the recording of sessions helps the tutor in general. This is analyzed using the interview after the tutoring. Sixth, concerning the practice teaching the same lesson multiple times, no data was recorded.

4.2.1. Focus on the Details of Grammatical Rules

During every tutoring session except for the first session, where the tutor and student got to know each other, the tutor worked with the student on a specific grammatical rule of the English language. In her journal entries, Jane also mentions some of these rules. Moreover, for some of the rules, the teacher provided feedback. Lastly, in her post-tutoring questionnaire, Jane confirms how she worked on these grammatical rules.

For example, Jane explained a sentence that the student had heard using the modal “would”. The student kept asking questions, at some point, Jane knew that she was not clear because she was trying to answer every aspect of “would” and all the exceptions. The teacher listened to the session after it was recorded and then provided feedback, a PowerPoint, and websites to help Jane explain the modal “would”. In the following session, Jane took time to explain it again. She focused more on the uses of “would” to

talk about the future in the past, for presumptions and expectations, and for polite requests. The fact that there were a series of interventions for the student to understand clearly the use of “would” indicates that there was a focus on the details of the grammatical rules.

First, Jane could not quite explain the rule. Then, feedback was provided with additional resources. Lastly, taking time to explain the rule again, Jane was able to focus on the elements of the rule that were misunderstood by the student.

4.2.2. Practice Correcting Errors

During online sessions 3, 4, and 5, Jane helped the student work on the pronunciation of –ed. In session 3, Jane explained some rules. In between sessions 3 and 4, the teacher provided feedback to Jane regarding the explanations and practice. In session 4, they practiced a few examples. In session 5, the student worked diligently on the pronunciation of –ed and made fewer mistakes, according to Jane. This example demonstrates how, with the help of feedback, the tutor was able to practice correcting errors with her student.

In the post-tutoring questionnaire, where Jane explains her tutoring experience, she describes a typical session, which included the student reading a newspaper article aloud. After discussing the article, Jane would help the student with her pronunciation. One of Jane’s proudest moments as a tutor was when she helped her student prepare for an oral presentation. She showed the student various strategies for words that were

difficult to pronounce. Jane and the student practiced these together. Immediately after the oral presentation, her student wrote Jane to tell her of a perfect mark. She was quite pleased.

4.2.3. Explain Rules

When the student's questions arose during the tutoring sessions, Jane would research them on the spot or, if she did not have time, research the questions and provide an answer during the following session. During the interview, Jane mentions that tutoring helped with explaining the rules. According to her, it is one thing to know how to use grammar aspects and another to teach them. She knew, before doing the tutoring, that one of her challenges would be to give simple and concise information. Jane felt she improved in that aspect and provides an example with her explanation of the modal "would". Jane also mentions this example in one of her journal entries.

In the post-tutoring questionnaire, Jane writes that she learned to be more effective and precise when explaining grammar notions such as modals and the pronunciation of -ed for regular verbs in the past tense. The pronunciation of -ed was explained twice and practiced for short periods of time in three separate sessions. Another example concerns teaching the past progressive, Jane explained the rules of using it a first time in a session. She then reviewed the rule with the student in the following session to remind the student. Jane also provided more visual notes by using the online whiteboard to clarify the use of past progressive. A further example of explaining the rules happened

in session 8, when Jane explained the difference between “for” and “since” in one of the uses of the present perfect.

4.2.4. Supervised Individually

The teacher provided references with regards to some grammar aspects. This helped Jane to simplify her explanations and to give fewer examples, which, in turn, increased her confidence at explaining these aspects. In the interview, Jane mentions that she appreciated the fact that the teacher guided her throughout the tutoring and that the opportunity was offered to her. For example, through the feedback provided by the teacher, Jane learned how to pronounce the word “salmon”, as the “l” is silent. She writes about this example in her second journal entry.

After listening to session 3, the teacher noticed that Jane had given complex explanations about the pronunciation of –ed for English regular verbs. The teacher suggested to keep the explanations short and rather to have the student practice using a worksheet that he provided. During online session 4, Jane used the worksheet with her student, and they practiced a few examples together. In the interview, Jane related that the student appreciated the combination of explanations and practice. Furthermore, she was able to apply this notion while reading an article aloud.

4.2.5. Record Themselves

During the interview, Jane was asked if she had listened to herself after a tutoring session. She had listened two sessions. This helped Jane realize that she liked the

approach she had with the student, where she put the student in a situation of trust, gave the student time to reply, and answered the student's questions. Jane noticed from the recording that she tends to repeat herself. Also, wanting to give as many examples as possible, saying she tends to digress.

4.2.6. Practice Teaching the Same Lesson Multiple Times

No data came from the aspect of teaching the same lesson multiple times, as Jane only had one student. However, this aspect could be considered for further research with tutors who would have two or more students.

4.3. Teacher Language Awareness

This section presents and analyzes the five characteristics associated with TLA. First, I analyze the participant's willingness to engage with and reflect on language-related issues. This characteristic of TLA appeared in the pre-tutoring questionnaire, in the weekly journal entries, in applying the feedback received, in the post-tutoring questionnaire, and in the interview. Second, the characteristic of self-awareness of limitations of own knowledge accompanied by a desire of self-improvement appears in the pre-tutoring questionnaire, the journal entries, the feedback received, and the interview. The third characteristic, awareness of their own key role in input for learning, is analyzed with the pre-tutoring questionnaire, the post-tutoring questionnaire, and the interview. Fourth, I present and analyze Jane's awareness of the learner's potential difficulties using the pre-tutoring questionnaire, the journal entries, the post-tutoring

questionnaire, and the interview. Fifth, the participant's love of language is presented and analyzed using the pre-tutoring questionnaire, the post-tutoring questionnaire, and the interview.

4.3.1. Willingness to Engage with and Reflect on Language-related Issues

The key point to highlight is that Jane volunteered to do the tutoring to gain more experience in teaching. Thus, when analyzing all the data, I noticed that the tutor had much willingness to engage with and reflect on language related issues. Jane expressed her desire to expand her range of teaching experiences in the pre-tutoring questionnaire. For example, in her teaching experiences, she relates her experience giving French language workshops to a variety of levels and age groups. She then writes that she has "always liked the one-on-one teaching format to delve deeper in the students' needs and personalities". She concludes by expressing her desire to expand her range of ESL teaching experiences.

As another example of willingness to engage in and reflect on language-related issues, in the post-tutoring questionnaire and during the interview, Jane mentioned that she was quickly able to adapt her vocabulary to the situation and to the student's English proficiency through personal reflection and the feedback she received. According to Jane, the feedback received was concise, to the point; more importantly, Jane always was appreciative and thankful. For instance, Jane replied with to one email providing feedback: "Thank you very much for your comments and resources. The time and effort you put in your feedback are very much appreciated." Moreover, this feedback allowed

her to notice what worked and what did not. From the teacher's point of view, it seemed like the feedback was received in a positive way. In addition, during the 40-minute interview, there was only an eight-minute digression from language-related issues.

In the interview, Jane says that writing a weekly journal entry allowed her to take notes to remember the things she found difficult or easy. The journal helped her reflection with regards to what she needed to work on and her improvements. In addition, in the pre-tutoring questionnaire and during the interview, Jane says that she is an autonomous student, explaining that when she sees that she has a lack of knowledge about something, she will try to find the answer on her own.

Considering the different pieces of evidence concerning modals, it can be seen that Jane reflected on her understanding of this English knowledge. She first tried to answer the student's questions about modals. Afterwards, the teacher provided methods to explain these. The following week, Jane took time to correct her awkward explanations, according to her. Then, in Jane's third journal entry, she writes that she felt more confident about explaining the modals. Thus, Jane's reflection on this grammatical aspect demonstrates the importance of how feedback can help the tutor develop as a teacher.

4.3.2. Self-awareness of Limitations of Own Knowledge Accompanied by a Desire of Self-improvement

Self-awareness of limitations of own knowledge in this case evidences Jane's desire of self-improvement. First, in the pre-tutoring questionnaire, even though she made few mistakes in writing, Jane recognizes her limitations concerning her speaking skill and adapting it to the student's level. Evermore, she is aware of her limitations regarding her knowledge of vocabulary and some grammar points. Using the journal entries, self-listening to two recorded sessions, applying the feedback received, teaching throughout the tutoring, the data indicates the tutor's self-awareness accompanied by a desire of self-improvement.

Jane claims to be an autonomous student in her pre-tutoring questionnaire and in the interview. When she notices an English language weakness of hers, she tries to find the answer. During the interview, Jane says that when the teacher provided feedback following the tutoring sessions, she appreciated the references provided because she felt it complemented nicely what she was working on with the student. The concise and precise feedback helped Jane as a reminder. Jane took a moment to note her reflections in her journal after every session, which helped to remind her on what she had to work and to which extent she was improving.

4.3.3. Awareness of Their Own Key Role in Input for Learning

Awareness of her key role in input for learning is a characteristic that Jane took at heart. For example, when asked her opinion, in the pre-tutoring questionnaire, concerning the more difficult aspects of English for her, she answered that she had some hesitations when giving verbal responses. In her post-tutoring questionnaire and in the interview, Jane mentions that the more she worked with her student, the less Jane hesitated in her formulation of words and sentences. Moreover, Jane constantly verified her own pronunciation of words she was unsure. For example, in her fourth journal entry, she writes that she had to check for herself the pronunciation of the word “to weigh” because she did not want to get confused with the noun “weight”. In the interview, she says that when she was not too sure about the pronunciation of a word during a tutoring session, she would check on the spot.

Another situation where Jane was aware of her key role in input concerned how she reflected very frequently on choosing her words. In the post-tutoring questionnaire, she writes that she wanted to convey the most important information regarding grammar notions not to confuse the student as much as possible. For example, she writes that she learned to be more effective and precise when explaining grammar notions such as modals and the pronunciation of –ed. Moreover, she mentions that she improved in her word choice.

4.3.4. Awareness of Learners' Potential Difficulties

Jane mentions in the pre-tutoring questionnaire that she chose to partake in the tutoring because she “liked the one-on-one teaching format to delve deeper in the students’ needs and personalities.” This is a key aspect of awareness of learners’ potential difficulties. Understanding the students’ needs can help understand the learners’ potential difficulties. As an example mentioned during the interview, one of the elements Jane retains from her tutoring experience is the possibility to get to know her student’s interests, preferences, strengths and weaknesses.

Jane studied ESL teaching “to find different ways of broaching a topic to help and interest others.” In the post-tutoring questionnaire, it seems that Jane was able to accomplish this aspect. Jane writes that she was able to improve in choosing level-appropriate material for the student and adapting her word choice for clarity. For example, in Jane’s third journal entry, she writes the language of the article chosen for session 3 was too difficult for the student’s level. However, the student liked the topic. As a solution, Jane wrote that she used vocabulary notes from four different website references and summarized the content of the article to make it more accessible to the student. In another instance, during session 8, Jane played a video and realized that the host was speaking too fast for the student, so she decided to summarize the content for the student.

4.3.5. Love of Language

In the pre-tutoring questionnaire, Jane writes that her interest for the English language really began when she was in Secondary 1, in an English concentration program. During high school, Jane also developed enjoyment from English TV, movies, music, and particularly books. At the end of the questionnaire, Jane writes: “I love being able to share my passion for the language...” Her motivation for studying in teaching ESL is driven by a love to share her passion for the language. For example, during each tutoring session, the student read an article to her. From these articles, Jane learned some new words, which she explained to the student. After the sessions, Jane writes in her journal, that she would verify the pronunciation of words or sounds in the dictionary, such as the word “to weigh”, the /h/ sound in “human”, and the /i/ sound in “textile”.

4.4. Results

“One strength of the case study is its use of multiple data sources” (Anderson, 1998, p. 165). This case study yielded a variety of data sources to analyze the characteristics of tutoring and the characteristics of TLA, and how these helped increase the knowledge and mastery of English for our participant. Even though Jane made very few English mistakes or errors, she was able to notice by herself the improvement of her English language skills. This is shown in the following two subsections.

4.4.1. Characteristics of Tutoring

When the data regarding the six characteristics of tutoring defined by Barratt (2010) was analyzed, I demonstrated many instances of the application of each characteristic. For instance, the first characteristic of tutoring, focusing on the details of grammatical rules, was a recurring theme throughout all the data. Next, when correcting errors, interestingly, we can see that within the tutoring, Jane had to adjust her teaching difficulties with modals having a positive impact on her. Henceforth, she had a better grasp of the use of modals. After, explaining the rules markedly was an important characteristic of tutoring, particularly with the pronunciation of –ed. There was much evidence of the tutor being supervised individually within all the data collected: the feedback, the replies to the feedback received, and the interview. With this evidence, being supervised individually had a positive impact on the tutor. Notably, the feedback was concise and precise, which helped Jane have better knowledge of the English language. Last, the fact that tutors can record themselves using this online platform can have a positive outcome, such as with Jane’s, where she took the time to notice elements that worked and that did not.

4.4.2. Characteristics of Teacher Language Awareness

With all the evidence collected and analyzed, the five characteristics of TLA were present. This section outlines each of the characteristics.

First, the data regarding the “willingness to engage with and reflect on language-related issues” clearly permeates. Jane showed this characteristic of TLA throughout all the data collected. This characteristic was a key element in her pre-tutoring questionnaire and her intention for participating in the tutoring.

Second, the desire of self-improvement is obvious. Jane writes, in the post-tutoring questionnaire, that she noticed short explanations worked best, and she used more useful and effective strategies to help the students. For example, when explaining in English why certain words double their letter in English (*e.g.* get – getting), she used the consonant-vowel-consonant (CVC) rule, she limited her explanations, saying it generally works for short words as; as she writes, she wanted to keep things as simple as possible. These examples demonstrate that Jane had the desire of self-improvement. Taking the time for self-improvement gave Jane a better understanding of English.

Third, for the characteristic “awareness of her own key role in input for language”, Jane clearly understood this. From the start of the tutoring, clearly Jane constantly strived to improve her pronunciation and to choose her words.

Fourth, awareness of learners’ potential difficulties appeared as a beacon to guide Jane in her sessions with the student. She continually verified if her student understood the newspaper articles they read during the sessions. She took time to review the article and explain the words the student did not understand, using various strategies.

As for her love of language, Jane communicated this abundantly with her student from the start and throughout every tutoring session. Jane used her love of reading articles in English as a springboard for each tutoring session. These articles covered a variety of topics that would engage her student in lengthy conversations.

4.4.3. Knowledge and Mastery of the English Language

In summary, after analyzing all the data, I noticed at different points during the tutoring that Jane had better knowledge and mastery of the English language. For example, when asked, in the post-tutoring questionnaire, if a friend asked her for advice about becoming a tutor, what would she say? Her answer was “yes” because tutors improve their own knowledge of the language as different questions and situations arise during the semester. This is evidenced by applying the feedback received, such as how to write “Mr.” and “Mrs.” Moreover, when asked if this tutoring experience should be part of the ESL teacher-training program, Jane writes that tutors learn more about the English language as they accompany their students. Working with her student, using discussion topics and the student’s questions, Jane writes she improved her knowledge of more complex or subject-specific words; for example, she learned the pronunciation of the words such as “salmon” and “tracheostomy”. An important observation made by Jane is that the one-on-one tutoring format will bring to the surface students’ lack of confidence in their English skills because tutors must confront their own abilities and their own weaknesses.

**Interpretation of Results and
Conclusion**

The case study has been a common research strategy in education (Yin, 2014). Moreover, as a research strategy, the case study is used to contribute to our knowledge of individual and organizational related phenomena (Yin, 2014). In this section, I interpret the results of this case study and offer a conclusion. First, as recommended by Stake (1995), I summarize what is understood about the case. Then, I try to connect this case to other similar research. Second, I determine the some limits to the research. Within the limits of the research, I explicate two biases concerning the data. Third, I offer recommendations for future research regarding ESL teacher-training programs. To conclude, I determine if the objective of the research has been attained, namely how tutoring impacts future ESL teachers' knowledge and mastery of English.

5.1. Summary of the Research

First, the research identified some problems regarding teacher qualifications within the teacher-training program in Quebec (Gouvernement du Québec, 2001) and the importance of ESL teachers' mastery of PC 1 and PC 2, particularly in light of ESL teachers being the primary models of the English language for students. I then explained the NS and NNS English teacher dichotomy, and that English is an L2 or L3 for 80 percent of English teachers (Braine, 1999). This led me to defining what NS and NNS

English teachers were. I established that language competence is the only variable where a NNS English teacher is inevitably handicapped (Medgyes, 1992). I examined the training program for future ESL teachers at universities and suggested, supported by research (Cullen, 1994), to include a language improvement component such as tutoring to help with language competence. Lastly, I formulated a research question in regards to the problem and determined its objective.

Second, for my conceptual framework, a number of concepts were considered. I defined and described communicative competence and its sub-competencies (Canale & Swain, 1980; Canale, 1983). I determined that there were too many variables in communicative competence to use as a theoretical framework for this research. I briefly explained performance and communicative competence. I then defined and explained the theoretical framework for declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge (Pasternak & Bailey, 2004), where procedural knowledge did not suit this research because it used elements such as lesson planning within its definition and was not part of what was researched. However, declarative knowledge helps understand language awareness and TLA. Andrews and McNeill (2005) established five characteristics of TLA that I studied for this research. Then, I defined and characterized tutoring as a means of support for TLA. I completed the conceptual framework by explaining the conceptual map to verify the research objective.

Third, I detailed the method for this research. I provided the research design. I explained the context of the study. With the context, I conveyed the recruitment method,

the participants, and the tutoring context. I then showed how each piece of evidence for the data was collected. I explained the quality of the research design with regards to reliability and validity.

For the validity of the research design, I illustrated how the evidence collected would help analyze the six characteristics of tutoring and the five characteristics of TLA. Next, I demonstrated my role as a case study researcher. Lastly, the method used to analyze the data collected was specified.

Fourth, I analyzed and interpreted all the results. To begin, the data regarding the tutoring were analyzed, then the data regarding TLA. These analyses allowed me to study the results for each. In the end, I highlighted the results and how they relate to the tutor's improvement of English language knowledge and mastery.

5.1.1. Connection to Similar Research

Andrews and McNeill (2005) established characteristics of TLA of 'Good Language Teachers'. These characteristics concluded their research, and they were determined by their results examining "three highly experienced graduate non-native speaker teachers of [English for speakers of other languages]" (p. 162). The participant for this case study was an undergraduate student with little teaching experience. Yet, she demonstrated a high-level of TLA, making her a good language teacher.

Barratt (2010) suggests strategies to prepare NS and NNS future English teachers. One of the 30 strategies the author offers is improving metalinguistic knowledge through

tutoring. She showcases some examples to explain how to apply this strategy in teacher-training programs, but no research is done to support this strategy. This research demonstrates the application of tutoring as support for TLA.

Gazaille's (2010) aimed at studying the impacts of distance tutoring on ESL student-teachers' learning and the application of theory and practice in teacher education. The author reported learning by grouping and contrasting it with the 12 core PC of the MÉES orientations. The results suggested the integration of a number of the PC, without specifically focusing on PC 1 and PC 2. The focus of this case study was to research how tutoring helps with knowledge and mastery of English, which correspond to PC 1 and PC 2.

5.2. Limits

This section explains some limits concerning this research. Some are taken from the researcher's observations. Next, I establish two biases in research within the case study: sampling and social desirability. Also, I consider how this case study may be expanded upon, when explaining some of the observations from the researcher.

One of the researcher's observations examines future ESL teachers and their participation to the online tutoring elective course. The whole idea behind tutoring was to offer a means of support to improve knowledge and mastery of the English language for students in the teaching ESL program. Yet, those who may have needed this support the most did not take advantage of it. Notably, it was a struggle to find three students in

approximately one hundred students in the teaching ESL program to partake in the tutoring as an elective course. Even though promotion of this course was done, among others, by presenting it in class, numerous emails, a Facebook page, word of mouth, talking to many students about the benefits, very few students participated. Moreover, all the students who had participated in the first course lauded the benefits of tutoring in teacher-training. Evermore, when asked if tutoring should be part of the teaching ESL program, the answer was a resounding “yes” from all the participants.

Often, within the teaching ESL program, students evaluate each other informally on their English skills and situate themselves in relation to others. Thus, the lack of participation of future ESL teachers in an elective course to help them may stem from a fear of being judged on their own knowledge and mastery of the English language. Jane’s volunteer participation in the tutoring and in this research demonstrated clearly her willingness to engage with and reflect on language-related issues. Consequently, more research would be required to study if this willingness applies to all future ESL teachers. However, Jane claimed: “In the choice of elective courses, this is one of the most relevant to our field.” Correspondingly, Jane enjoyed the tutoring experience so much that she would have done it again.

Important to note, the fact that tutors can record themselves using this online platform can have a positive outcome only if they take time to listen to the recording, and then notice elements that work, elements to modify, and elements to stop. This requires willingness to engage with and reflect on language-related issues. In this case, Jane seems

willing to reflect on language-related issues. Thus, recording herself did have a positive outcome on Jane.

Many results came from analyzing the perceptions of the participant. For example, when Jane mentions her difficulty with hesitations in speaking, this is not corroborated by the researcher or by a formal assessment.

Due to the low number of participants, the results of this study cannot be generalized. However, it is possible that other universities in Quebec face similar challenges with regards to future ESL teachers' mastery and knowledge of English. Thus, the improvements Jane made concerning TLA, with the support of tutoring, could apply to many pre-service and in-service ESL teachers.

5.3.1. Biases in Research

Sampling. Bhattacharjee (2012) defines sampling as the process of selecting a “sample” of a population of interest for purposes of making observations. Generally, social science research infers patterns of behaviour in a specific population. “It is extremely important to choose a sample that is truly representative of the population so that the inferences derived from the sample can be generalized back to the population of interest” (Bhattacharjee, 2012, p. 8).

A non-probability sampling, called convenience sampling, was used, as the participant studied at the university where the study was done, and she was readily available. However, this type of sampling may not be truly representative of the general

population of students at university in a French milieu in Quebec. Moreover, Jane was a volunteer who was extremely interested in improving her knowledge of English and her teaching skills. She was also able to recognize a need to improve her knowledge of English, even though her knowledge of English was very good according to the few mistakes she made in the pre-tutoring questionnaire.

Social desirability. Participants may tend to avoid negative opinions or embarrassing comments about themselves may not provide truthful responses in order to portray themselves in a better light; this is called social desirability (Bhattacharjee, 2014).

The research question focuses on knowledge and mastery of English. Such a spotlight on the core of English teaching being the English language as content and instrument may cause the participant to portray herself in a socially desirable manner. Thus, there would be a social desirability bias. However, it must be considered that the participant partook voluntarily with no compensation. Moreover, the participant kept a weekly journal, completed two questionnaires, conducted over 13 hours of recorded sessions, and the researcher interviewed the participant for 40 minutes. Nevertheless, personal gain for the participant took the form of developing her knowledge and mastery of English and of applying her knowledge of teaching in a real-life situation. Taking into account all the time the participant took, disregarding her personal gains, it would seem very improbable that there be a desirability bias examining all the evidence collected.

Another consideration for social desirability concerns how the participant answered the questions about the tutoring and her weaknesses. From the hand-written

pre-tutoring questionnaire and post-tutoring questionnaire, it would seem likely that she answered these questions truthfully. Moreover, the interview not having preset questions and the researcher not providing details about the interview, the likelihood of social desirability about the participant's answers is diminished. Lastly, the participant had no reason to answer in a desirable way, as there was no monetary or any other gains save for the fact that she increased her TLA.

5.3. Recommendations for Future Research

“Qualitative methods are intended to convey to policy makers the experiences of individuals, groups, and organisations, who may be affected by policies” (Chantler & Durand, 2014, p. 44). Within qualitative methods, a single-case study may be used as a pilot case for further research (Yin, 2014). The author adds: “Such a study even can help to refocus future investigations in an entire field” (2014, p. 51).

Consequently, Yin (2014) writes that “a single case can represent a significant contribution to knowledge and theory building by confirming, challenging, or extending the theory” (p. 51), such as this single case, which details the impacts of online tutoring. In fact, reporting this case study is an opportunity to make a significant contribution to ESL teaching programs and to share this contribution with others. Similarly, “greater emphasis must be placed not only on a better integration between theoretical and practical courses, but also between practical courses and the actual conditions in which future teachers will practise their profession” (Gouvernement du Québec, 2001, p. 24). “Tutoring cannot be more practical than that!” (Jane).

From another observation, it was noted how tutoring benefits tutors with regards to other teaching skills. Not only is tutoring beneficial in improving knowledge and mastery of English, but also helps tutors with other teaching skills. This aspect would require further research, even though Gazaille (2010) covered a number of those other teaching skills. For example, the TLA characteristic of willingness to engage with and reflect on language-related issues could be researched in line with PC 10 of the MÉES orientations: “To engage in professional development individually and with others” (Gouvernement du Québec, 2001, p. 143).

Lastly, when asked if tutoring should be part of the ESL teacher-training program, Jane answered “yes”. She writes that tutoring “offers students a great opportunity outside of the practica to put into practice what we have learned in class, test teaching strategies, work on our ways of explaining notions, and develop our own teaching style.” The tutoring offered to college students, as was this case, is also an excellent way of discovering a different clientele from that seen in the program, which focuses mainly on primary and high school students.

5.4. Conclusion

When it comes to teaching in Quebec, all future teachers of all subjects must pass a French competency test before getting their teaching licence. Surprisingly, regarding English as a second language teaching, no assessment is needed to determine if someone has the English competence. Assuredly, a certain number of graduate ESL teachers do

not master PC 1 and PC 2 to the extent expected by the orientations of the MÉES; as 12 various professional competencies are evaluated, not only two.

Barratt (2010) states, “A critical element in effecting change is demonstrating that change is desirable” (p. 181). Certainly, if universities offered a language improvement component, in that vein, the results show that focusing on TLA in online tutoring appears as a promising tool to help ESL teacher’s knowledge and mastery of English. In the end, students in primary and high schools would become the main beneficiaries because they may also have better knowledge and mastery in English.

To conclude, the objective of the research was verified. I analyzed TLA by using online tutoring as a means of for future ESL teachers to help with the mastery and knowledge of English. For instance, wanting to constantly improve her pronunciation demonstrates that Jane understood her key role as input for English. This is a key aspect of the research because, as mentioned, ESL teachers are assets as linguistic and cultural models (Gouvernement du Québec, 2001). More importantly, the fact that Jane writes in the pre-tutoring questionnaire that hesitations in formulating a verbal response was more difficult for her, and manifestly she improved this aspect. Thus, by studying the effects of tutoring on future ESL teachers’ knowledge and mastery of English, the findings may be shared with other French universities in Quebec facing similar challenges.

References

- Abraham, L. B., & Williams, L. (2009). The discussion forum as a component of a technology-enhanced integrated performance assessment. In L. B. Abraham & L. Williams (Eds.), *Electronic Discourse in Language Learning and Language Teaching* (pp. 319-343). Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Alderson, J. C., Clapham, C., & Steel, D. (1997). Metalinguistic knowledge, language aptitude and language proficiency. *Language Teaching Research*, 1(2), 93–121. doi:10.1177/136216889700100202
- Anderson, G. (1998). *Fundamentals of Educational Research*. London/Pennsylvania: Falmer Press.
- Andrews, S. (2001). The language awareness of the L2 teacher: Its impact upon pedagogical practice. *Language Awareness*, 10(2–3), 75–90. doi:10.1080/09658410108667027
- Andrews, S. (2007). Researching and developing teacher language awareness. In J. Cummins & C. Davison (Eds.), *International Handbook of English Language Teaching* (pp. 945–959). Boston, MA: Springer.
- Andrews, S., & McNeill, A. (2005). Knowledge about Language and the ‘good language teacher’. In N. Bartels (Ed.), *Applied Linguistics and Language Teacher Education* (Vol. 4, pp. 159–178). New York, NY: Springer.
- Arnold, N., & Ducate, L. (2006). Future Foreign Language Teachers’ Social and Cognitive Collaboration in an Online Environment. *Language, Learning & Technology*, 10(1), 42–46.
- Árva, V., & Medgyes, P. (2000). Native and non-native teachers in the classroom. *System*, 28(3), 355–372. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0346-251X(00)00017-8
- Bachman, L. F. (1990). *Fundamental Considerations in Language Testing*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

- Barratt, L. (2010). Strategies to prepare teachers equally for equity. In A. Mahboob (Ed.), *The NNEST Lens: Non Native English Speakers in TESOL* (pp.180-201). Newcastle upon Tyne, UK: Cambridge Scholars Pub.
- Baugh, A. C., & Cable, T. (2002). *A History of the English Language*: London, UK: Routledge.
- Belcher, D. D. (2006). English for specific purposes: Teaching to perceived needs and imagined futures in worlds of work, study, and everyday life. *TESOL quarterly*, 40(1), 133–156.
- Bhattacharjee, A. (2012). *Social Science Research: Principles, Methods, and Practices*. Tampa, FL: Scholar Commons.
- Bloomfield, L. (1933). *Language*. New York, NY: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.
- Braine, G. (1999). From the periphery to the center: One teacher's journey. In G. Braine (Ed.), *Non-native Educators in English Language Teaching* (pp. 15–28). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.
- Braine, G. (2005). A history of research on non-native speaker English teachers. In E. Llurda (Ed.), *Non-Native Language Teachers* (Vol. 5, pp. 13–23). New York, NY: Springer.
- Braine, G. (2010). *Nonnative Speaker English Teachers: Research, Pedagogy, and Professional Growth*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Brown, H. D. (2007). *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching* (5th ed.). White Plain, NY: Pearson Education.
- Byram, M. (2002). *Routledge Encyclopedia of Language Teaching and Learning*. London, UK: Routledge.
- Byrnes, H. (2002). Toward academic-level foreign language abilities: Reconsidering foundational assumptions, expanding pedagogical options. In B. L. Leaver & B. Shekhtman (Eds.), *Developing Professional-level Language Proficiency* (pp. 34–58). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Canagarajah, A. S. (1999). Interrogating the “native speaker fallacy”: Non-linguistic roots, non-pedagogical results. In G. Braine (Ed.), *Non-native Educators in English Language Teaching* (pp. 77–92). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics*, 1(1), 1–47.

- Canale, M. (1983). From communicative competence to communicative language pedagogy. In J. C. Richards & R. W. Schmidt (Eds.), *Language and Communication* (Vol. 1, pp. 2–28). London/New York: Routledge.
- Celce-Murcia, M., Brinton, D. M., & Goodwin, J. M. (1996). *Teaching Pronunciation: A Reference for Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Chambers, F. (1997). What do we mean by fluency? *System*, 25(4), 535–544. doi: [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0346-251X\(97\)00046-8](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0346-251X(97)00046-8)
- Chantler, T., & Durand, M. A. (2014). *Principles of Social Research*. Maidenhead,: McGraw-Hill Education.
- Chapelle, C. A., & Duff, P. A. (2003). Some guidelines for conducting quantitative and qualitative research in TESOL. *TESOL Quarterly*, 37(1), 157–178. doi: 10.2307/3588471
- Cheshire, J. (1991). *English Around the World: Sociolinguistic Perspectives*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Cook, V. (1999). Going beyond the native speaker in language teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, 33(2), 185–209. doi:10.2307/3587717
- Cronin, K. (1976). Keep Pushin [Recorded by REO Speedwagon]. On R.E.O. [CD]. Los Angeles, CA: Epic Records.
- Cruickshank, K., Newell, S., & Cole, S. (2003). Meeting English language needs in teacher education: A flexible support model for non-English speaking background students. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 31(3), 239–247.
- Crystal, D. (2003). *English as a Global Language*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Cullen, R. (1994). Incorporating a language improvement component in teacher training programmes. *Elt Journal*, 48(2), 162–172.
- Cullen, R. (2002). The use of lesson transcripts for developing teachers' classroom language. In H. R. Trappes-Lomax & G. Ferguson (Eds.), *Language in Language Teacher Education* (pp. 219–235). Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Davies, A. (2001). What second language learners can tell us about the native speaker. In R. L. Cooper, E. Shohamy, & J. Walters (Eds.), *New Perspectives and Issues in*

- Educational Language Policy* (pp. 91–112). Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Davies, A. (2003). *The Native Speaker : Myth and Reality*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Derivry-Plard, M. (2011). Enseignants «natifs/non natifs » : vers une professionnalité des enseignants de langue (s). In M. Lin-Zucker, E. Suzuki, N. Takahashi, & P. Martinez (Eds.), *Compétences d'enseignant à l'épreuve des profils d'apprenant : Vers une ingénierie de formation* (pp. 35-46). Paris, France: Éditions des archives contemporaines.
- Donmall, B. G. (1985). *Language Awareness. National Congress on Languages in Education Assembly (4th, York, England, July 1984). NCLE Papers and Reports*. ERIC. Retrieved December 15, 2017.
- Edge, J. (1988). Natives, speakers, and models. *JALT Journal*, 9(2), 153–157.
- Eisenclas, S. A. (2011). On-line interactions as a resource to raise pragmatic awareness. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 43(1), 51–61.
- Ellis, R. (1994). *The Study of Second Language Acquisition*: Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (2004). The definition and measurement of L2 explicit knowledge. *Language Learning*, 54(2), 227–275. doi:10.1111/j.1467-9922.2004.00255.x
- Ellis, R. R. (2012). *Language Teaching Research and Pedagogy*. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.
- Faez, F. (2011). Reconceptualizing the native/nonnative speaker dichotomy. *Journal of Language, Identity & Education*, 10(4), 231–249. doi:10.1080/15348458.2011.598127
- Ferguson, C. A. (1992). Forward. In B. B. Kachru (Ed.), *The Other Tongue: English across the Cultures* (pp. xiii-xvii). Urbana, IL: University of Illinois Press.
- Francis, N. (2012). *Bilingual Competence and Bilingual Proficiency in Child Development*. Massachusetts, MA: MIT Press.
- Freeman, D. (1989). Teacher training, development, and decision making: A model of teaching and related strategies for language teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly*, 23(1), 27–45. doi:10.2307/3587506
- Frost, D. (1999). *Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages in the Primary School*. London, UK: Falmer Press.

- Gan, Z. (2012). Understanding L2 speaking problems: Implications for ESL curriculum development in a teacher training institution in Hong Kong. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 37(1), 43–59. doi: 10.14221/ajte.2012v37n1.4
- Gazaille, M. (2011). Tutorat à distance et développement des compétences professionnelles des futurs enseignants d'anglais langue seconde. *Questions Vives : Recherches en Éducation* 7(14), 37-54. doi:10.4000/questionsvives.509
- Ghasemboland, F., & Hashim, F. B. (2013). Teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their English language proficiency: A study of nonnative EFL teachers in selected language centers. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 103(0), 890–899. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.10.411
- Gillham, B. (2000). *Case Study Research Methods*. London, UK: Continuum.
- Grenfell, M., & Harris, V. (1999). *Modern Languages and Learning Strategies : In Theory and Practice*. London, UK: Routledge.
- Hammerly, H. (1991). *Fluency and Accuracy : Toward Balance in Language Teaching and Learning*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Hayes, D. (2009). Non-native English-speaking teachers, context and English language teaching. *System*, 37(1), 1–11. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2008.06.001
- Hrastinski, S. (2008). Asynchronous and synchronous e-learning. *Educause quarterly*, 31(4), 51–55.
- Hymes, D. (1972). On communicative competence. In Pride, J.B. & Holmes, J. (Ed.), *Sociolinguistics: Selected Readings*. (pp. 269–293). Harmondsworth, U.K.: Penguin.
- Johnson, M. (2004). *A Philosophy of Second Language Acquisition*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.
- Kachru, B. B. (1986). *The alchemy of English: The Spread, Functions, and Models of Non-native Englishes*. Champaign: IL: University of Illinois Press.
- Kamhi-Stein, L. D. (1999). Preparing non-native professionals in TESOL: Implications for teacher education programs. In G. Braine (Ed.), *Non-native Educators in English Language Teaching*. (pp. 145–158). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Krashen, S. (1982). *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition*. Elmsford, NY: Pergamon.
- Krashen, S. D. (1985). *The Input Hypothesis: Issues and Implications*. Toronto, ON: Addison-Wesley Longman Ltd.

- Lacroix, S. (2002). *To Speak or Not to Speak English: Teachers' Use of Oral English and Their Usage Perception (at the CSRN)*. (Master of Education Research Report), University du Québec en Abitibi-Témiscamingue, Abitibi-Témiscamingue.
- Lantolf, J. P. (2006). Sociocultural theory and L2: State of the art. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 28(1), 67–109. doi:10.1017/S0272263106060037
- Lavender, S. (2002). Towards a framework for language improvement within short in-service teacher development programmes. In H. R. Trappes-Lomax & G. Ferguson (Eds.). *Language in Language Teacher Education*. (pp. 237–250). Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Leaver, B. L., & Shekhtman, B. (2002). *Developing professional-level language proficiency*. Cambridge, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Lebrun, M., & Préfontaine, C. (1999). La langue de l'enseignant : défi social et préoccupations institutionnelles. *Terminogramme, Bulletin de recherche et d'information en aménagement linguistique et en terminologie*, 91(92), 65-90.
- Léger, J.-M. (16 March 2001). Langue de bois. *Journal de Montréal*.
- Lightbown, P. M., & Spada, N. (2006). *How Languages Are Learned*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Liu, D. (1999). Training non-native TESOL students: Challenges for TESOL teacher education in the west. In G. Braine (Ed.), *Non-native Educators in English Language Teaching* (pp. 197–210). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Liu, J. (1999). From their own perspectives: The impact of non-native ESL professionals on their students. In G. Braine (Ed.), *Non-native Educators in English Language Teaching* (pp. 159–176). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Llurda, E. (2000). On competence, proficiency, and communicative language ability. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 10(1), 85–96. doi:10.1111/j.1473-4192.2000.tb00141.x
- Llurda, E. (2004). Non-native-speaker teachers and English as an international language. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 14(3), 314–323.
- Llurda, E. (2005). *Non-Native Language Teachers: Perceptions, Challenges and Contributions to the Profession*. New York, NY: Springer.
- Mahboob, A. (2005). Beyond the native speaker in TESOL. *Culture, context, & communication*, 60–93.

- Mann, S. (2005). The language teacher's development. *Language Teaching*, 38(03), 103–118. doi: 10.1017/S0261444805002867
- Medgyes, P. (1992). Native or non-native: who's worth more? *Elt Journal*, 46(4), 340–349.
- Medgyes, P. (1999). Language Training: A Neglected Area in Teacher Education. In G. Braine (Ed.), *Non-native educators in English language teaching* (pp. 177–195). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Michael, E. B., & Gollan, T. H. (2005). Being and becoming bilingual: Individual differences and consequences for language production. In J. F. Kroll & A. M. B. d. Groot (Eds.), *Handbook of Bilingualism : Psycholinguistic Approaches* (pp. 389–404). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Ministère de l'éducation du Québec. (1977). *L'enseignement primaire et secondaire au Québec : livre vert*. Québec, QC: Gouvernement du Québec.
- Ministère de l'éducation du Québec. (1996a). *Les états généraux sur l'éducation : 1995-1996 : exposé de la situation* (2^e éd.). Québec, QC: Gouvernement du Québec.
- Ministère de l'éducation du Québec. (1996b). *Les états généraux sur l'éducation : 1995-1996 : rénover notre système d'éducation : dix chantiers prioritaires : rapport final de la Commission des états généraux sur l'éducation*. (2550305744). Québec, QC: Gouvernement du Québec.
- Ministère de l'éducation, des loisirs et du sport. (2001). *Programme de formation de l'école québécoise éducation préscolaire, enseignement primaire : version approuvée*. Québec, QC: Gouvernement du Québec.
- Ministère de l'éducation, des loisirs et du sport. (2010). *Progression of Learning At the Secondary Level*. Québec, QC: Gouvernement du Québec.
- Morita, N. (2000). Discourse socialization through oral classroom activities in a TESL graduate program. *TESOL Quarterly*, 34(2), 279–310.
- Mosley, M., & Zoch, M. (2012). Tools that come from within: Learning to teach in a cross-cultural adult literacy practicum. *Teaching & Teacher Education*, 28(1), 66–77. doi:10.1016/j.tate.2011.09.003
- Mousavi, E. S. (2007). Exploring 'teacher stress' in non-native and native teachers of EFL. *Elted*, 10(Winter), 33–41.

- Murdoch, G. (1994). Language development provision in teacher training curricula. *Elt Journal*, 48(3), 253–265.
- Obiakor, F. E., Bakken, J. P., & Rotatori, A. F. (2010). *Current Issues and Trends in Special Education: Research, Technology, and Teacher Preparation*. Bingley, UK: Emerald Group Publishing.
- Pagé, Michel, & Olivier, Charles-Étienne. (2012). *Importance et priorité du français pour la population québécoise : une étude exploratoire*. Retrieved from Québec: <http://www.cslf.gouv.qc.ca/publications/pubf317/pubf317.pdf>
- Paikeday, T. M. (1985). May I Kill the Native Speaker? *TESOL Quarterly*, 19(2), 390–395. doi:10.2307/3586840
- Pasternak, M., & Bailey, K. M. (2004). Preparing nonnative and native English-speaking teachers: Issues of professionalism and proficiency. In L. D. Kamhi-Stein (Ed.), *Learning and Teaching from Experience: Perspectives on Nonnative English-speaking Professionals* (pp. 155–175). Ann Arbor, MI: The University of Michigan Press.
- Prodromou, L. (2008). *English as a Lingua Franca: A Corpus-based Analysis*. London, UK: Continuum.
- Provost, M. A., Alain, M., Leroux, Y., & Lussier, Y. (2016). *Normes de présentation d'un travail de recherche* (5^e éd.). Trois-Rivières, QC: Les Éditions SMG.
- Québec (Province). Assemblée nationale. Législature (31e, 2e session: 1977). (1977). *Projet de loi no 101: charte de la langue française*. Éditeur officiel du Québec.
- Rampton, M. B. H. (1990). Displacing the 'native speaker': Expertise, affiliation, and inheritance. *Elt Journal*, 44(2), 97–101.
- Reis, D. S. (2011). "I'm not alone". Empowering non-native English-speaking teachers to challenge the native speaker myth. In P. R. Golombek & K. E. Johnson (Eds.), *Research on Second Language Teacher Education: A Sociocultural Perspective on Professional Development* (pp. 31–49). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Reves, T., & Medgyes, P. (1994). The non-native English speaking EFL/ESL teacher's self-image: An international survey. *System*, 22(3), 353–367.
- Richards, J. C. (2010). Competence and performance in language teaching. *RELC Journal*, 41(2), 101–122.

- Richards, J. C., & Schmidt, R. W. (2013). *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics* (4th ed.). London, UK: Routledge.
- Salkind, N. J. (2010). *Encyclopedia of Research Design*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Samimy, K. K., & Brutt-Griffler, J. (1999). To be a native or non-native speaker: Perceptions of “non-native” students in a graduate TESOL program. In G. Braine (Ed.), *Non-native Educators in English Language Teaching* (pp. 127–144). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Sanders, W. L., & Horn, S. P. (1998). Research findings from the Tennessee Value-Added Assessment System (TVAAS) database: Implications for educational evaluation and research. *Journal of Personnel Evaluation in Education*, 12(3), 247–256.
- Savignon, S. J. (1991). Communicative language teaching: State of the art. *TESOL Quarterly*, 25(2), 261–277. doi:10.2307/3587463
- Saville-Troike, M. (2012). *Introducing Second Language Acquisition*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Shavelson, R. J., & Towne, L. (2002). *Scientific Research in Education*. Washington, DC: National Academies Press.
- Shin, S. J. (2006). Learning to teach writing through tutoring and journal writing. *Teachers and Teaching*, 12(3), 325–345. doi:10.1080/13450600500467621
- Stake, R. E. (1995). *The Art of Case Study Research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Svetgoff, H. E. (2007). *No ESL teacher left behind: An examination of language attitudes and their repercussions on ESL teacher qualifications*. (1443174 M.A.), Tarleton State University, Ann Arbor, MI. ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Full Text database.
- Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: Some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. *Input in Second Language Acquisition*, 15, 165–179.
- Thornbury, S. (1997). *About Language: Tasks for Teachers of English*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Tomlinson, B. (2003). Developing materials to develop yourself. *Humanising Language Teaching*, 5(4).

- Trappes-Lomax, H. R., & Ferguson, G. (2002). *Language in Language Teacher Education*. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- VanPatten, B., & Williams, J. (2007). *Theories in Second Language Acquisition: An Introduction*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Vygotsky, L. (1978). Interaction between learning and development. *Readings on the Development of Children*, 23(3), 34–41.
- Watson Todd, R., & Pojanapunya, P. (2009). Implicit attitudes towards native and non-native speaker teachers. *System*, 37(1), 23–33.
- Weinert, R., Basterrechea, M., & del Pilar Gracia Mayo, M. (2013). Investigating L2 spoken syntax: A Usage-based perspective. In M. María del Pilar García Mayo, M. G. M. Junkal, & M. M. Adrián (Eds.), *Contemporary Approaches to Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 153–156). Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Willis, J. (2008). *Qualitative Research Methods in Education and Educational Technology*. Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing.
- Wright, T. (2002). Doing language awareness: Issues for language study in language teacher education. In H. R. Trappes-Lomax & G. Ferguson (Eds.), *Language in Language Teacher Education* (pp. 113–130). Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Yin, R. K. (2014). *Case Study Research: Design and Methods* (5th ed.). Los Angeles, CA: SAGE.
- Association for Language Awareness (ALA). Retrieved November 13, 2017, from: http://www.languageawareness.org/?page_id=48
- Fédération des commissions scolaires du Québec (FCSQ). Retrieved March 3, 2018 from: <http://fcsq.qc.ca/commissions-scolaires/recherche-par-region-et-code-postal/fiche-dune-commission-scolaire>
- Tutoring [Def. 1 & 2]. (n.d.). In *Collins Dictionary Online*. Retrieved November 13, 2017, from: <https://www.collinsdictionary.com/dictionary/english/tutoring>

Appendix A
Pre-tutoring Questions

Instructions :

- Merci de prendre le temps de répondre à ce questionnaire.
- Il n'y a pas de bonnes ou de mauvaises réponses et que nous voulons simplement savoir ce que vous pensez.
- Toutes les données seront traitées de façon confidentielle et anonyme.
- Votre participation est volontaire.

Données sociodémographiques

Nom : _____ Date : _____

Sexe: [] H [] F Age: _____ ans

L'anglais est ma langue première [] seconde [] tierce []

Dans quel programme étudiez-vous ?

Depuis combien de temps ? [] 1 an [] 2 ans [] 3 ans [] 4 ans

Enseignez-vous présentement ou avez-vous déjà enseigné l'anglais, langue seconde ?

Oui [] Non []

[] Temps plein [] Temps partiel [] Suppléance
(occasionnel/contrat)

Si oui, veuillez indiquer : [] Primaire Niveau(x) : _____
[] Secondaire Niveau(x) : _____
Autre : _____

1. Please describe in which context you learned English.
2. Before starting university, did you take steps to improve your English skills?
[] Yes [] No If yes, which ones?
3. Are you taking measure to improve your English skills at the moment?
[] Yes [] No If yes, which ones?
4. According to you, what are your greatest strength with regards to the English language?

5. In your opinion, what are the aspects of the English language that are more difficult for you?

6. Why did you choose to take part in the tutoring?

7. Do you believe that tutoring can help you with regards to the English language?

Yes

No

If yes, how?

8. Could you please write a 3-paragraph text (10–15 lines)

First paragraph: Explain a bit your past experience in learning English.

Second paragraph: Explain what motivates you to study in your field.

Third paragraph: Explain some of your career expectations, hopes, and dream.

Appendix B
Post-tutoring Questions

Instructions :

- Merci de prendre le temps de répondre à ce questionnaire.
- Il n'y a pas de bonnes ou de mauvaises réponses et que nous voulons simplement savoir ce que vous pensez.
- Toutes les données seront traitées de façon confidentielle et anonyme.
- Votre participation est volontaire.

Données sociodémographiques

Nom : _____ Date : _____
Sexe: [] H [] F Age: _____ ans

Please answer the following questions in English.

1. During the tutoring, describe a positive moment where you were proud of you work as an English, second language (ESL) tutor.
2. In general, what will you retain or gain from your experience as a tutor? What are some of the things you learned? What skills have you developed?
3. More specifically with regards to your English language skills, please describe the aspects of English you believe are the ones you improved the most.
4. If a friend asked you for advice about becoming a tutor, what would you say?

[] Yes [] No Why?

5. Looking at some of the aspects from your tutoring experience, do you think it should be part of the ESL teacher-training program?

[] Yes [] No Why?

6. Could you please write a 3-paragraph text (10–15 lines)

First paragraph: Explain a bit your tutoring experience

Second paragraph: Explain how your tutoring experience will affect your way of seeing the teaching profession.

Third paragraph: Explain specifically how your tutoring will change your way of teaching ESL.