

INTERNATIONAL TEACHING ASSISTANTS' PROFESSIONAL IDENTITY
DEVELOPMENT AT A US UNIVERSITY: A MULTIPLE
CASE STUDY PERSPECTIVE

by

HAO WANG

MIGUEL MANTERO, COMMITTEE CHAIR
JANIE HUBBARD
DIANE CARVER SEKERES
ALAN WEBB
BEDRETTIN YAZAN

A DISSERTATION

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the
Department of Curriculum and Instruction
in the Graduate School of
The University of Alabama

TUSCALOOSA, ALABAMA

2016

Copyright Hao Wang 2016
ALL RIGHTS RESERVED

ABSTRACT

Informed by Critical Theory and Poststructuralist Theory and the intersections of agency, power, ideology, discourse, capital, and language, this study investigates how three ITAs construct their professional identities as instructors at a U.S. university. To gain an in-depth understanding of ITAs' professional identities development, the researcher uses a qualitative approach with a multi-case study design to examine various data and variables including a) undergraduates' feedback to ITAs' instruction, b) ITAs' English language use in academic settings and its influence on their teaching, and c) the role of ITAs' supervisors on their professional practice. Through narrative analysis, the researcher analyzes data from interviews, classroom observations, and research journals. Findings suggest that both course evaluations and ITAs' interactions with supervisors and colleagues influence their professional identity formation. Additionally, the ITAs' English language use in academic settings reflects their desire of becoming native English speakers for an audience of mostly US undergraduates.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

First of all, I would like to thank my committee chair, Dr. Miguel Mantero for your guidance, encouragement, and support throughout my doctoral study. Thank you Dr. Bedrettin Yazan for introducing me to the research communities of second language acquisition and teaching and providing me critical feedback on my work. Thank you Dr. Janie Hubbard for your expertise and advice when I feel the tremendous burden during the dissertation study process and earlier stages in the doctoral program. My gratitude also goes to Dr. Diane Sekeres for giving me opportunities to grow as a scholar and enriching my knowledge and understanding of local cultural artifact. Thank you to Dr. Webb for assistance whenever I have queries about research methodologies.

In addition, my colleagues in Graves Hall 227 and friends outside of College of Education have made this journey less intimidating. Thus I would like to thank all graduate students who work in Graves Hall 227 for their encouragement and support. I would also like to thank Yan Zhao, Corey Kline, Kelvin Kline, and Toure Pruitt for their kindness and generosity.

I want to thank my wife Li Zhou for her love, ongoing support, and understanding during my doctoral study. I also want to thank my parents who provided me resources and educational opportunities.

CONTENTS

ABSTRACT.....	ii
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	iii
LIST OF TABLES	ix
LIST OF FIGURES	x
I. INTRODUCTION	1
Introduction to the Study	1
Statement of the Problem.....	3
Purpose of the Study	4
Limitations of the Study.....	5
Theoretical Assumptions	6
Language and Poststructuralism	6
Language and Social Practice	7
Language and Identity.....	8
Significant Contributions of the Study	10
Definition of Terms.....	11
Researcher Positionality.....	11
Organization of the Study	12
II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE	14
Theoretical Framework.....	14
Critical Theory	15

Poststructuralist Theory	18
Language, Capital, and Identity	20
Agency and Power Relations	26
Standard Language Ideology and Native Speakerism	27
Discourse of Othering	29
ITA Professional Identity.....	31
ITA Professional Identity Development	33
ITAs’ Interaction With Students.....	35
ITAs’ English Language use in Academic Settings	37
ITAs’ Interaction With Supervisors.....	39
Summary of Chapter II	40
III. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY	41
Research Design.....	41
Defining the Case.....	42
Setting	43
Participants.....	45
Timeframe for the Study.....	47
Data Collection Methods	47
Interview	48
Classroom Observation.....	49
Research Journal	50
Triangulation.....	51
Trustworthiness.....	52

Data Collection Procedure	52
Gaining Access	52
Gaining Consent.....	53
Data Analysis	54
Narrative Analysis	54
Translation	56
Researcher Positionality.....	56
Summary of Chapter III	57
IV. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY	58
Introduction.....	59
Jun’s Biography	60
Jun’s Class	61
Kelly’s Biography.....	63
Kelly’s Class	64
Kong’s Biography.....	66
Kong’s Class	66
Findings for Research Question 1	68
Marginalized Status of Monotone English	68
Classroom Authority.....	71
Becoming a Perfect Teacher	75
Findings for Research Question 2.....	75
American TAs are Better Teachers.....	75
Research is Your Priority.....	77

Learning From Colleagues and Friends	79
Findings for Research Question 3	80
American TAs as Role Models	89
Accented English	83
Using Informal Language	86
V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS	89
Theoretical Framework	90
Methodology	91
Discussion of Research Question 1	92
Marginalized Status of Monotone English	92
Classroom Authority	95
Becoming a Perfect Teacher	97
Discussion of Research Question 2	97
American TAs are Better Teachers	97
Research is Your Priority	99
Learning From Colleagues and Friends	99
Discussion of Research Question 3	100
American TAs as Role Models	100
Accented English	102
Use of Informal English	103
Implications	104
Directions for Future Research	106
Conclusions	106

REFERENCES	108
APPENDIXES	
A. ENROLLMENT DISTRIBUTION BY FOREIGN COUNTRY: FALL 2015	125
B. IRB APPROVAL.....	127
C. CLASSROOM OBSERVATION AND INTERVIEW SCHEDULE	129
D. INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEW QUESTIONS	132
E. INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEW QUESTIONS (CHINESE VERSION)	135
F. OBSERVATIONAL FIELD NOTE FORM.....	138
G. INFORMED CONSENT STATEMENTS	140
H. TRANSLATOR’S DECLARATION	148

LIST OF TABLES

1. Summary of Studies Reviewed	34
2. Guidelines Used in Placing New Students (International Teaching Assistant Program 2016).....	45
3. Summary of the Data Collection Methods	51
4. Jun’s Class Diagram.....	62
5. Kelly’s Class Diagram.....	65
6. Kong’s Class Diagram.....	68

LIST OF FIGURES

1. Conceptualization of ITA Professional Identity.....	33
--	----

I

INTRODUCTION

Introduction to the Study

In recent years, the number of international graduate students enrolled in US colleges and universities has grown rapidly, particularly for those who come from Asian countries (Lee, 2010; Waters, 2005). Based on the report from The Institute of International Education (2014), the number of international students studying in the US was 886,052 in the 2013/14 academic year, which is an 8% increase from the previous year. One of the main reasons for the increasing presence of international students on US campuses is the rising middle class in those booming countries and their desire to attain social and cultural capital in prestigious universities in English speaking countries (Finch & Kim, 2012). While some international students depend on their families to fund their tuition and fees, many of them are awarded scholarships in the form of a teaching assistantship. This is the main reason for the growth of international teaching assistants (ITA) in US higher education institutions, particularly in areas such as natural sciences and engineering. These ITAs typically are assigned positions that require them to teach introductory courses, grade papers, serve as laboratory assistants, and lead recitation or discussion sessions (Plakans, 1997). Expanding the number of ITAs is valuable for the internationalization of US universities and American students' intercultural education since ITAs can not only bring financial benefit to institutions but also better prepare American students for their future intercultural communication (Lee & Rice, 2007). Additionally, research (Chellaraj, Maskus, & Mattoo, 2005) using systematic econometric analysis finds that international students and skilled

immigrants in the US contribute positively to overall technological and economic advancement; this finding is supported by more recent discussions on how ITAs benefit the US (Jia & Bergerson, 2008; Williams, 2011).

Despite the financial and professional benefits of teaching in US institutions, many ITAs' campus lives are not without setbacks. For example, some students have encountered challenges in adjusting to the foreign environment as they find limited financial, familial, and psychological support in their individual contexts (Myles & Cheng, 2003). Furthermore, their foreign accents, English language proficiency, perceived foreign cultural awareness, and teaching styles have caused communication problems in their interactions with their students (Li, Mazer, & Ju, 2011; Villarreal, 2013) and their supervisors (Jenkins, 2000, 2011). While a significant body of research has pointed out the "foreign TA problems" (Bailey, 1983, p. 309), very few have investigated the relationship between these problems and ITAs' professional identity development in the context of US higher education institutions (Williams, 2007). In this dissertation, I addressed this research gap by critically examining ITAs' professional identity development at an American university. Specifically, this study explored ITAs' professional identity development from three aspects, namely ITAs' English language use in academic settings, undergraduate students' feedback, and ITAs' interactions with their supervisors. As student teachers and nonnative English speakers (NNES), ITAs' professional identity development comes from their classroom instruction where they enact their teaching philosophy, engage with students, and negotiate school policies. At the same time, their professional identity development is influenced by the contested label of NNES that privileges native over nonnative English speakers.

Statement of the Problem

Previous research in the area of ITAs' academic lives has pointed out that a large number of ITAs have complaints filed against them from students, mostly native English speakers, about ITAs' language proficiency, cultural awareness, lack of experience in teaching, and lack of content knowledge (Kang, Rubin, & Lindemann, 2014; Plakans, 1997; Rubin & Smith, 1990). For example, due to students' perception of ITAs' limited English language proficiency, classroom communication could be fraught with awkward moments when ITAs stumble on content delivery, mispronounce words, and present confusing lectures (Li et al., 2011). Because of their low communicative effectiveness and reluctance to seek help from others, ITAs' classroom environments are viewed as less effective in comparison to the ones lectured by their American counterparts (Meyer & Mao, 2014). Back in 1990, Rubin and Smith conducted a study of undergraduates' reactions to ITAs' teaching performance in relation to their ethnicity, command of content knowledge, and accented speech, and they found that students' ratings of ITAs' lectures tended to be largely influenced by ITAs' accent. More recently, Kang and Rubin (2009) carried out a similar study to examine native English speakers' (NES) ratings of nonnative English speakers' (NNES) listening comprehension, instructional quality, and perceived accent relative to standard English pronunciation, and found that NESs' ratings were susceptible to rater expectation and stereotype. Based on interviews and classroom observations, Arshavskaya's study (2015) of ITAs' experiences in the US classrooms suggested that ITAs encounter classroom management, instructional, linguistic, and cultural challenges. For example, one ITA in the study mentioned that undergraduates tend to prefer English slang such as "fishy" (p. 61) rather than more formal words in classrooms, making it difficult for some ITAs to understand. Moreover, another ITA participant commented on bodily movement: "in our

country, you can touch students. Here, you can't do this" (p. 62). In documenting ITAs' experiences in US classrooms via personal journal entries, Ates and Eslami (2012) found that ITAs are challenged linguistically, racially, and culturally. For instance, one of the ITAs in the study, Mei, had a complaint filed against her with the department head by her students due to demanding workload. Mei explained that her foreignness played a role in the students' filing a complaint without approaching her first. In another case, Ayda, an ITA from the Middle East, commented that as a Muslim, "I look non-white and definitely not fitting the mainstream. I will definitely get few bad stares of who I am; especially from ones who perceive people from where I am" (p. 544). Evidently, the *prima facie* of foreign ITA problems is linked not so much to their command of content knowledge but pedagogic approaches and sociopolitical and sociocultural forces at the macro level.

The preceding discussions suggest that factors including English language proficiency, race, and culture play into ITAs' declining popularity in US higher education institutions. In this study, ITAs' professional identities are examined in relation to the variables of ITAs' English language use in academic settings, undergraduates' feedback to ITAs' instruction, and ITAs' interactions with their supervisors.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to describe how international graduate students construct their professional identities as instructors once they become international teaching assistants at a US university. I examined ITAs' professional identity development as they negotiated (a) undergraduates' feedback, (b) the influence of English language proficiency, and (c) ITAs' interactions with their supervisors. Through Critical Theory and Poststructuralist Theory, I operationalized three case studies of three ITAs in the Department of Mathematics. Based on

data from interviews, classroom observations, and research journals, I looked for themes and patterns pertaining to the ITAs' professional identities development. With these purposes, the following research questions were posed:

How do international graduate students construct their professional identities at a US university once they become international teaching assistants (ITAs)?

a. What role does undergraduates' feedback play into ITAs' professional identity development?

b. In what ways do ITAs' interactions with their supervisors influence their sense of teaching practice?

c. To what extent does English language use in academic settings play a role in ITAs' professional identity development?

Limitations of the Study

There were several limitations to the current study. Data collection process in this study operationalized in a 9-week time frame. Methodologically, spending more time in the field would allow the researcher to further enrich the data, which adds depth to explaining the research questions. Additionally, the participant recruiting process was limited to the significant asymmetrical distribution of international students' countries of origin, thus impacting the diversity of participants. Thus, the number of participants would not be representative of all ITAs in US higher education. Theoretically, identity is a dynamic construct; hence, the production of ITA professional identity is a complex process that involves variables including language, ideology, discourse, race, gender, and social class. Thus, longitudinal studies that examine the intersections of these variables would illuminate ITA professional identity development further.

Theoretical Assumptions

Due to epistemological and paradigmatic variations, the constructs of identity and language could be conceptualized in different ways, which will then influence one's framing and interpretation of research. In the following sections, I delineate my poststructural understanding of language as social practice and how it is intertwined with identity.

Language and Poststructuralism

In the era of structuralism, Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure (1966) laid the foundational work in linguistics, suggesting that there are *langue* (language) and *parole* (speech) in linguistics. The former refers to the symbolic system through which people communicate with each other, whereas the latter is considered as the actual linguistic performance. Saussure further made the distinction between the signifier, which means the linguistic signs we use for descriptions, and the signified, which denotes the object one is describing. The relationship between signifiers and signifieds in the structural sense is invariant because only stable correlations between signifiers and signifieds are considered as valid. In response to the Saussurean structuralism, a group of French intellectuals who were known as poststructural theorists emerged in the 1960s, including Jacques Derrida, Michael Foucault, and Judith Butler (McNamara, 2012). Poststructuralism challenged the rigidity between signifiers and signified in structuralism and conceptualized research from a mixing and de-idealized perspective (Derrida, 1972). It is a critique of universal truth and applicability, a view of language as embodiment of power dynamics in society instead of neutral and apolitical discourse, a challenge to an essentialized understanding of self, and a belief that identity construction is a contested and negotiated process that takes place both consciously and unconsciously (Chao & Kuntz, 2013; Norton & Morgan, 2013; Rudolph, Selvi, & Yazan, 2015). From a poststructural perspective, I

sought to understand how privileges of the dominant groups were created and how power relations such as the construct of native speakerism (Holliday, 2006) played into ITAs' legitimacy and professional identity development.

Language and Social Practice

Language, seen as social practice (Pennycook, 2010), views relations of inequality as the focal point while placing syntax and lexicons at a less salient position (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997). From this perspective, the meaning making process is not understood as the mere production of utterances; instead, individuals choose certain ways of being based on different social contexts and interactions. It is a process in which their race, gender, nationality, religion, discourse, class, and culture are involved and scrutinized by broader social relations. Thus, desirable practices remain in the public sphere, whereas problematic ones are regulated. Language standardization is a case in point as it rewards those who would conform to a standardized language and ideology with symbolic capital (Bourdieu, 2011) and cause burdens for those who do not have access to schooling or simply feel more attached to their less standardized languages. Regulations of such have created issues of racialization of second language learners (Kubota & Lin, 2009; Motha, 2006), othering of ESL students (Lee, 2008; Sterzuk, 2015), marginality of nonnative English speaking teachers (Amin, 1997; Moussu & Llurda, 2008), and privileges of being European Americans (Holliday, 2008; Lippi-Green, 1994). In these issues, English language is transformed into properties that help develop racial hierarchy, linguistic hegemony, ideologies of nativeness, and a deficit thinking model. On a US campus where international students are significantly underrepresented compared with American students, ITAs' marginality is closely connected to these discourses and their professional identity development to the language practices permeating their own the educational contexts.

Language and Identity

While the traditional Western humanist philosophy that views culture and individuals through a lens of essentialism is well known, another interpretation that captures the temporality, dynamics, and instability of identity is rising (Norton & Toohey, 2011). As a prolific scholar in the area of identity work, Norton (1997) proposed three main features of subjectivity that would be helpful in understanding identity: “(a) the multiple, nonunitary nature of the subject; (b) subjectivity as a site of struggle; and (c) subjectivity as changing over time” (p. 411). These features were constructive in shaping our understanding of identity as “how a person understands his or her relationship to the world, how that relationship is structured across time and space, and how the person understands possibilities for the future” (Norton, 2000, p. 5). Norton’s theorizing of identity broadens the research scope by encompassing aspects such as gender, race, ethnicity, power, and social class. These discussions move away from an essentialized understanding of identity and help clarify how imposed, assumed, and negotiated identities are created (Mantero, 2007). These variables, viewed from a poststructuralist perspective, are all involved in the production of a contested, fluid, and ever-changing identity. Similarly, French intellectual Jacques Lacan’s (1977a, 1977b, as cited in Jørgensen & Phillips, 2002) conception of identity shares the aforementioned understandings from Norton. According to Lacan, individuals develop their subject positions through their identification with discourses, which in Lacan’s terms refers to master signifiers. For example, the word ‘man’ is interpreted differently in different discourses. Such interpretations are actions that link the signifier ‘man’ to the construction of identity, which is relational. Certain discourse may suggest that a ‘man’ should be strong, rational, and a sport lover, which implicitly establishes the kind of categories that male

individuals should follow in order to be included as a group member (Jørgensen & Phillips, 2002).

From a central-peripheral perspective, Wenger (1998) claimed that one's identity formation lies in the process of acquiring legitimate peripheral participation, which is manifested in identification and negotiating of meanings. Wenger noted that the process of identification could be seen through three modes of belonging: engagement, imagination, and alignment. Our engagement with members of a community and activities has a direct result on how we invest in ourselves. Mode of imagination refers to the way individuals relate to the social world that is not tangible to them at that moment; it is "the production of images of the self and images of the world that transcend engagement" (Wenger, 1998, p. 177). The last source of identification alignment points to the way individuals relate their actions to a larger group so that they can see the kind of discourse that is circulating within that group. The other construct of negotiation of meaning is also useful to understand the struggles of language minorities. According to Wenger, negotiation of meaning is influential to one's identity formation because whether a person is able to negotiate their meanings in their participation of activities is largely determined by their power. In the case of language minorities, minority language users need validation from the socially legitimate members of the speech community; subsequently, the language minorities form an identity of marginality due to unequal power relations.

ITAs' professional identity in this study entails the notions of plurality and performativity. In the former case, being an ITA is dissected into various identity positions including nonnative English speaker, graduate student, content knowledge instructor, classroom manager, and intercultural communicator. While some of these roles such as NNEST and graduate student are self-imposed, ITAs could also seek empowerment through performing the

roles in accordance with their own understandings. Taking these considerations together, ITAs' professional identity is relational in that it is influenced by the widespread discourse of race, culture, language, gender, and ideology in educational settings (Wenger, 1998). Their professional identity development is also contested because the process of figuring out where they belong in classrooms at this US university and ways to challenge or submit to these discourses is likely to impact their existing identities that hold meaning to them (Flowerdew & Miller, 2008).

Significant Contributions of the Study

ITAs play an important role in the undergraduate teaching force in US universities (Chiang, 2009). Thus, understanding American students' perceptions of ITAs and how such perceptions play a role in ITAs' professional identity development provides a foundational knowledge for faculty members, policy makers, ITA trainers, and ITAs. On a larger scale, as the student population in the US becomes more diversified and the educational landscape more advocacy-oriented, educational research of this kind aims at disseminating the liberating, emancipatory, and dialogic goal of education. It also asks educators to place more salience on reflexivity, reciprocation, dialectics, and advocacy so that educational issues involving marginalized, oppressed, and othered groups could send a wider ripple to institutions, communities, and society. Methodologically, this study contributes to the growing body of scholarship on NNEST, as there is an urgent need for studies that utilize classroom observation as a data collection method (Moussu & Llurda, 2008).

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this study, the following terms are defined:

ITA: While some international teaching assistants may come from English-speaking countries, ITAs in this study refers to those who are nonnative English speakers who teach content in various majors at university level.

Identity: This study follows a poststructural understanding of identity that considers individuals to possess multiple, contradictory, and constantly changing identities.

Professional identity: ITAs' perception of themselves as teachers in their professional environment. This perception is susceptible to influences by students' feedback, educational culture, and societal expectations.

Discourse: From a critical perspective, discourse refers to using language for the purpose of reflecting and constructing the social world. As social practice, discourse becomes social, political, and power driven (Gee, 1996, 1999).

Agency: From a poststructuralist and critical perspective, agency refers to an advocacy oriented thinking that individuals take actions to seek alternative ways of being.

Native-speakerism: The belief that idealizes native-speaker teachers and favors them over nonnative-speakers to be legitimate knowers of Western culture and English language (Holliday, 2006).

Native speaker: The term native speaker is used in this study as a reflection of how the research participants portrayed their life history.

Researcher Positionality

As a nonnative English speaking teacher (NNEST) and researcher, I have taught English to students from various countries under different educational contexts and studied educational

linguistics at a large Southeastern university in the US. My teaching, learning, and US living experience gave me opportunities to contemplate the label of NNEST and its implications in the teaching profession. During my doctoral study, I was introduced to Critical Theory based readings that asked researchers to be reflexive of and responsive to social changes. It was these scholarly dialogues that developed my interest for diaspora people/communities.

As a Chinese national, I am associated with a local community of Chinese students and scholars. With an emphasis on maintaining Chinese heritage culture, this community serves as an anchor for students, visiting scholars, and professors. At a few informal gatherings, I was introduced to some doctoral students who work as ITAs in the Department of Mathematics. In our interactions, I found that some ITAs desired to become professional teachers but at the same time were frustrated by their students' comments of their instructional quality. My interest in this study was thus spurred by my scholarly pursuit of advocacy oriented educational linguistics and interactions with ITAs in the Department of Mathematics.

Organization of the Study

Chapter I introduced the background of the study with statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research questions, limitations of the study, theoretical assumptions, research positionality, significant contributions of the study, and definitions of terms.

Chapter II presented theoretical frameworks of the study and literature reviews that further elaborate on constructs of agency, power, discourse, capital, ideology, and language. Studies within the parameter of professional identity development of teaching assistants and nonnative English speaking teaching assistants are also discussed.

Chapter III discussed the research methodology of the study, including methodological limitations, the definition of case study, research setting, participants, researcher positionality,

timeline of the study, data collection method, data analysis procedure, triangulation, and trustworthiness.

Chapter IV outlined the research questions and addressed them based on findings from interviews, classroom observations, and researcher journal. Among these data sources, interviews serve the primary data source in interpreting the ITAs' professional identity development. Both classroom observation and researcher journals were used to give detailed descriptions about each participant and diagrams of their classroom time allocation and instruction. Themes relevant to the research questions were distilled from the data and presented in both Chinese and English.

Chapter V reviewed the research questions and theoretical underpinning of the study. I discussed the participants' professional identity development from the perspectives of Critical Theory and Poststructuralist Theory, highlighting the power dynamic and fluid interpretation of identity. Implications were provided to shed new light on the ITA training program and empower ITAs. Some future research directions were also discussed.

II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Theoretical Framework

Chapter II discussed the theoretical frameworks and literature review of the current study. Influenced by Foucault (1972, 1980), Bourdieu (1991), Pennycook (1999, 2011), Morgan (2007), Kubota and Lin (2006), and Norton Peirce (1995), I examine ITAs' professional identity development from the perspectives of Critical Theory and Poststructuralist Theory. These two theoretical frameworks allow me to foreground the fluid and contested nature of identity development and situate individual's identity development in the broader social milieu, in which variables such as agency, advocacy, power relations, capital, language ideology, native speakerism, and discourse of othering act as centripetal/centrifugal forces in the shaping of one's identity. The literature review in this chapter provides discussions of these concepts for readers' better conceptualization of the study; along with the theoretical background, studies on the topics of ITAs' and NNESTs' professional identity development are also provided. These dialogues framed the analysis of the following questions:

Research Question: How do international graduate students construct their professional identities at a US university once they become international teaching assistants (ITA)?

Research Question a: What role does undergraduates' feedback play into ITAs' professional identity development?

Research Question b: In what ways do ITAs' interactions with their supervisors influence their sense of teaching practice?

Research Question c: To what extent does English language use in academic settings play a role in ITAs' professional identity development?

The framing of these questions highlight the contingency of ITAs' professional identity created by discourse and power (Foucault, 1980), which produce discursive formations in support of a particular regime of truth. With the backdrop of this view, ITAs' assigned, claimed, and negotiated identities (Varghese, Morgan, Johnston, & Johnson, 2005) become more comprehensible in their articulation of professional identities as they shuffle between their ways of being in home countries, US higher educational culture, institutional discourses, and classroom teaching (Bourdieu, 1991).

Critical Theory

Under the influence of the Frankfurt School including theorists such as Leo Lowenthal, Herbert Marcuse, Max Horkheimer, Theodore Adorno, and Erick Fromm, Critical Theory emerged in the 1920s in order "to liberate human beings from the circumstances that enslave them" (Horkheimer, 1982, p. 244). In its broad conception, Critical Theory has developed into world system theory, feminist theory, postcolonial theory, critical race theory, critical media studies, and queer theory that respond to the same goal of transforming the conditions of human slavery (Horkheimer, 1982). In line with this knowledge of liberation, Torres (1999) argued that the central goal to Critical Theory is to challenge the status quo, uncover legitimacy issues, and examine power relations that are structured to serve the dominant group. According to Torres, the notion of critiquing the ideology is important because it is essential for our understanding of ideology as an instrument for social alienation, social reproduction, system of thought, class domination, false consciousness, and system of representations. In education, Paulo Freire (1970) demonstrated the intimacy between education and politics and introduced the banking model of education that views learning as a unilateral process in which knowledge is transmitted

strictly from teachers. Also from an educational perspective, critical pedagogue Keller (2005), echoing the Frankfurt School's view, remarked that

A Critical Theory is interdisciplinary, involving a critique of academic disciplines and fragmentation, and transdisciplinary connecting material from different domains to craft a multiperspectival optic on contemporary society. Critical Theory is boundary-crossing and mediating, bringing together various dimensions of social life in a comprehensive normative and historical thinking. (p. 59)

In Keller's remarks, the notion of holistic education sheds light on the reconstruction of schooling and education that reflects hope, love of life, and subjectivity (Keller, 2005). For example, the concept of border crossing practice is crucial for students and teachers "to understand otherness on its own terms" and create spaces for "the fashioning of new identities within existing configurations of power" (Giroux, 1992, p. 4). In other words, this is the process where students and teachers develop their intersubjectivity so that they are informed of each other's perspectives and understand how knowledge construction is subject to the larger sociopolitical climate. Border crossing has the potential to understand otherness and restructure the power distribution through inviting the marginalized groups into dialogues, which is what Duarte's (2005) perception of learning as dialogic event and dialectic activity indicates. This view is in close proximity to the aforementioned critical theorists' and pedagogues' beliefs that stress the significance of establishing intersubjectivity through conversations and discovering multiple truths (Sung, 2002).

From a teacher's perspective, Critical Theory is not only developing an awareness of schools as sites of struggle for social inequalities but also empowering to educators so that their locality and agency regarding teaching theory, craft, and classroom application become recognized. In discussing educational theory, Carr (2006) made the critique that educational theory is largely influenced by positivist and foundationalist views that attempt to theorize

education from a universal point of view, ignoring how situation and context may shape educational practices. Kumaravadivelu (2002) supported this critique by arguing that teachers are not passive technicians who merely follow professional experts' guidance on how to deliver knowledge to students; instead, they are also transformative intellectuals who are reflexive, dedicated, and engaged with the power dominance issues embedded in education. Furthermore, teachers should be enabled to participate in the theorizing process and led to view teaching as a "subjective activity" (p. 5). Thus, Carr suggested that teachers could simply develop that 'educational theory,' or in a less abstract way the beliefs and understandings embedded in one's practices, through their critical reflections of practices. Allowing teachers to develop their own theories of teaching is important because it empowers them as teachers to be reflexive of the merits of differing teaching practices and approaches, and design more context specific educational goals that are more effective and rewarding for their students.

Besides recognizing teachers as educational theorists, it is equally important to view students as participants in the knowledge production process in classrooms. For example, Morrell and Collatos (2002) pointed out that the traditional education that exclusively values teachers' knowledge should be questioned, because students, although young and lacking in professional training experience in teaching, have accumulated knowledge and experience in their own fields of interests, which may enhance teachers' understanding of certain matters if included. An important lesson from their socioculturally and critically oriented study of rethinking teacher knowledge is that both in-service and pre-service teachers should understand how certain knowledge is legitimized and how teachers and students should be considered as co-participants in the discussion of different perspectives of truths. Furthermore, this role of co-participant of students and teachers indicates that learning does not have to follow a classic

fashion in which knowledge is disseminated from one individual. Instead, true learning occurs in dialogues that not only present the matter-of-fact stories but also confront underlying assumptions such as: What does language standardization do for different stakeholders in the area of intercultural communication? How is hegemony and legitimation operationalized in schooling? Why is the view of teacher as technician undermining quality education? How is neoliberalism impacting English language education? While the framing of these questions all pertains to Critical Theory, their particularities require that they be studied under a more specific theoretical framework.

Poststructuralist Theory

Poststructuralism emerged among the French intellectuals such as Derrida, Deleuze, Lyotard, Foucault, and Kristeva in the 1960s as a response to Saussurean structuralism, which views language as an idealized system and its study scientifically systematical (Radford & Radford, 2005). In their inquiry of language and the representation of the world, poststructuralists are cognizant of the highly contextual nature of the organizing elements in a language and a binary thinking mode that traces back to the Enlightenment (Peters, 2005).

Surveying the historical development of poststructuralism, Jacques Derrida's paper titled "Structure, Sign, and Play in the Discourse of the Human Science" (1972) at a Structuralism conference in 1966 is considered by many as a significant contribution to the stimulation of Poststructuralism thought (Dixon & Jones, 2004; McNamara, 2012). In the paper, Derrida problematizes the production of a stabilized center and margins in a structure within the binary epistemology. Following this line of inquiry, poststructuralism turns its attention to the underlying power relations that are responsible for these categorizations and ask questions of to what end this demarcation will lead us and how the binary epistemology frames reality (Dixon &

Jones, 2004). Additionally, in his critique of objectivity of Saussurean structuralism, Derrida offers his view of language that is dynamic, instable, subjective, and provisional (Derrida, 1982, as cited in Morgan, 2007). These features of language and critiques of universality, objectivity, and reason are also reflected in a detailed discussion of poststructuralism by James Williams (2014) who states that “life is not to be defined solely by science, but by the layers of history and future creations captured in wider senses of language, thought and experience” (p. 16).

An equally important figure in this philosophical movement is Michel Foucault, whose insight of knowledge production and discursive practice make great contributions to renewed understandings of truth, history, sex, knowledge, and power. To illustrate the connections between knowledge, power, and truth, Foucault’s conception of regime of truth (1980), which is formed and sustained by discursive practices from authorities, is worth quoting at length:

Truth isn’t outside power . . . Truth is a thing of this world; it is produced only by virtue of multiple forms of constraint. And it induces regular effects of power. Each society has its regime of truth, its ‘general politics’ of truth; that is, the types of discourse which it accepts and makes function as true, the mechanisms and instances which enable one to distinguish true and false statements, the means by which each is sanctioned . . . the status of those who are charged with saying what counts as true. (p. 131)

For Foucault, truth, power, and knowledge are three vital constituents for the functioning of governance that institutionalizes subjugation. This process of normalizing, regulating, and policing individuals is ineffective without the partaking of language, which helps the distribution of discourses and sustains discursive formations (Norton & Morgan, 2013). A more elaborate account of the interplay between language and discourses is provided in feminist poststructuralist Weedon’s notes:

Meanings do not exist prior to their articulation in language and language is not an abstract system, but is always socially and historically located in discourses. Discourses represent political interests and in consequence are constantly vying for status and power. (1987, p. 40, as cited in Kramsch, 2012).

This is another close observation of the sociopolitical aspect of language and how it could be manipulated to serve interest groups.

In Applied Linguistics, these poststructural notions are translated into understandings of texts as plural, language as indeterminate, identity as performative, social practice and motivation as invested, power relations as influential in language education, and pedagogy as tools of criticism that questions culturalism, linguisticism, and other forms of knowledge production (Morgan, 2007).

In the first two sections of this review, I have briefly introduced some historical developments within the movements of Critical Theory and Poststructuralist Theory. I have also discussed these theoretical frameworks' implications on knowledge, pedagogy, and language education. With these in mind, I turn to the next section that shifts the discussion toward salient constructs in the study.

Language, Capital, and Identity

Traditional educational linguistics and SLA research has been overly influenced by cognitive and mentalistic orientations to language and dominated by the positivistic epistemology in which researchers seek to conduct studies in experimental settings with the objective of finding universally applicable results (Firth & Wanger, 1997). Influenced by social-constructivism, sociocultural theory, and poststructuralism, the social dimension of language learning has gained some value through robust scholarship that started the reconceptualization of SLA in the mid-1990s (Block, 1996; Hall, 1993; Lantolf, 1996; van Lier, 1994). After Firth and Wanger's seminal work on the methodological and theoretical reconceptualization of SLA and other influential writings such as Block's piece on an interdisciplinary and socially informed approach to SLA (2003), there has been an emergence of scholarship that takes into

consideration language, identity, and capital (Adamuti-Trache, 2013; Bayley & Schechter, 2003; Block, 2006; Darvin & Norton, 2014; Duff, 2012; Kramsch, 2003; Lan, 2011; Norton & Toohey, 2011; Pavlenko & Blackledge, 2004; Pavlenko, Blackledge, Piller, & Teutsch-Dwyer, 2001; Trent, 2014). Such a position invites researchers to consider the “inseparability of agent and environment as well as of the centrality of the social in understanding all living agents” (Ortega, 2009, p. 217) and epistemologies that view reality as socially constructed, truth as multiple, and knowledge as subjective.

As a feminist poststructuralist, Christine Weedon (1987) coined the term subjectivity to describe language learners’ perception of themselves mentally, emotionally, and physically. She considers language as “the place where actual and possible forms of social organisation and their likely social and political consequences are defined and contested. Yet it is also the place where our sense of ourselves, our subjectivity, is constructed” (Weedon, 1997, p. 21). Thus, depending on the sociopolitical contexts, language learners could concomitantly be viewed as power possessors and deficit learners at other times. Weedon’s interpretation of subjectivity echoes Bakhtin (1981) and Bourdieu’s views (1977, 1991) that social factors play a crucial role in understanding language learning processes as they present the temporal, dynamic, and unstable nature of individuals (Norton & Toohey, 2011).

Contrary to the view of language learning as merely an internalization process where learners memorize the organizing principles of a language, Bakhtin (1981, 1984, 1986) observed that language learning is more of a social activity in which one becomes acquainted with language usage in order to become a member of a speech community. It is important to note that this interaction is not impartial to all language learners, as Bakhtin further suggested that individuals’ speaking privilege is affected by their social positions. This linkage between

language and symbolic power is given a more expansive interpretation by French sociologist Pierre Bourdieu (1977, 1991) who believed that interlocutors are identified as legitimate and illegitimate speakers based on their “power to impose reception” (1977, p. 648). As a result, the meaning of an utterance derives not only from the linguistic aspect but also the person who utters it.

In his examination of the construct of social class, Bourdieu (1990) introduced three theoretical constructs of habitus, capital, and field that offer valuable insight on the interplay between language and symbolic power and have been widely shared and discussed among academics. Habitus, in Bourdieu’s discussion, refers to “a system of durable, transposable dispositions . . . principles which generate and organize practices and representations” (1990, p. 53). It provides a rationale for individuals to respond to a given cause based on their existing knowledge; in other words, habitus serves as a reference point when individuals are physically or mentally engaged with others (Darvin & Norton, 2014).

To envision the social world and its activities as historically connected, Bourdieu (2011) introduced the notion of capital as accumulated labor, which bears similarities to economic theory but goes beyond this material exchanging form to immaterial and noneconomic forms of capital. In his oeuvre, three forms of capital were carefully deliberated: cultural capital, social capital, and economic capital. Cultural capital refers to noneconomic power including family background, education, and social class that could become embodied, objectified, and institutionalized. Social capital is defined as “the aggregate of the actual or potential resources which are linked to possession of a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition” (2011, p. 88). In Bourdieu’s analysis, the size of one’s social network and the accumulated social, economic, and cultural capital within a

network were determinate in the volume of social capital. Derived from the economic exchange practice, economic capital relates to money and property rights. While these are three forms of capital introduced in Bourdieu's discussion, they are, however, not the only forms of capital in the canon of the Bourdieusian social world. Some other constructs include linguistic capital that focuses on aspects of language such as accent and language competence with high market value (Chang & Kanno, 2010). Domination in the field, a Bourdieusian term that denotes social milieu, is a display of high volume of a collection of these capitals. According to Bourdieu,

Not only are linguistic features never clearly separated from the speaker's whole set of social properties (bodily hexis, physiognomy, cosmetics, clothing), but phonological (or lexical, or any other) feature are never clearly separated from other levels of language; and the judgment which classifies a speech form as "popular" or a person as "vulgar" is based, like all practical predication, on sets of indices which never impinge on consciousness in that form. (Bourdieu, 1991, p. 89, as cited in Bucholtz, 1999)

This quotation provides a comprehensive view of language as both linguistic signs and also signs of wealth and authority. In conversations, interlocutors in the upper social order who have more resources possess greater capacity to appropriate and appreciate the language with censorship and impositions.

Bakhtin's and Bourdieu's work help us recognize the act of languaging as being contested and influenced by various forms of capital that are embedded in the power dynamics. Besides Weedon, other identity researchers have also incorporated a critical view of language in their works (Kramsch, 2009; Margan & Clarke, 2011; Norton, 2000). Norton (1997), for example, proposed three main features of subjectivity that would aid the conceptualization of identity: "(a) the multiple, nonunitary nature of the subject; (b) subjectivity as a site of struggle; and (c) subjectivity as changing over time" (p. 411). These features were constructive in shaping our understanding of identity as "how a person understands his or her relationship to the world, how that relationship is structured across time and space, and how the person understands

possibilities for the future” (Norton, 2013, p. 45). Norton’s theorizing of identity provides a new research lens in the area of language learning in that it argues for the inclusion of issues such as gender, race, ethnicity, and social class and the primacy to learner agency, multivocality, and diversity. Through her interaction with immigrant women in Canada, Norton Peirce (1995) also introduced the term of investment and argued for its instrumentality in capturing learners’ identity development and understanding learner motivation. Prior to her introduction of investment, research in SLA considered learners’ second language proficiency in terms of their effective filters such as motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety (Gardner, 1985; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Krashen, 1981, 1982). This correlation between affective filters and language learning process fails to take into consideration of learners’ situatedness; more specifically, it overlooks the potential influence of power relations in their social interactions. Following from Bourdieu’s notion of cultural capital as discussed earlier, Norton Pierce (1995) suggested that learners make investment in the target language in order to obtain symbolic or material resources that may increase their sociocultural capitals. As a sociological construct, investment views that language use, from a learners’ perspective, is not only an information exchanging activity but also a process for the learners to figure out their positions in relation to the social world and seek their social identity in the meantime. To illustrate the construct of investment in identity development, some examples of investment from Norton (2000), Duff (2002), and Gao, Cheng, and Kelly (2008) are provided.

As one of Norton’s (2000) participants in her study of the immigrant women in Toronto, Mai was a highly motivated language learner; however, her interactions with native English speaking teachers whose pedagogical practice overlooked the diverse nature of the class, students, and culture were fraught with silence and resistance. Similar situations were also

observed in a multilingual secondary school in Canada in which nonnative students were orally silenced due to the potential mocking by native speaking students (Duff, 2002). The silence in these cases reflects the unequal power distribution and the volume of sociolinguistic capitals possessed by the students, which attributes to the lowering of nonnative students' investment in oral English. Using sociocultural theory, Gao et al. (2008) investigated the reasons that students persistently attend a weekly English discussion group, known as "English Club" in Hong Kong. Their findings suggested that one of the reasons these students kept attending the meeting is due to the lack of opportunities to use English in Hong Kong. Thus, the "English Club" served as an ideal place for them to learn the English language and socialize with others. In addition, the study also found that the participants viewed English as a tool which may provide them further advancement in areas such as academics or employment. Following Bourdieu and Norton, English language, from the participants' perspectives, was the means by which they acquired other cultural capitals and construct their identities. Thus, investing in English, which in this case translates into persistently attending "English Club," would help them achieve their desired goals.

In this section, I have argued for a view of language as a politically charged instrument that serves the interest groups in the social world. Due to the fact that power is unevenly distributed based on individuals' possession of various capitals, those with a higher number of capitals are less likely to receive punishment than the subalterns situated in the periphery. Thus, the discussion of identity in light of the above power mechanics is incomplete without considering the crucial roles of language and capital. In what follows, I continue to explore the contested nature of individual subjectivity through the constructs of agency and power relations.

Agency and Power Relations

Broadly speaking, agency is known as “the socioculturally mediated capacity to act” (Ahearn, 2001, p. 112). It refers to people’s ability to imagine, assume, and enact new roles and identities as they pursue their goals (Duff, 2012). Framed in a poststructuralist and critical perspective, agency refers to one’s capacity to be resistant to imposed positions and make changes to one’s life for alternative ways of being (Yashima, 2013). This framing connects the micro as an individual to the macro as in social structure and reveals how agency is linked to power and social contexts (Duff, 2012). As Yashima (1984) mentioned, the dialectic relationship between agent and social structure is viewed in Bourdieu’s habitus and Giddens’s structuration theory. According to Bourdieu (1977), individuals are agents that help reproduce social structure through the normalizing practices that are expected by the society. When individuals have internalized the social norms, their habitus is formed. While individuals are the embodiment of social structure, they also have agency to make changes to their environment and challenge the reproduction of social structure.

Earlier discussions on the construct of investment and respective case studies in which language learners were silenced or willing to attend English Club are examples of asserting one’s agency. For example, Mai’s resistance to talk in classroom and the struggles by other migrants and language learners (Norton, 2000; Block, 2007) reflected the power relations between nonnative English speakers and native speakers. Such inequitable relationships in the schooling structure force language learners like Mai into a marginal position that disvalues their native language and ways of being. In these cases, individuals’ subjectivities are in conflict with the larger social structure where language, capital, and identity are intermingled to influence people’s social practice.

Standard Language Ideology and Native Speakerism

Defined as meanings and ideas that serve the interest groups in society (Thompson, 1990), the concept of ideology develops a negative connotation among critics and reveals its connection to language, which is a pervasive, sensitive, and performative tool of communication. To plant and perpetuate the ruling class's ideas, language can give its own interpretations of an ideology and have it recognized by the general public as truth and common sense (Gramsci, 1971). In her analysis of English language ideologies in Olympic Beijing, Pan (2011), citing Gramsci (1971), Gramsci and Forgacs (1988), Althusser (1971, 2004), and Bourdieu (1991), suggested that language ideologies are intricately connected to power and play an influential role in our social life. To further contextualize these interplays, Bourdieu (1991) described standard language ideology from a sociopolitical perspective of the French Revolution, in which the emergence, legitimation, and imposition of a standard language marginalized other linguistic variants and speakers and bestowed power upon those who were able to speak the standard language, namely the well-educated people such as priests, doctors, and teachers. This connection between standard language ideology and power relations was also recorded in other thoughtful discussions (Fairclough, 1989; Lippi-Green, 1994). As a major figure in challenging the standard language myth, Lippi-Green (1994) provided detailed cases in which accented individuals are either denied employment opportunities or dismissed from the workplace. She also made clear the five identifiable proponents of standard language ideology, i.e., the educational system, the news media, the entertainment industry, corporate America, and the judicial system. While these five proponents are scattered in different social sectors, their enforcement of a standard language and "language-trait focused discrimination" (p. 166) are surprisingly unanimous. This conception of standard language ideology corresponds with

Fairclough's belief that language is a site of power and ideology struggle (1989). In his analysis of standard language, Fairclough made a cogent argument that the notion of language standardization is invariably tied to economic, political, and cultural amalgamation. In his portrait of standard British English, Fairclough traced its origin to the East Midland dialect, which was used by the merchant class in London during the medieval period. This bond between capitalism and language standardization was well established, supported, and distributed by the powerful at the expense of other non-standard dialects; over time, it extended its influence on major social institutions and eventually attained its political and cultural power through the process of codification.

In the above analysis, standard language ideology could be seen as the force of nation-state in which the discourses of "one state/one culture/one language" (Pérez-Milans, 2015, p. 101; Lo Bianco, 2005; Wring, 2004) were circulated for the establishment of nationalism. Related to this notion of standardizing language for the purpose of serving interest groups is native speakerism, which is an ideology in Applied Linguistics that recognizes native English speaking teachers (NEST) as role models for learners (Davies, 2003; Holliday, 2006). As a result of this binary conception of NEST-NNEST and problematic view of NESTs' superiority in language teaching (Kang, 2015), many NNESTs have encountered confrontations and injustice in their professional pursuit (Amin, 1997; Clark & Paran, 2007; Kamhi-Stein, 2004; Mahoob, Urig, Hartford, & Newman, 2004; Moussu, 2010; Rajagopalan, 2005; Selvi, 2014). For example, in their study of NNESTs' employability in the U.K., Clark and Paran (2007) sent out emails of questionnaires about school administrative information and teacher recruitment and professional development to ELT employers in private language schools, universities and other higher education institutions, and further education institutions. Their findings suggested that over 70%

of surveyed ELT employers consider NNESTs' status as lacking in the U.K. A more recent study by Subtirelu (2015) on students' evaluations of NNEST mathematics instructors on RateMyProfessors.com also indicated that student ratings are manifestations of the larger language ideology in society. Using mixed method research design with quantitative corpus linguistic techniques and critical discourse analysis, Subtirelu found that compared with instructors with US last names, those with Chinese and Korean last names were evaluated negatively in terms of clarity and helpfulness. While Subtirelu did find some objections to the ideology of nativeness such as "X does have an accent but" (p. 57); this finding, however, further naturalizes the status of hegemonic discourses and makes language discrimination subtle, appropriate, and unobtrusive.

Discourse of Othering

The term Othering refers to a binary system of 'Us' and 'Them' in which one group has biased views of its oppositional group (Woodward, 1997). As a socially constructed concept, Othering reproduces the discourse that tends to portray certain groups of individuals as violent, chaotic, and uncivilized beings, thus, making a clear demarcation between the Master and the inferior others. What is at stake is how the Othering discourse restructures one's identity in a way that benefits the interest groups, maintains the current social hierarchy, and fosters a submissive attitude amongst individuals, thus leaving the discourse of Othering unexamined (Fairclough, 1992; Holliday, Hyde, & Kullman, 2004). Research observed that nonnative English speaking personnel such as ESL students do not have adequate forms of cultural, linguistic, and symbolic capitals (Bourdieu, 1977; 1991) to establish their own legitimate roles in a society where the dominant ideology is structured and maintained to privilege European Americans

(Braine, 1999; Chang & Kanno, 2010; Lee, 2008). Within the discourse of Othering, they assume a lesser role that makes them become more “visible” or “distinct.”

In a study that examined how racism is related to perceptions of language proficiency, Rubin (1992) found that Asian faces including both Asians and Asian Americans are associated with low intelligible English language. This observation not only reflects the marginal status of many ESL students from Asia (Lee, 2008) and other nonnative English speakers (Amin, 1997) but also points out the residue of Colonialism and Orientalism in which the West establishes its legitimacy as self and attempts to influence and dominate the East which is considered as the barbarous Others (Kubota, 2004; Said, 1985). In language education, this discourse of Othering through exerting power over other cultures neglects and delegitimizes the cultural and social capital international students bring into their contexts, which are means for the privileged group in the society to maintain their power (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1990); it also reinforces the notion of deficit thinking that presumes nonnative English speakers to be inferior to native English speakers (Valencia, 2010).

Exploring the issue of how nonnative English speaking individuals are viewed in this Othering discourse asks stakeholders in education including teachers, researchers, administrators, and community members to be cautious of an essentialized view of non-Western cultures and understand the impact of these discourses on a person’s identity development. In their discussion of the racializing discourses and identity construction in educational settings, Kubota and Lin (2006) mentioned that students of color are frequently observed to be the target of essentialization by teachers and their peers. Ellwood (2006) addressed the discourse of cultural difference in fixing one’s identity in an English-learning classroom; students from the Far East countries such as Japan are viewed as passive, quiet, and undemonstrative learners, whereas

European learners are considered to be energetic, engaging, and critical thinking. As Palfreyman (2005) pointed out, “the discourse of Othering . . . can oversimplify the contexts in which TESOL educators work” (p. 215). In the current study, understanding the discourse of Othering requires ITAs, students, and faculty members to be aware of the problematic apolitical view of education and be reflexive of their praxis, attitudes, and willingness to communicate with others.

ITA Professional Identity

The present study relies on the major construct of ITA professional identity, which is informed by the previous discussions of language, power, agency, ideology, capital, and discourse. Under the frameworks of Critical Theory and Poststructuralist Theory, identity is no longer a fixed and deterministic construct; instead, it is in complex relationships with power, agency, language, discourse, ideology, and capital that are embedded in the social world. The aforementioned literature review of language learner, nonnative English speaking teachers, and ITA identity development suggest a hybrid, contested, and fluid identity conception, which echoes with the complexity shown in earlier discussions and helps frame the definition of ITA professional identity in the study. In this section, I discuss the construct of ITA professional identity, review ITA professional identity development studies, and identify the research gap in the ITA professional identity area.

For some, professional identity means an imposed identity from the society that has certain expectations of a teacher and an assumed identity that connects to what teachers find to be meaningful and significant in their practices (Beijaard, Meijer, & Verloop, 2004; Tickle, 2000). Besides this line of understanding, another observation about professional identity reveals its negotiated attribute in that teacher identity is conditioned by both local practice and global ideologies (Simon-Maeda, 2004; Song & Del Castillo, 2015). For example, both fundamental

beliefs about knowledge and learning and reactions to professors, graduate teaching assistants, and undergraduate students are found to be key ingredients in constructing professional identity of a graduate teaching assistant in physics (Volkman & Zgagacz, 2004). Additionally, professional identity is also seen as plural in that teachers perform different roles in their professional work including teacher as classroom manager, learner, socializer, and entertainer (Farrell, 2011; Gee & Crawford, 1998). For Mawhinney and Xu (1997). Professional identity refers to a teacher's professional skills and qualifications to teach in a given educational context. Of particular importance to foreign-trained teachers' professional identity is their job-related English language proficiency, which is found to be one of the main obstacles of these teachers' integration into a local education system.

The notions of plurality and performativity not only reflect our previous discussions on the premise of poststructuralist theory and its applications in identity research but also shed light on teacher empowerment as in the cases of teacher identity as pedagogy in which teachers perform certain identities that conform to or challenge students' previous perceptions such as cultural assumption (Morgan, 2004; Simon, 1995). In Figure 1, I demonstrate my conception of teacher professional identity in relation to agency, power, discourse, language, ideology, and capital. As I argued earlier, the poststructural notion of identity is dynamic, fluid, and power-driven. Thus, in the figure I placed the construct of ITA professional identity at the center and its peripheral constructs in a circular fashion. This layout delineates not only the interplays between ITA professional identity and the peripheral constructs but also the intimate relationships among the peripheral constructs. ITA professional identity in this study refers to institutionally imposed teacher identity, which will be investigated through ITAs' English language use in academic

settings, student feedback, and ITAs' interaction with their supervisors in their professional work.



Figure 1. Conceptualization of ITA Professional Identity.

ITA Professional Identity Development

While there is much scholarly attention on professional identity development of NNESTs as English language teachers, a survey of the literature on the topic of ITA professional identity development resulted in only four studies (Liu, 2005; Trent, 2014; Uzum, 2012; Williams, 2007) (see Table 1). In the following section, I discuss the studies conducted by Trent (2014), Uzum (2012), and Williams (2007) in detail and address the research gap in the area of ITAs' professional identity development.

Table 1

Summary of Studies Reviewed

Publication	Theoretical framework	Research focus/question	Context of study	Data sources	Data analysis
Trent (2014)	Identity-in-discourse and identity-in-practice	How does one group of ELTAs in Hong Kong schools construct their professional identities?	Nine participants who are employed as ELTAs in Hong Kong secondary schools	Semi-structured interview	Thematic analysis with reference to the theoretical framework of teacher identity
Uzum (2012)	Language socialization, sociocultural theory	What is the role of dialogic mediation in teachers' conceptual development?	A female Turkish FLTA at a U.S. public research university in a midwestern city	Classroom observation, interview	Ethnographic microanalysis
Williams (2007)	Social constructivist	"to investigate the role of identity in the development of ITAs as American college instructors" (p. 312)	20 ITAs at a large southeastern American university	Classroom observation, interview	Narrative analysis
Liu (2005)	Interpretative framework	To gain an understanding of NNES GTAs' difficulties and needs in teaching first-year composition classes	4 Chinese graduate students at an American university	Email, interview	No specific analysis procedure discussed

ITAs' Interactions With Students

Based on language socialization and sociocultural theory, Uzum (2012) examined a Fulbright Language Teaching Assistant's (FLTA) experience in the US academic context and professional identity development through classroom observations and stimulated recall interviews. In this study, the participant was a female Turkish FLTA, Sebahat, who taught Turkish to a class of six native English speaking students. Based on the results of classroom observation and Sebahat's narration, Uzum pointed out that as Sebahat adapted into the American culture and became more familiar with her students' interests, needs, strengths, and weaknesses, her teaching became more meaningful, thus, indicating the roles of dialogic mediation and conceptual development in teacher professional identity.

From a social constructivist perspective, Williams (2007) conducted a study exploring the role of identity in ITAs' development in a large southeastern American university. In this study, Williams's conception of teacher identity derived from Welmond (2002) and Sach (2001), who view teacher identity as a dynamic construct being comprised of beliefs and values that teachers embrace in their professional life and that society has imposed on teachers. An added layer in Williams' understanding of teacher identity development was ITAs' bicultural identities. In the actualization of their bicultural identities, ITAs bring not only the mainstream culture but also outside cultures that are not so familiar to some students. In classroom instructions, Williams suggested that it is the outside cultures that, if not properly translated into students' academic and cultural discourse, could be one of the causes for ineffective cross-cultural communications between the instructors and students. Based on interviews and classroom observations, Williams approached the data through narrative analysis, the perspective that allows researchers to gain a deeper understanding of an individual's sense of self via storytelling.

In the narratives, Williams found that ITAs' teacher identity is influenced by their own perception of teaching, personal identity, identity negotiation with students, and investment in the profession. For example, 1st year Indian ITA Shanti argued for a facilitating teaching style in which she would help the students when problems arose; a 2nd year Austrian ITA, Hans, viewed teaching as a caring practice which recognizes the students' strengths and offers guidance. Another 2nd year ITA, Ibrahim, from Burkina Faso compared his teaching to a theatrical performance: "When I walk in the class time in my class, I say 'Showtime' . . . you have to impersonate and you have to be full of yourself, you have to be funny, you have to be serious" (2007, p. 316). As they discussed their perception of teaching practice, the theme of personal identity also emerged. For some ITAs, students should be constantly reminded that the teachers' deliberation in classrooms is from a teacher identity perspective rather than his or her personal opinions. Thus, there is a clear demarcation between personal identity and teacher identity; however, to other ITAs this distinction does not seem to be strongly defined. As a 4th year ITA from Tanzania, Hashim pointed out that his identity presentation inside and outside of classroom was mostly coherent. During the interviews, most ITAs indicated that teacher identity development required negotiation with the students. A 4th year Cameroon ITA, Dikembe, mentioned that teachers need to change their practice based on evaluations of students' needs and expectations. Contrary to this perception, a Japanese ITA, Ryoko, viewed teacher identity negotiation as a dialogue into which both teachers and students put effort. Last but not least, ITAs' future goals were found to be impactful on how they viewed teaching and their teacher identity. For some, becoming a teacher seemed to be the last resort amongst other possibilities, thus, they were less concerned about improving their teaching practices including English language proficiency and teaching skills; for ITAs who came from the humanities, they were

imbued with the values of and passions for teaching. As a result, they become more invested in improving their teaching practices and style.

ITAs' English Language use in Academic Settings

In a qualitative multi-case study, Trent (2014) explored local teaching assistants' construction of professional identities in Hong Kong schools. The framework adopted in this work viewed teacher identity construction from identity-in-discourse and identity-in-practice perspectives (Varghese et al., 2005). The former refers to the viewing of identity construction, maintenance, and negotiation through language and discourse; whereas identity-in-practice, a theoretical framework that also appeared in other identity research (Golombek & Klager, 2015; Holland, Lachiotte, Skinner, & Cain, 2003; Huang, 2014; Huang & Varghese, 2015), considers concrete practices in identity construction and its implications in social spaces. Within this integrated framework, Trent elaborated on identity construction from discourse, experience, negotiation, and contestation, suggesting the interactive role of language, practice, and discourse in conceptualizing teacher identity.

Through thematic analysis of interviews with nine English language teaching assistants (ELTAs), who were the primary participants, and nine English language teachers who had interactions with these ELTAs, findings indicated that the term ELTA holds different meanings to ELTAs, teachers, students, and institutions, which have become the main reasons for the constraining of ELTAs' teacher identity development. From the perspectives of teachers and students, ELTAs are positioned as helpers, material organizers, and different from full time teachers. Due to these positions, many ELTAs expressed that their teacher identity development was undermined because of the lack of opportunities in teaching, participation in classroom activities, and professional development. One ELTA, Sarah, commented, "I don't get much

mentoring from other teachers and the school doesn't encourage me to observe others while they're teaching" (Trent, 2014, p. 35). While most ELTAs shared Sarah's experience with their teaching journeys, two ELTAs in the study challenged the hierarchy of difference between teachers and ELTAs through exercising agency. One ELTA Alex, pointed out, "At first, I was not included in things, like the (English) department meetings . . . so I asked our (English) department head . . . I must insist on this" (p. 39). The production of counter-discourse was seen in another ELTA, Vicky's, interactions with students outside of class, which helped Vicky construct her teacher identity through the trusting relationship she established with the students.

Situated in an interpretive framework, Liu's study (2005) reported four Chinese graduate teaching assistants' challenges, difficulties, and credibility in teaching composition to native English speaking students. His findings suggested that the participants started to gain more ownership of their teaching and the English language as they became less intimidated by their NES students. Due to cultural and linguistic gaps, these Chinese teaching assistants' credibility as teachers was initially challenged by American students. One participant said during the interview, "one day a student came to my office hour . . . he . . . said right to my face that I should not teach freshman composition . . . [he] deserve[s] an English teacher, not someone from China" (p. 161). As these ITAs experience the difficulties in teaching, they try to negotiate an identity of credibility by sharing Chinese culture with the students, catering to the students' needs, improving teacher-student communication, and more individualized grading. While some NES students still consider these ITAs to be incapable of teaching freshman composition, many express their appreciation for their teachers' hardworking attitude, unique perspective in writing, and knowledge of Chinese culture.

Taken together, Uzum (2012), Williams (2007), and Liu (2005), mostly due to their theoretical frameworks, did not seem to delve into the discussion of the variables elaborated at the beginning of this chapter, namely power, agency, language, ideology, power, and discourse. In Trent's study (2014), however, a more critical approach was adopted in examining TAs' professional identity development in Hong Kong; while he achieved his objective of providing thorough discussions of TA professional identity development in Hong Kong, his research focus was not on nonnative international teaching assistants' professional identity development from a critical viewpoint. Thus, this study aims to fulfill the research gap of understanding ITAs' professional identity development at a US university orientated by Critical Theory and Poststructuralist Theory.

ITAs' Interactions With Supervisors

Additionally, no explicit connections between ITA professional identity development and their interactions with academic supervisors have been drawn in the aforementioned four studies on the topics of TA or ITA. In the area of student-faculty member communication and faculty perceptions of ITAs, there is strong evidence that ITA supervisors play a crucial role in their professional identity development. In a case study that investigated the communication patterns between Chinese ITAs and faculty members in a Mathematics department, Jenkins (2000) found that the lack of clarity in explaining the roles and priority of graduate students and ITAs from the department significantly impacted the Chinese ITAs' English language development, as the ITAs would have less time practicing the language when loaded with graduate level courses and exams. Faculty members' problematic interpretation of Chinese ITAs' reticence further contributed to the negative impression that Chinese ITAs performed poorly on TA assignments and were unwilling to improve their English language and integrate into the mainstream culture.

In their survey-based study, Calkins and Kelley (2005) discovered that faculty members' prior experience as TAs was connected to how their fellow teaching assistants were treated. For those who regarded the experience as constructive, they were also striving to become mentors who treated their fellow TAs with civility, collegiality, and respect, and gave advice on teaching responsibilities and course-related issues. In the current study, the interaction between ITAs and their supervisors was also considered as one dimension of their professional identity development.

Summary of Chapter II

Chapter II introduced the theoretical framework of Critical Theory and Poststructuralist Theory. Based on these theoretical frameworks, identity is no longer viewed as independent and static; rather, it links to power, agency, language, discourse, ideology, capital, and broad social relations. As a result, identity becomes contested, contradictory, and a site of struggle. Discussions of these features of identity were provided in the literature to pave the way for the introduction of ITA professional identity, which was also viewed as hybrid and complex in light of the above reviews. Recent studies of ITA professional identity development were reviewed with the purpose of familiarizing the readers with this particular area of study and finding the research gap. Chapter III presents the methodological design of the study.

III

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Research Design

Since the current study aimed at exploring international teaching assistants' (ITAs) professional identity development, a qualitative inquiry was adopted. A multiple case study perspective was chosen as I investigated the impact of undergraduates' feedback to ITAs' instruction, ITAs' interaction with their supervisors, and ITAs' English language use in academic settings. Guided by Critical Theory and Poststructural Theory, each case delineates ITA's stories of professional identity development that are contingent upon key variables in his or her respective contexts. Through these case studies, I analyzed data from interviews, classroom observations, and research journals to understand ITAs' professional identity development in an American university. With this research project in mind, the following research questions were formulated:

Research Question: How do international graduate students construct their professional identities at a US university once they become international teaching assistants (ITA)?

Research Question a: What role does undergraduates' feedback play into ITAs' professional identity development?

Research Question b: In what ways do ITAs' interactions with their supervisors influence their sense of teaching practice?

Research Question c: To what extent does English language use in academic settings play a role in ITAs' professional identity development?

Defining the Case

In the field of qualitative research, Robert Yin (2003), Sharan Merriam (1998), and Robert Stake (2005) have contributed significantly to the understandings of case study as a valid research design, its philosophical underpinnings, ways to formulate a case study, and determining the unit of analysis and case study types (Baxter & Jack, 2008). Due to epistemological differences, these three methodologists arrived at definitions of case study that are not identical to each other (Thomas, 2011). For example, Yin (2003) defined case studies as empirical investigations using multiple data sources of a phenomenon that was typically inseparable from context. Yin's stance on the interpretation of research findings through locating variables is also seen to be pertinent to neopositivism, a philosophical movement that values objective reality (George & Bennett, 2005). In his discussion of Yin's approach to case studies, Yazan (2015) also pointed out that Yin's conception of case studies is very logical in that researchers should be aware of the flow of logics throughout the research process and conform to their previous theoretical commitment.

In contrast to Yin, Stake (2005) and Merriam (1998) suggested that instead of seeking accuracy in defining case studies, researchers ought to focus on the nature of case studies as bounded and integrative (Yazan, 2015). According to Stake, case studies are viewed as "not a methodological choice but a choice of what is to be studied" (2005, p. 443). In other words, the various methods that researchers employ play supportive roles to the revelation of a phenomenon, which is the centrality of a case study. Similarly, Merriam (1998, p. xiii) believed that case study should be "an intensive, holistic, description and analysis of a bounded phenomenon such as a program, an institution, a person, a process, or a social unit." Besides these two prominent figures in case study, other methodologists also supported the non-variable

approach to case study design. For example, Ragin (1992) pointed out that “case-oriented approach places cases, not variables, center stage. But what is a case? Comparative social science has a ready-made, conventionalized answer to this question: Boundaries around places and time periods define cases”.

I operationalized the study on three ITAs at a large Southeastern university; a multiple-case study was required so that I was able to examine the similarities and differences in each case (Baxter & Jack, 2008). Following Patton’s suggestions of generating a case study (2002), I first collected data through classroom observations and verbal interactions with the participants. Data were then reflected upon, distilled, thematized, and analyzed under the theoretical frameworks mentioned above. The final step turned the data into ITAs’ narratives that were dense and complex (Flyvbjerg, 2006).

Setting

The study took place at a large Southeastern public university. According to the 2015 Census published by the Office of Institutional Research & Assessment at this institution (*Census Enrollment Report*, 2015), the enrolled student population was 37,100. Of this enrollment number, 1,492 students came from foreign countries (see Appendix A for demographics of international students enrolled at this university). Within this population, the top five international students’ countries of origin were China (820), Saudi Arabia (92), Brazil (78), South Korea (66), and India (57). At the institution where the study was conducted, all international students are required to provide proof of English language proficiency for enrollment into academic courses. Otherwise, the students can only be admitted conditionally in that they will begin courses at an on-campus English Language Institute. In addition, the institution has an International Teaching Assistant Program (ITAP) that supervises the

certification of international students who are about to start their teaching assistantships (see Table 2). The ITAP is administered by the aforementioned English Language Institute (ELI). Its main purpose is to train and evaluate nonnative English speaking ITAs before they start teaching. The ITAP registers three categories regarding whether ITAs are allowed to teach: full pass, conditional pass, and no pass. Full pass means that an ITA has sufficient teaching and language skills for lecture-type classes. With a conditional pass, an ITA could only teach in tutorial setting in which the ITA interacts with only one student or in a lab. If the ITA were to teach in a regular classroom, then a senior teacher would need to be present. ITAs who display serious language problems and poor teaching skills will not be given any teaching responsibility.

Short named as TOEFL iBT, Test of English as a Foreign Language is administered via the Internet by the Educational Testing Service (ETS) headquartered in the US. In evaluating speaking tests, ETS uses a 4-point scale for an initial rate of a response in terms of the test takers' general description of the speaking topic, delivery, language use, and topic development and then converts the rate to a score of 0 to 30 (Speaking Section, 2016). The levels corresponding to the different score scales are good (26-30), fair (18-25), limited (10-17), and weak (0-9) (TOEFL® Score Scales, 2016). An equally popular testing service, IELTS (International English Language Testing System) is provided by British Council, IDP: IELTS Australia, and Cambridge English Language Assessment (IELTS, 2016). This test system adopts a 9-band scale in test evaluations. The levels and band numbers are arranged as in expert user 9, very good user 8, good user 7, competent user 6, modest user 5, limited user 4, extremely limited user 3, intermittent user 2, non-user 1, and did not attempt the test 0 (The IELTS 9-band Scale, 2016). According to the ITAP, ITAs who do not meet the required speaking proficiency will

need to take Oral Skills (OS) courses and Teaching Method (TM) courses depending on their exact English language speaking proficiency test results.

Table 2

Guidelines Used in Placing New Students (International Teaching Assistant Program, 2016)

iBT Speaking Subtest	IELTS Speaking Band	Placement Test Required?	Class Required?	Permission to Teach?
28-30	8.5-9.0	NO	NO Exempt from ITAP	YES – Permission to teach at full pass level
26-27	8.0	NO	NO Exempt from ITAP	YES – Permission to teach at conditional pass level
24-25	7.5	YES	YES 8-week TM or 8-week OS + TM	YES – Permission to teach at conditional pass level while enrolled in ITAP
21-23	7.0	YES	YES 8-week OS + TM or 16-week OS + TM	In some cases, may be permitted to teach at conditional pass level
0-20	0-6.5	NO	YES 16-week OS + TM	NO

Participants

The participants in this study were recruited mainly through my personal network. I met Kong at an international student gathering back in 2011 in the US. The following year, Kong was invited to join a research project I conducted as a part of coursework. Since then our friendship developed, which paved the way for my current research participant recruiting. When I approached Kong about the possibility of becoming a research participant for the current study,

he gladly agreed. Kong also provided me with the contact information of other four ITAs in his department. After I sent out email invitations to those four ITAs, Jun replied my email and agreed to be a participant. Kelly and I met at a night at the museum activity which is a community outreach program sponsored by the University. During the event, I met one of my participants, Jun, and was later introduced to his colleague, Kelly. After I talked to Kelly about my research, she became interested in the study and agreed to be a participant.

Kong (pseudonym) is a 29-year-old male Chinese doctoral candidate in the Department of Mathematics. He completed his undergraduate study in mathematics at a key comprehensive university located in Southern China and came to the US in 2010 for the purpose of continuing his graduate study in the same field at this Southeastern university. Kong started gaining teaching experience in Fall 2013 as an ITA in the Department of Mathematics.

Jun (pseudonym) is a male ITA who was also enrolled in the Department of Mathematics at the research site. Before coming to the US for doctoral studies, Jun completed his undergraduate coursework at a university in China. Now he is teaching introductory mathematics classes to undergraduate students at this research site.

Kelly (pseudonym) was originally from Jakarta, Indonesia, went to high school in Taiwan, and worked as a Chinese Language Teacher in Indonesia afterwards. In 2006, Kelly started her undergraduate study at a community college in the US and later on attended a liberal arts college. Currently Kelly is entering her last year as a doctoral candidate at a southeastern university where she is teaching discrete mathematics as part of her teaching assistantship. Because of her passion for teaching, Kelly decided to stay in academia after graduation.

Timeframe for the Study

After receiving permission to conduct this study from the university's Institutional Review Board (see Appendix B), I started collecting data in March, 2016 and ended in May 2016. During the data collection process, I visited the ITAs' classrooms for the purpose of observation and conducted face-to-face interviews with the ITAs (see Appendix C for detailed classroom observation and interview schedules). After the data collection, I spent 3 to 4 months analyzing the data and completed the final project afterwards.

Data Collection Methods

A historical survey of qualitative research suggested that this method of inquiry has undergone seven moments that approached this type of research in different ways. These moments included the traditional, the modernist, blurred genres, the crisis of representation, the postmodern, postexperimental inquiry, and the future (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008). The shifts of these moments were reflective of the changing paradigms and epistemologies from the canon of positivist to the post-post period (Gergen & Gergen, 2000; McKenzie, 2005). Given its historical complexity, qualitative research in the broad stroke is conceived as “a situated activity that locates the observer in the world . . . [and] consists of a set of interpretive, material practices that make the world visible” (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008, p. 4).

Based on a poststructural perspective, I view meaning in qualitative research as socially constructed and reality as “fluid, ephemeral, and ever-changing” (Cooper & White, 2011, p. 6). Due to this subjective nature of conducting research, qualitative researchers regard the co-constructed experience between the researcher and the researched as one vital component of understanding reality, because knowledge is viewed as situated rather than transcendental (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008). It is through the process of probing the dynamic human subjectivity

that a qualitative researcher begins to become actively involved in research, elucidate the nature of the research question, identify potential assumptions to the study being conducted, and become a more capable knower (Cooper & White, 2011). Because of its subjectivity, qualitative researchers are less concerned with the findings' generalizability or universality; instead, they are more interested in understanding a particular phenomenon through thick description (Geertz, 1973), which assists the inductive data analysis process (Flick, von Kardorff, Steinke, & Jenner, 2004). In this study, interview, classroom observation, and research journals were used as data collection methods.

Interview

In the field of social science, interview has been widely used as a data collection technique due to its ubiquity in our daily life (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006; Holstein & Gubrium, 1997; Mann, 2010). Based on epistemological perspectives, different metaphors are used to describe interview. For example, Kvale (1996) discussed the metaphors of interviewers as miners and travellers, which depicted two epistemologies of conducting research. The mining case is guided by a positivist thinking that views truth as fixed and obtainable through extraction; whereas from poststructural, postmodern, constructivist camps, a traveller metaphor considers truth or knowledge production as co-constructed in a context. Other metaphors that critique the positivist perspective of interview include "camera" (Warren & Karner, 2009, p.155) and "interpersonal drama" (Pool, 1957, p.193, as cited in Holstein & Gubrium, 1997).

While the wave of interview-based research is on the rise, scholars are cautious of the largely uncritical examination of the epistemologies, assumptions, and methodologies embedded in interview process (Block, 2000; Mann, 2010; Richards, 2009; Talmy, 2010). Block (2000) mentioned that interview researchers need to be cognizant of the position construction aspect of

their data, as the speech that participants produce is not only veridical but also symptomatic (Kvale, 1996). The former refers to the reliable accounts in research interviews generated by participants, while in the latter case, participants' accounts are about their relationship to the interview context. This interpretive perspective places salience on the voices of research participants and how those voices are constitutive and representative of discourse circulation in a particular community.

Along the same line as Block's argument, in a more recent discussion of the theorization of interview in applied linguistics, Talmy (2010) suggested that due to its ubiquity in social science research, interview has been naturalized with certain ideologies in language and communication. This type of conceptualization of what Briggs (2007) termed the communicable cartography of interview views language as a neutral medium, interview data as reports, and interview as a research instrument to further one's approximation of the essential reality. This conception of interview does not align well with the current study, which is guided by Critical Theory and Poststructuralist Theory that view power relations as crucial in the production of truth. To increase the reflexivity of interview, Talmy (2010) proposed a conception of interview as social practice that views interview data as coconstructed between the interviewee and interviewer, interactional context as valuable for understanding interviewees' participation, power asymmetries as a critical aspect to attend to in data representation, and data analysis as process-oriented. (See Appendixes D and E for the interview questions in English and Chinese, respectively.)

Classroom Observation

Similar to the paradigmatic shift within interview research, observation as a basic data collection method in qualitative research is critiqued for its mining nature (Angrosino &

Rosenberg, 2011). Observation in the classic sense adheres to the creed of the positivist in that researchers could, following standardized procedures, produce objective, valid, and reliable research reports (Gold, 1997). Under this paradigm, minimal researcher participation is encouraged because interactions with research subjects would interfere with the data production process thus impacting its quality and research objectivity and reliability (Angrosino & Rosenberg, 2011). After postmodern and poststructural turns (St. Pierre, 2011), contemporary field observations are characterized with features of obtaining more than a peripheral membership role in a research community, understanding the impossibility of finding truth through integration of observer and insider perspectives, and research subjects as collaborators (Angrosino & Rosenberg, 2011). Given the ITAs' teaching schedules, I conducted classroom observations of each ITA 2 times a week. In total, I had 10 classroom observations with each ITA. During the observations, I was present in their classrooms for the entire session and used an audio recording device to help me document their lectures.

Research Journal

In the form of field notes, research journals provided me opportunities to contemplate issues emerging from observations. As educational research enters its postfoundational era, the notion of reciprocity becomes crucial for scholars to delve into because it changes the relationship between the researcher and the researched, reconceptualizes what counts as valid knowledge, and ultimately transforms a positivist view of research to research as praxis (Weems, 2006). In the flux of changing paradigms, a researcher's reflexivity, which signals to one's deep self-reflections and understanding of participants, adds significant value in research rigor (Tracy, 2010). In this study, research journals mainly consisted of my researcher positionality and reflections of interviews and classroom observations. Research journals were documented in the

form of written English texts upon the completion of 1 day’s fieldwork (see Appendix F for the observational field note form). A brief summary of the data collection methods is provided in Table 3 below.

Table 3

Summary of the Data Collection Methods

Data Collection Methods	Notes
Pre-Study Meeting	To meet the ITAs, introduce the study, explain the consent form, and schedule the classroom observations and interviews (30-60 minutes)
Classroom Observations	To observe ITA classroom practices (40 minutes to 60 minute session for each ITA)
Interviews	Interviews (30-60 minute session for each ITA)
Research Journal	To capture field reflections related to the research topic

Triangulation

Triangulation is a research procedure that improves the credibility of a study through a search for convergence amongst multiple data sources including observations, interviews, and documents (Denzin, 1989). The use of multiple data collection methods is intended to

compensate for the shortcomings of each method and bring their respective advantages to increase researcher confidence and research credibility (Guba, 1981). This process of triangulation involves categorizing the data, finding common themes, and eliminating overlapping topics (Creswell & Miller, 2000). In the current study, I sought to garner data from face-to-face interviews with the ITAs, classroom observations, and the researcher's journal which is a reflection of the actions and interactions that took place in the field. Emerging in different forms and settings, these three types of data complement one other in understanding ITAs' professional identity development. Taken together, they serve an important role in improving the credibility and trustworthiness of the study.

Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness in qualitative research is achieved through thick description, immersion in the field, data triangulation, multivocality, and member checks (Tracy, 2010). It is important that researchers provide concrete details regarding the different facets of a project so that readers could arrive at their own conclusions. In other words, readers have the opportunities to participate in the meaning making process. In this study, I used multiple data sources including in-depth interviews, classroom observations, and research journals to achieve trustworthiness. Member checks were also conducted during the data analysis and the dissertation drafting processes.

Data Collection Procedure

Gaining Access

As an international graduate student in the US, I have established relationships with the International Student Association, Chinese Student and Scholar Association, and Chinese students. Being a member of these communities gives me an insider position on gaining access to

participants. This researcher insider status refers to membership in a community where the research is based (Kanuha, 2000). For example, as a European American scholar, Best (2003) displayed her insider position in examining racial identities with a female African American student and a female Latino student through her gender, role as a student, and high school experience. The counterpart of an insider membership role is an outsider, which considers a researcher to lack experiences similar to the participants'. In conducting research on bereaved parents, Dwyer and Buckle (2009) were questioned by research participants on their lack of experience in losing family members. While both insider/outsider positions have merits and caveats in providing the researchers with access, entry, reflexivity, authenticity, and data collection (Serrant-Green, 2002), it is also crucial for researchers to be aware of the dualism. In this study, I explored the space between the two positions and reflected upon the process of qualitative research as I gained access to the participants. After the participants agreed to join the research, I arranged meetings with each one of them to simply discuss the main ideas of this research so that they could become familiarized with the study. Meanwhile the meetings also helped the participants understand me as a researcher and a human being. Such discussions or rapport pulled my position as a researcher from the distance and downplayed the authoritative role of a researcher in the study.

Gaining Consent

Glesne (2010) pointed out that when conducting research in organizations or agencies, obtaining consent from gatekeepers is important. In addition, researchers need to make the best decisions in terms of which gatekeepers they ought to be looking for. Glesne indicated that both gatekeepers of high or low profile may yield unproductive results because there are power relations involved in this system. Consent obtained from people of high position may not be well

executed; likewise, agreement from lower ranking personnel may encounter rejection from decision makers or power possessors. It will be less effortful if the researcher is acquainted with an insider affiliated with that organization. This way, the insider may offer more valuable suggestions on where the consent-seeking process shall begin. When conducting research with individuals, Glesne suggested that it is beneficial for the researchers to present their plans of study appealingly to the potential participants. Moreover, researchers might also utilize informal settings to familiarize themselves with relevant personnel for their studies. After obtaining IRB approval, I discussed ethical issues with each ITA so they understood that their participation was voluntary and their confidentiality was protected throughout the entire study. During the data collection process, I also sought the ITAs' or even their supervisors' consent (see Appendixes G and H) for additional information regarding certain topics such as printed version of their students' online course evaluations.

Data Analysis

Narrative Analysis

Characterized by what scholars refer to as the “narrative or discursive turn” (Pavlenko, 2007, p. 164) in social science, researchers in the field of sociology, psychology, and education have shown interest in using “narratives as discursive actions” (Gergen & Gergen, 2006) to understand an individual’s life experience (Bamberg, 2006; Higgins & Sandhu, 2014; Kraus, 2006; McLeod, 2006). Metaphorically speaking, narrative research is known as first wave, second wave, and third wave (Vásquez, 2011). Some of the leading scholars in the first wave of narrative research, which occurred in the 1960s, include Labov (1972) and Polanyi (1985) who considered narratives to be long personal stories that were elicited through interviews and analyzed in structuralist fashions (Ives & Juzwik, 2015). In the second wave of narrative

analysis-in-context, attention shifted from Labovian paradigm to post-Labovian and ethnography of communication (Georgakopoulou, 2006). While less orthodox in its scope, the second wave is critiqued for its static, neutral, and homogenizing tones in analyzing context-text relationship (Duranti & Goodwin, 1992). In the age of identity (Bucholtz & Hall, 2005), the third wave encapsulates notions of late modernity, identities-in-interaction, and practice-based theories of genre (Georgakopoulou, 2006). Narratives in the third wave are known as small stories that are defined as follows:

Small stories . . . are employed as an umbrella-term that covers a gamut of under-represented narrative activities, such as tellings of ongoing events, future or hypothetical events, shared (known) events, but also allusions to tellings, deferrals of tellings, and refusals to tell. These tellings are typically small when compared to the pages and pages of transcript of interview narratives. (Georgakopoulou, 2006, p. 123, as cited in Norton & Early, 2011)

With these methodological and analytical shifts, the narrative approach in identity research, situated from a poststructuralist perspective, is gaining prominence because it values how an individual's subjectivity or position (Davies & Harré, 1990) is constructed in interactions and foregrounds topics of deconstruction, macrolevel discourses, ideologies, and power in narrative analysis (Higgins & Sandhu, 2014).

The main forms of narrative analysis focus on thematic and content analysis (Pavlenko, 2007). I used the In Vivo coding method and thematic analysis to analyze the narrative data. In Vivo coding method refers to the process of extracting words and phrases from qualitative data and highlighting individuals' voices in coding (Saldaña, 2012). In Vivo coding method is commonly applied in the first cycle of data analysis or initial coding, which is constructive, to the development of researchers' ownership of their data and an easier second cycle of data analysis, which is more analytic (Saldaña, 2012). Thus, this coding method was fruitful for understanding ITAs' teaching experience at an American university. After the initial coding, I

examined the coding results and conducted the second cycle of analysis by using thematic analysis to synthesize, classify, and conceptualize his findings. Thematic analysis is a commonly used data analysis method to encode qualitative information with the facilitation of themes, patterns, and models with themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006). In applying thematic analysis, I referred to Boyatzis's (1998) three steps; i.e., sampling and design issues, developing themes and code, and validating and using the code.

Translation

Due to potential bias, the involvement of translators, and epistemological concerns, translation adds another layer of complexity in the interpretation and credibility of qualitative research (Temple & Young, 2004). In the current research, I initially designed interview questions only in English. However, during some informal dialogues with the Chinese ITAs, they suggested to me that the Chinese language would be better than English language for interviews. As discussed in Chapter II, language is intertwined with an individual's identity development; I was prepared to discuss the implications of choosing one's first language over English language in the discussion section. In action, I, as a native Chinese speaker, transcribed the Chinese interviews first and then translated them into English (see Appendix I). Both results were presented to the Chinese ITAs for verification and clarification. Modifications were made upon the Chinese ITAs' request. As regarding the Iranian ITA, only English language was used throughout the data collection process.

Researcher Positionality

Situated in Critical Theory and Poststructural Theory, I considered my research role as interactive, reflexive, and empowering. First of all, the power hierarchy in the field needs to be repositioned in a way that reflects a more inclusive and balanced setting so that both researchers

and participants contribute to the research topics. Second, utterances need to be given historical considerations. I am aware of the references that the researcher and participants' words can make and the view that discourse is socially constructed. This perspective requires me to be reflexive of not only the words and bodily movements produced by the participants but also how I position the participants and am being positioned at the same time. Lastly, the humanistically, I believe that, in a critically oriented study, participants need to be made aware of how power relations in general produces the enterprise that stratifies society, commodifies language, instrumentalizes knowledge, and degrades education.

Summary of Chapter III

Chapter III introduced my understanding of a qualitative study and discussed the research design of the study. Discussions included definition of case study, background knowledge of the participants, settings, instruments used in data collection, timeframe of the study, and narrative analysis. Chapter IV launches the data analysis and results.

IV

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to understand how ITAs develop their professional identity at a US university through a qualitative approach of multi-case study. In order to do so, I recruited one doctoral student and two doctoral candidates from the Department of Mathematics at the university. As I mentioned in Chapter III, each participant's demographic information differed regarding the time being ITAs, teaching experience prior to assuming an ITA position at this university, years in their respective doctoral programs, and country of origin.

Data sources in the study included semi-structured interviews with the three participants, classroom observations, and research journals in which I recorded my own reflections of the ITAs' classroom practice, questions to be incorporated in the next round of interviews, important discoveries in the field trips, and understandings of their professional identity development. After coding and thematic analysis of the interview transcripts, coherent narratives were written and were used to address each research question in this chapter.

The research questions that guided the current study's critical perspective of the three ITAs' professional identity development at a US university are listed below:

How do international graduate students construct their professional identities at a U.S. university once they become international teaching assistants (ITAs)?

- a. What role does undergraduates' feedback play into ITAs' professional identity development?
- b. In what ways do ITAs' interactions with their supervisors and colleagues influence their teaching practice?

- c. To what extent does English language use in academic settings play a role in ITAs' professional identity development?

Introduction

Identity research has drawn scholarly interest in the disciplines of anthropology, sociology, psychology, and education, shedding new light on how human beings make sense of who we are in various contexts (Darvin & Norton, 2014; Holland & Lachicotte, 2007; Tsui, 2011). With the development of this body of work, our understanding of identity has shifted from an essentialized and fixed view of identity to a more fluid and dynamic conceptualization of identity. Underlying this change is a paradigmatic adjustment from positivism to critical inquiry based practice, which challenges the dichotomized view of salient educational issues including native and nonnative English speaking teachers in TESOL (Kung, 2015), the discursive construction of us and them (Lin, Wang, Akamatsu, & Riazi, 2002), the contestation between theory and practice (Yayli, 2008). The adjustment foregrounds a multilayered and power-laden understanding of identity development and points to the complex and contradictory nature of identity development by arguing for an influence of power dynamics embedded in the micro level, meso level, and macro level of educational issues. In educational linguistics, scholars have investigated the construct of identity from perspectives of second language learners (Norton, 2012), language teachers (Ruohotie-Lyhty, 2013), heritage language learners (Leeman, 2015), and NNESTs/NESTs (Llurda, 2013), using various data analysis techniques and conceptual frameworks. The significance of studying ITAs lies in the fact that they are first and foremost teachers whose actions in their professional workplace could influence the students' learning experience. Additionally, ITAs are demographically underrepresented in comparison with the admission of students who are European Americans and African Americans. Their marginality as ITAs also stems from their countries of origin where English language is typically

not used either as their first language or lingua franca; thus, their potential vulnerability to the discourses of native norms and power relations that serve the interests of the dominant groups. Guided by critical inquiry, the current study aimed to extend this body of work on NNESTs' identity development and further shed light on how ITAs develop their professional identity on US campuses.

In the beginning of the following section, brief biographies from each participant are provided so that the readers would know the ITAs' previous life history and their teaching philosophy. To set the stage for answering the research questions, I used my classroom observation data to provide information on the participants' classes including classroom routine, ITAs' teaching style, and their ways of approaching the students. The organization of the proceeding sections is guided by the three research questions that highlight the influences of students' feedback, interactions with their supervisors and colleagues, and their English language use in academic settings on ITAs' professional identity development. Narratives relevant to explaining the research questions are distilled from the data pool to facilitate readers' understanding of the ITAs' professional identity development in relation to the ITA conceptual framework provided in Chapter II.

Jun's Biography

Jun received his K-12, bachelor's, and master's education in Mainland China, and he always considered his English to be the best among all the subjects when he was a student. Such realization made Jun quite confident about his English language proficiency and participation in various English tests in Mainland China. When Jun started his undergraduate study at a southern university in Mainland China, due to curriculum policy, Jun's English language learning motivation shifted from personal interest to obtaining satisfactory scores on tests and his access

to English classes was significantly curtailed during the last 2 years at the university. Toward the end of his undergraduate study, he successfully applied for a master's level mathematics program at the same university and was offered a teaching assistantship, which states grading papers as Jun's only responsibility. Upon his graduation, Jun received an offer from the doctoral program in mathematics from the southeastern university where the current study was conducted. Along with the offer, the department also awarded him a teaching assistantship, which consisted of teaching undergraduate mathematics, holding office hours, and tutoring students at the mathematics lab on campus. Based on my interaction with the three participants, this assistantship was awarded to most applicants who were admitted to the doctoral program.

Jun's Class

In the 2016 Spring semester Jun taught Math 110 (Finite Mathematics), which is an introductory math class for undergraduate nursing students. In the class, Jun's teaching style was mostly interactive in that he constantly attempted to ask the students questions relating to certain mathematic concepts or questions; he also used many bodily movements in his lecture and walked around in front of the classroom with his hands pointing to the board and the projected screen. In Jun's class, he was interested in using visual aids to explain his points, such as drawing the standard deviation graphs on the board. Despite of Jun's passion for teaching and engaging practice, very few students were observed to participate in any type of classroom discussions or questions initiated by Jun. Based on my field notes, most of Jun's classes followed a quite fixed pattern in which Jun first presented the topic of the day, introduced key concepts relating to that topic, and provided the students with some math problems, which were displayed on the big screen. According to Jun and other two ITAs, this kind of teaching practice is shared

by other 100-level courses because they are all designed by their course leaders under the supervision of one person in charge of Introductory Mathematics courses in the department.

In terms of his teaching practice, there was no rapport at the beginning of each class between the teacher and students, which was a feature also observed in Kong’s teaching. In a 50-minute session, Jun spent most of his time lecturing, trying to cover the topics assigned. For some topics, Jun thought the 50 minutes allocated for the topic was not enough; he was always in a hurry when lecturing those topics. While he was lecturing, Jun tried to incorporate a sense of humor in his language use from time to time, although there was no feedback from the students upon his language play in class. For example, during his introduction of a math formula, he told the class, “Believe me, this formula is not the most complicated one.” At another point when Jun gave the students specific steps about how to use their calculators to solve a math problem, he said, “First step, you press the on to wake up the calculator.” Table 4 below provides a diagram that displays Jun’s class in terms of the average time he spent on opening remarks, introducing the topic of the day, exercise session, and conclusion.

Table 4

Jun’s Class Diagram

Average Time	Content
2 minutes	Opening remarks
15 minutes	Introducing the topic of the day
18 minutes	Exercise
1 minute	Conclusion

Kelly's Biography

As a third-generation Chinese, Kelly was born in Indonesia and received her elementary and secondary school education there. Due to political turmoil in Indonesia targeted specifically at Chinese immigrants in 1996, Kelly's parents sent her off to Taiwan for her high school education. During her time in Taiwan, she spent 1 year learning the Chinese language and another 3 years for her high school education. Since she was not planning to attend higher education in Taiwan, there was no need for her to take the National College Entrance Exam, which is a high-stakes test for all students who intend to attend higher education institutions in Taiwan. When she finished her high school in Taiwan, Kelly returned to Indonesia and started teaching Chinese to kindergarteners, a learning population she enjoyed working with.

Historically, there have been certain times when teaching and using the Chinese language were forbidden for political purposes. However, with the economic development in China and its influence on Indonesia, the Chinese language has gained some currency and is now widely pursued as a useful skill; thus, the growing popularity of teaching Chinese in Indonesia when Kelly returned from Taiwan. After a brief working experience, Kelly decided to go to the US for her undergraduate education at a community college. She then transferred to a 4-year college and then moved on to her current doctoral program in mathematics. Kelly's original plan for her education in the US was to become a Chinese language teacher at either the kindergarten level or the university level, but the language education program at her university only provided teacher education programs in ESL, Spanish, and French. Thus, she started looking for alternatives and found her interest in mathematics, because similar to the Chinese language, her knowledge in mathematics, which is, based on Kelly's understanding, a subject that deals with numbers and formulas that do not change across countries, was extensive enough to teach at the undergraduate

level in the US. Because of her more than 10 years staying in the US, nearly 4 years of teaching experience as an ITA, and familiarity with the US education system, Kelly knows how to approach the students and ways to establish her classroom authority.

Kelly's Class

In the Department of Mathematics, most of the time, the person in charge of the Introductory Mathematics courses assigns courses to the ITAs prior to the beginning of each semester, but the ITAs do have an option to apply for certain courses they would like to teach once they have gained some teaching experience after 1 or 2 years' teaching. In Kelly's case, she preferred the option of requesting teaching a new course whenever the opportunity arose, because this would not only develop her teaching experience with different courses and challenge herself as a teacher but also promote her professionalism on her Curriculum Vitae. The semester of this study, she was teaching Math 301 (Discrete Mathematics), a rather advanced level course not often taught by graduating PhD candidates. According to Kong, the department usually assigned lower level courses, mostly 100-level, to doctoral students who are about to graduate as they need to not only teach the undergraduate courses but also work on their dissertations and attend to other graduation-related business. In Kelly's classes, she always wore professional attire, such as a black suit or dark colored formal outfit, which adequately distinguished herself from her audience. In Kelly's comments, she wanted the students to know where to draw the line between having friendly conversations with their teacher and violating classroom policy. For example, when the students in the back of the classroom started their own discussions in the middle of a lecture, she would call out, "it's been busy there." When the students started to prepare to leave the classroom as the clock was about to turn to the end of the class, Kelly would say to her students, "It's still 11: 49, not 11: 50 yet," indicating that they

could only leave the room when it was 11:50. However, when Kelly was not enacting her authority in class, she was an approachable teacher. In the middle of her lecture, she would tell a joke about her mistakes in class, as when she said,

Until now I still don't know how to fix it. I remember when I went to a job interview, someone told me that this lady, I don't know, she probably has a rich husband, so she told her students, she is going to give them one dollar for each student that finds her mistakes, and that will motivate her to not make mistakes, but I can't afford it.

During the week when the movie *Batman vs. Superman* was released, she asked the students if they wanted to watch the movie. When Kelly knew one of the students was sick, she asked the student after class if he was getting better. Kelly's class involved the most frequent instructor-student communication and bodily movement of the instructor among the participants. For instance, at one point during the semester, she divided the class into different groups and assigned them group tasks. The students were given 10 minutes to solve two math problems. After 10 minutes, Kelly asked the groups to pick one student to go to the front and put their answers on the board. Table 5 provides a diagram of the time Kelly spent in various activities.

Table 5

Kelly's Class Diagram

Average Time	Content
2 minutes	Opening remarks
6 minutes	Introducing topic of the day
39 minutes	Exercise
1 minute	Conclusion

Kong's Biography

Kong was born in a southern city in China; his formal education in English started when he was a 3rd grade student in elementary school. Looking back on his English learning experience in China, he mentioned that English language education in China is not well balanced in the sense that the lessons are mostly focused on form rather than meaning which, based on Kong's reflection, is not helpful in preparing learners to verbally communicate with others in English. When Kong came to the US for his doctoral education in 2010, his English speaking proficiency was significantly lower than it is now, and Kong attributes his lack of English speaking competence to the overly grammar-oriented classes in China. Unlike Jun and Kelly, Kong was not quite clear about what he wanted to do after he completed his undergraduate education in China as he did not apply for his doctoral education in the US until 1 year after his graduation. During his early years in the PhD program at the university, Kong did not have a tentative plan of what he wanted to do with his doctoral degree, either. In our informal interactions, Kong indicated that he was the kind of person who is not ambitious about what he or she wants to do with life, thus Kong rarely thinks about his future and career development.

Kong's Class

In the Spring semester of 2016, Kong's class met on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday; although his class was assigned to be 50 minutes long, he usually dismissed his class in 30 minutes. While teaching, he preferred to be sitting on the chair behind the podium rather than standing next to it or walking around in front of the class. Kong mentioned that his lack of mobility in class was due largely to the math subject itself, which requires the instructor to constantly conduct math calculations on the computer screen. Kong's teaching style was more about teaching straight to the point; he did not seek opportunities to interact with the students

actively. At the beginning of the class, Kong typically used one or two sentences to greet the class and introduce his topic. Following the brief introduction, Kong switched into a teacher-centered lecture mode, which is quite an authoritative teaching style. However, at times Kong also positioned himself as an inexperienced instructor in the US. For instance, during one of the classroom observations, the classroom telephone rang, Kong was uncertain if he should take the phone call or just leave it ringing, so he asked the students about what he should do. During the interview, he explained to me that since he does not have enough teaching experience in the US, maybe his students know better about what to do in those unpredictable situations. During the data collection, very few times did I observe any interaction between Kong and his students. Classroom communication between the instructor and the students typically followed a clear pattern in which Kong initiated the dialogue by asking the students “any questions?”, however, it was rare to observe any students’ response to Kong’s questions.

Throughout Kong’s class, he maintained a serious disposition and rarely smiled at the students, which was quite different from Kelly and Jun who were both very cheerful and passionate about their teaching. For example, at one point in class Kong, in a very calm fashion, made the announcement to the students that that day was the last class of the semester. Kong said to the students, “you are done,” and moved on with his lesson plan. One student upon hearing that announcement raised both of her hands above her head as a way to celebrate this day and cheered. In terms of the students’ classroom participation, there were mixed observations as some students used their paper-based notebooks in which they wrote their notes; while others were seen to use their smart phones or laptops to accomplish the task. However, the use of electronic devices in Kong’s class was not strictly for academic purposes, as many students were observed to use their devices for other purposes such as watching movies, sending text messages,

and taking pictures. When teaching, Kong’s choice of attire was rather causal compared with other two ITAs. Table 6 provides a diagram of the time Kong spent of various classroom activities.

Table 6

Kong’s Class Diagram

Average Time	Content
1 minute	Opening remarks
5 minutes	Introducing topic of the day
22 minutes	Exercise
5 seconds	Conclusion

Findings for Research Question 1

Research Question 1: What role does undergraduates’ feedback play in ITAs’ professional identity development?

Marginalized Status of Monotone English

On the end of semester course evaluations, one of the most frequent comments by the students was the ITAs’ monotone English, which carries some negativity about the ITAs’ English language proficiency. Based on the stories from the three participants, the researcher problematized the concept of monotone English and demonstrated how it was produced, legitimized, and reproduced in the ITAs’ teaching contexts. For Jun, his understanding of monotone English comes from senior ITAs who shared their course evaluations with him. Those interactions allowed him to see how the students reacted to the ITAs’ English and associate his English to monotone English when teaching.

monotone 这个词，应该是，我是会问比我高几级的，他们已经教过课的，问他们已经教过课的会怎么样，会不会有不好的 evaluation，或者学生反馈怎么样，他们都有提到的，对，这个应该是我第一次知道所谓的 monotone，然后后面自己讲的时候会有点对号入座，应该是这样的逻辑。

(Translation)

This monotone speech claim comes from senior ITAs. I used to ask them about how the students would evaluate their classes, and they all mentioned this monotone speech. I think this is my first time getting to know this so called monotone English, and then when I started teaching I kinda considered myself as a monotone English speaker as well.

Jun further compared his monotone English to the way he speaks Mandarin Chinese by saying that he could feel the changing tones and emphases when he is speaking Mandarin Chinese. He added to the discussion of monotone English with his own observation of Americans' exaggerated way of being, something that may help the students focus their attention to the class.

我的 evaluation 上就有这个词，很单调，我觉得这么讲，我们平时讲普通话的时候，你明显感觉到重点放在哪里，或者你讲到哪一段的时候哪里 high 一点，一堂课，一个老师讲话又升有降，如果是我我也会比较偏向第一个，第二个比较难 focus，听着听着就困了，而且我觉得美国人讲话做表情就是比较夸张的，我自己感觉是这样，你跟他们说个事情，会 really, oh my god.

(Translation)

You will see this monotone comment on my course evaluation--there's no rhythm. Let me put it this way, when we speak Mandarin Chinese, you can feel where your emphasis is at, when you get to certain point, your voice becomes higher; and in a class, if a teacher speaks with rising and falling tones I would prefer to have this teacher, because monotone teachers are hard to focus on. The more you listen to their lecture, the more likely you will fall asleep. And I think Americans are like very exaggerated with their talking and facial expressions, when you tell them something, they will be like "really, oh my God."

In the above story, Jun suggested that if a person is a second language learner, then his or her second language tends to be monotone; however, in one of his stories, Jun legitimized the construct of monotone English through his own experience. He indicated that monotone speech

is due to the level of difficulty of the topic and the instructor's lesson preparation. If the topic is of interest to Jun or is something for which he is well prepared, then Jun will speak with passion, which distances his speech pattern from monotone English. Jun further commented on his classroom observation of some American TAs and the fact that they also speak monotone English.

我觉得学生说我有 monotone 也是有道理的，有时候我自己也感觉到，就是那个 section 是我感兴趣的，或者是我准备的比较好，但会有一些你可能准备的一般，这个通过上课就能反应出来，如果你准备的比较好，你上课就会比较有激情，或者讲起来比较带感，如果那个话题实在是太简单，更本就感觉没什么好说了，你可能就会有 monotone，我也去听过其他美国 TA 的课，讲的也是相当 monotone。
(Translation)

I think the students' comments about my monotone English makes sense, sometimes I can feel that myself. If the section I'm teaching is interesting, or something for which I'm well prepared, then I teach the class with passion, but if it's a very easy topic, or I didn't spend much time preparing for the class, then I might have a monotone. I've been to other American TAs' classes; their speech is very monotone as well.

Differing from Jun's understanding of monotone English which first came from his interactions with senior ITAs, Kong's knowledge of this notion was well established by the time he arrived in the US. In Kong's interview, he commented on the monotone English feature that is shared by a significant number of English learners in China. In addition, Kong spoke of the importance of English language evaluation mechanism by a native speaker, which would determine if he is a monotone English speaker. In Kong's case, when he was evaluated by a NEST at the ITAP, he agreed with the evaluation result and considered himself a monotone English speaker; however, when such evaluation mechanism disappears, Kong's attention to monotone English speaking grows weak.

我觉得国内很早就知道了，就说中国人说英语很大的特点，就是说你中国人说英语平平的，没有这种语调，包括提问疑问句，不怎么升，升的那个程度就，但国内很多人说英语就是平平的念过去，我也不懂我自己那时候，因为没有人来评价

这个东西嘛，我知道有这个事，但是我不懂我算是哪种，学生也没有说这个 monotone 的问题吧。就是上 ITAP 的时候，老师指出这个 monotone 问题，我同意啊，因为她是 native speaker 嘛，现在没人更我提，我也不知道有没有。

(Translation)

I think many people in China know that one of the main characteristics of Chinese people's English speech is its flatness. There's no intonation, including asking questions, there's no rise, and I didn't know if I were like them, because no one was giving me an evaluation of my English speech. So you don't know if you are a monotone speaker. I got to know this during my ITAP training. The teacher told me that my English was monotone, and I agreed with her comment because she's a native speaker, but now I don't know if I'm speaking monotone English because no one is evaluating me.

The above stories portray monotone English as knowledge produced from one's interactions with others; in Kelly's story, her understanding of monotone English came from formal education through which she recognized the monotone speech pattern and the importance of intonation in her class.

I used to take public speaking, like a speech class, in undergraduate about monotone. If the voice is like the same the whole time, the loud and the softness, and everything, if it's the same, it's kinda monotone, because you don't hear it changing. So you kinda think as a teacher, the students have to stay for 50 minutes, you can not speak monotonely, you have to have sometimes speak louder, sometimes speak not louder, and sometimes, you speak it this way, sometimes you speak it the other way. You just want to tell them different things, you can't be monotone, and you are gonna try not to be.

Classroom Authority

Entering a US educational context, Kelly clearly understood the disadvantages of her outsider identity, because if she were to become a teacher of a subject other than mathematics, she needed to make great effort to accomplish that. To reverse her outsider identity, Kelly found the commonality between her previous Chinese language teaching experience and the subject of mathematics. For her, both subjects are language as they involve a certain amount of linguistic features such as grammar, writing, argumentation, and spelling. Being a language teacher for 2 years provided her some background knowledge in teaching mathematics. Furthermore, the fact

that mathematical figures and formulas are shared across the globe legitimizes Kelly's previous mathematics learning experience. She could utilize them in her new working environment because US mathematics is the same as any other country in the world.

The reason why I really like math is because I liked it in the beginning, and then when I came here it's a language I feel I'm familiar with, because everyone is using the same numbers. So when I came to the US, it's something that I felt familiar with, because it's the same numbers; how do you add things how do you subtract things, it's the same. I didn't feel like any transition, like big transition, because history, every place has its history, that means you got learn a different history. The United States has a different history from Chinese history, but the United States' math is the same as Chinese math. That's the reason I chose math, because I'm not from the United States, but when I came here, I probably said something like "oh I know how to do this"; it's not something where I had to start from zero.

Having that kind of knowledge legitimation, Kelly was quite confident about her content knowledge. While delivering, she understood the importance of establishing that authoritative teaching style because of the differences between Asian educational contexts in which the students by and large respect their teachers and the US where students tend to view student-teacher relationship as more balanced. On the other hand, Kelly understood her NNEST identity, which could impact her classroom authority because of a language barrier issue. To compensate for any English language-related issues, Kelly first mentioned that the syllabus works for her classroom authority image because it is in written form and has been proofread by others. Once the language issue has been solved, all Kelly needs to do is to be authoritative and lay down her classroom policy for the students, despite the fact that it is quite different from the kind of teaching practice one would see in Kelly's home culture.

First, the syllabus, that's one of the authority. You are not gonna have any language barrier, because everything is written down. You have someone to look at it, so that is definitely, you just have to enforce your rules that you put in your syllabus, and then you just have to be bold. Like here, you need to have the authority in class, I think that's the big point of it, because you can't expect the students will respect you and stay for the

whole class. You need to say, this is how I want it, this is the rule in the class, you are not allowed to leave, and you need to be more confrontational. In my culture, we are not very confrontational, we just do everything in the back. “Oh okay, you leave the class I’m just gonna count you absent, instead of saying ‘where are you going?’”.

In the above story, Kelly discussed how the syllabus could be used to facilitate her classroom authority. Additionally, she also found her access to the students’ grades to be helpful in that effort as well.

I mean the students sign up for the class, deal with it. I have their grade, so if they cannot accept the fact that I have an accent or I’m a NNEST, I mean it’s their problem; it’s not my problem. I will treat all students the same.

Through her reflection on the ITAP program on campus, Kelly suggested that it is another way in which ITAs become empowered because those who pass the program are considered to be proficient speakers of the English language. If students find it difficult to understand some ITAs’ language, then it could be the students’ problem.

I know a lot of people complain about ITAP, but I don’t really see it as a bad thing. I see it as a good thing; it’s another way to protect us ITAs. If students complain about our teaching, we can say I have passed the ITAP, the English is good enough to teach, why don’t you understand. Oh, so this student passed her ITAP so we definitely can understand her, it’s probably not her problem, it’s probably the students’ problem.

Compared with Kelly, Jun’s perception of classroom authority had less to do with language use. For him, classroom authority was more about an ITA’s lesson preparation, the number of mistakes they made in class, and ways to answer the students’ questions. Jun further indicated that to be authoritative in class would possibly create a ranking order in which the relationship between a teacher and the students is less equal.

那我没有想过通过这样来提升我的 authority, 因为我觉得权威这个事, 并不在于你讲多少数学方面的词汇, 你没必要, 我觉得这不是一个我可能会选择的途径来强调我的权威, 在我看来可能你每节课你准备的好, 你讲的东西你极少出错, 每个学生提出的问题, 你能非常好的回答, 如果他们认为是这样子, 你怎么点出来为

什么你那样是不对的，或者我可以判断出如何在一个错误的方向上得到那个解，然后你要注意哪些东西，我觉得这样的化就可以了，我没必要过分去说我的权威。我不属于严厉的老师，我觉得没必要就是弄的那么严厉，好像把别人都推到你的对立面。严厉的话，可能会有一种，就是很严厉的那种等级的，就是你们不属于，就感觉是那种一层一层上级和下级的那种关系。

(Translation)

I haven't thought about using academic words to improve my authority, because I think classroom authority does not have a lot to do with how many mathematic vocabularies you use. There is no need for that. For me, I think if someone can be well prepared for the class and make very few mistakes in class, and can answer the students' questions perfectly, then I think that's authority right there. There is no need to over the state of my classroom authority. I'm not one of those strict teachers; I think there is no need for that. Why would you antagonize people? To be a strict teacher probably means you are creating a ranked relationship where you have people who are above and those who are under.

While Kelly's classroom authority is more visible as she enacts her classroom policy from time to time and is quite verbal about ways to empower herself as an ITA, it is in many respects a different story for Kong. On one hand, Kong's classroom authority based on the researcher's observation was largely invisible. For example, whenever the students used their electronic devices or leave the room in the middle of their session, Kong would not respond to those classroom scenarios. On the other hand, Kong recognized the importance of classroom authority and viewed it as an essential quality for an instructor.

你作为一个数学博士生来说，明显在课堂中来说，你是一个 authority，这个是你的身份嘛，等于你是这堂课的 instructor，那肯定你是一个 authority 啊，我忘记了是我上课的时候人家跟我讲的还是自己查到的，反正大意就是说你既然做 TA，你做 instructor，你就得必须你得有 authority，不然学生会认为可能你连自己教的东西都没有信心，那凭什么来教他们，就你首先要有这个认识。

(Translation)

As a math PhD candidate, in a classroom you are definitely an authority. This is your identity; if you are an instructor of the class, then you are obviously an authority. I forgot if it is something others told me or I found about this myself. It's basically saying if you are a TA, an instructor, you must have authority, otherwise if you are not confident about what you teach, then how do you teach the students? You need to realize this first.

Becoming a Perfect Teacher

In the above theme, the three ITAs commented on the significance of establishing their own classroom authority. In the following stories, Kelly also indicated her teacher identity difference when teaching different level of students. Through her narrative, lower level students expect her to be a perfect teacher, while higher level students are less likely to have that expectation. Interestingly, Kelly did not challenge the lower level students' "perfect teacher" expectation.

There will always be negative comments, especially my first year, so many, 'cause I made so many mistakes. They will say "oh she makes so many mistakes it's confusing" and all that stuff. Because I started figuring out like if I teach 100 level I have to be perfect, I have to be precise, and make the least mistakes possible; you know, this is the way. But if I'm teaching 200 or 300 level, it's okay to make mistakes. "Oh let's try this; oh, it doesn't work," or "let's try another," you know because that's what it is. You just have to have trial and error because we try to teach them it's okay to make mistakes and that's actually what's gonna happen in real life what you wanna do is to check your answers so you don't make mistakes.

Findings for Research Question 2

Research Question 2: In what ways do ITAs' interactions with their supervisors and colleagues influence their sense of teaching practice?

American TAs are Better Teachers

Among the narratives of Kong and Jun, one common theme was their view of American TAs as better teachers mostly because of their English language superiority. According to Kong, he did not want to compare himself to American TAs because such comparisons were likely to cause some discomfort because it is unfair. For example, the students would prefer to sign up for a class taught by American TAs. Due to this unfairness, Kong has stopped thinking about what he referred to as unchangeable facts.

我不会刻意和美国 TA 比什么东西，你一比，你肯定觉得很多东西不公平，就是学生更倾向与美国 TA，对我们来说。为什么给自己找不自在，就不去想它呗，你比了你肯定觉得不公平，那能怎么样，你没法改这个事实，那你为什么要去想它呢，你这个事实你没法改变就丢那儿，为什么要找不自在。

(Translation)

I will try not to compare myself with American TAs, because when you do that, you will definitely see some unfairness going on, like students prefer to have American TAs as their teachers. So why would you make yourself uncomfortable, just forget about it. The comparison is definitely unfair; so what, you can't change the fact. Then why would you think about it? I think if American TAs know how to teach, then it is for sure that you will never be as good.

The discomfort produced during Kong's comparison with other American TAs was mainly due to his NNEST identity, as he just mentioned in the above story. Meanwhile he listened to American TAs' advice about setting up a relaxing classroom environment, a practice that is drastically different from Kelly's. Based on the American TAs' advice, being nice to the students would produce positive course evaluations, which would then be useful when Kong starts looking for jobs.

就个又考虑到一个问题，就包括我跟其他美国 TA 聊过这方面的，你现在只是 TA，你就尽量 be nice，因为你尽可能留一个好的 evaluation 在那里，对你以后找工作，然后你到时候找到工作后会更强硬，但是作为我们 TA 来说，我觉得大多数人的课都是比较宽松，我跟我办公室的也说过，有些类似这种问题，睁一只眼闭一只眼，你到时候升为 instructor，真正的 instructor，可能也会强硬一点。

(Translation)

I have talked with other American TAs about students not paying attention in class, they told me that now you are just a TA, so try to be nice, because you might get a good evaluation from them, which might be good for your future employment, and when you get a job after graduation you can be a tougher teacher. I think most TAs think that way, try to create a relaxing classroom environment. I've talked to my American office mate, he also said that we don't need to pay attention to students not paying attention in class, just pretend that we don't see it. When you become a real instructor, you can be tough.

Similar to Kong's reflection, Jun also thought that American TAs are better teachers because of the fact that they are native speakers. Additionally, his perception of them being better was influenced and maintained by the larger discourse of race in that Asians occupy an unfavorable position in the ITAs' educational contexts. Although he had not asked any of his students if they indeed prefer to have American TAs, he constructed the meaning of American TAs as better teachers from his own reflection and his interactions with professors in the department who shared his view.

我是觉得如果只看教课的话，不一定有美国人教的好，如果他们真的是认真准备，认真教课的话，我觉得这个是语言优势吧，是个 native speaker，就可能是学生会先入为主的想法，他们还是对肤色，人种还是有，先入为主的观念，啊你是个亚裔的，就根本不想搭理你了，我觉得这个应该是少数人的，一个班级当中是少数的，这个现象是存在的，这是人种，肤色的优势，所以他们这些 professor 都这么说，比教课我们是没有什么优势的，还不如好好搞你的 research。

(Translation)

In terms of teaching, I think American TAs can do a better job if they really seriously prepare for the class. This is because they are native speakers, they have that advantage. The students would prefer to have native speakers, so the students still view skin color and race to be important. "Oh, you are an Asian, I don't want to talk to you anymore." But I think those people are the minority, there are very few in a classroom though, but the advantages of race and skin color do exist. So the professors here told us that we don't have any advantages in teaching; it would be better if we concentrate on our research.

Research is Your Priority

Different from Jun who was told that research was his priority because American TAs possess more advantages in the teaching field, Kong's understanding of research as his priority derived from the institutional discourse of the graduation requirement, which is the completion of one's dissertation. Thus, according to Kong, he needed to focus more on his research so that he could satisfy his advisor or the department's requirement and graduate on time.

research 比 teaching 更重要，因为这关系到你能不能毕业的问题，明显是更重要的事，你 teaching 如果教不好，顶多系里看你教不好把你的 funding cut,但是对你毕业没太大影响其实，但你 research 搞不好，老师老板不让你毕业或者达不到系里要求，那就是大事了，更大的事了，我认为 research 肯定是更重要一些，相比之下比重更大一点,所以我会花更多时间在研究上。

(Translation)

Research is more important than teaching, because whether you can graduate or not depends on this. If you don't teach well, the worst thing the department can do is to cut your funding, but it won't really do any damage to your graduation. But if you can't do well on your research, like if you can't meet the department or your advisor's requirement, then it's a bigger problem. So I think research is more important compared to teaching, and I would spend more time on my research.

To further illustrate Kong's interest in research, below is a story of his view of the teaching award. The department set up a teaching award every year as a way to motivate the ITAs and TAs to become better teachers. In Kong's case, he was well aware of the teaching award but was not interested in working toward it. When discussing his lack of interest in becoming a better teacher, he pointed out the connection between his dissertation and graduation. During his interactions with his supervisor, Kong and his supervisor tended to spend more time discussing his research project instead of any pedagogically related issues from Kong's class. Kong believed that teaching should not cause too big of a problem for him because he has met the English language requirement and developed sufficient content knowledge; thus, he was not interested in asking his supervisor about any teaching issues. This did not imply that Kong has not encountered any teaching issues, as evidenced by his low students' feedback toward the end of his 1st year teaching as an ITA. By giving the example of accented English, Kong suggested that he would not discuss it with his supervisor who is also Chinese and presumably has an accent, because according to Kong, as long as someone is not a native speaker, this individual will have an accent.

因为要搞研究，也不会专门要想时间去搞 teaching award 这个事情，你首先得满足你的 advisor 的要求，你 above average 万一你 advisor 说不行呢，他要你做的很好，你不能说你 above average 能过就行了，到时候你允不允许毕业是你老板说的算好吧，所以 teaching award 对我来说没有 dissertation 那么重要。

(Translation)

Because I need to focus on my research, so I don't have time to really think about this teaching award thing. You have to satisfy your advisor first, right, even if your research is above average. What if your advisor says no, what if he wants you to do better? Whether you can graduate from this school or not mostly is dependent on your advisor, so compared with my dissertation, a teaching award is not that important.

跟导师交流一般基本是关于 research，他最多会问一下这学期 teaching 时间多不多，担心 teaching 会不会花你太多时间，影响到你做 research 这部分，其实也没什么可担心的，因为毕竟你英语考过了，而且教的这些东西对你来说不是什么难的东西，你都学过，你都知道。你要说口音，我老板也是中国人，我们之间互相提口音干什么，你不是 native speaker 那都有口音。

(Translation)

When I interact with my supervisor, most of the time we talk about my research. He probably would ask how much time I would spend teaching this semester, because he is concerned if teaching would cost too much time and impact my research. There is nothing to be worried about, because you passed the English language test, and you are teaching something that is not difficult for you, you've already learned it. Speaking of accent, my supervisor is also Chinese. Why would we talk about accent? If you are not a native speaker, you will have an accent.

Learning From Colleagues and Friends

While Kelly was the only instructor in her classes, she viewed teaching to be a collaborative work. During the interview, she mentioned the importance of having an American TA community for her to develop professionally, including exploring more effective teaching methods and designing lessons that are creative and different. She was also interested in testing out her teaching ideas when she was with her friends; a more diverse group in different walks of life. Kelly considered this as a learning experience for her to receive feedback from others who

are similar to the students in terms of content knowledge level; it also served as an opportunity to develop her ability in explaining mathematical problems and concepts.

Here in US my particular group, they are American TAs, the same as me. And it's great. Someone will say "oh, actually put them in groups, this will work," so I'll try, or something else, just try different things. You can't come up with everything by yourself. I also have friends that are not in here, that is more diverse friends. I have Russian friends, Americans, Chinese, so we just get together, and they are all from different backgrounds, different jobs, so it's pretty cool. So you get to see the perspective outside of your teaching, outside of your math, and you'd be surprised how many things you learn from your friends that you could apply to your classroom. 'Cause you know, they are an audience, too. So they would say "I would like to see my teacher do this," or something like that, and when you try to explain things, your friends will understand it, too. So it's almost like when you teach you try to explain it to the students and try to find the best way to explain things.

Findings for Research Question 3

Research Question 3: To what extent does English language use in academic settings play a role in ITAs' professional identity development?

American TAs as Role Models

In the previous stories, participants thought it was important to have classroom authority and tried to utilize various sources to do that. In Kelly's case, this involved syllabus writing, attending the ITAP program, and creating a more challenging teaching persona in class. For Kong, although such authoritative actions in class were significantly less visible, he did claim to have classroom authority. Despite the ITAs' awareness of classroom authority, they believed that their English language skills needed to be further advanced, and such advancement needed to be made in accordance with a native English speaker model. In the following story from Kong, he discussed his own way of learning and speaking correct English including intonation in reference to an American model.

现在上课的时候我会注意自己的英语，因为学生可以听出来我的错误，就好像你听外国人说中文，你可以听懂他们讲的东西，但是你肯定能听出错误来，所以

我在上课的时候就尽可能说的正确一点，然后我也试着模仿他们美国人讲话，包括语音语调。

(Translation)

Now when I'm teaching I will pay attention to my English language use, because the students can pick out my errors. It's just like when you listen to foreigners speak Chinese, you can understand what they are talking about, but you definitely would notice their errors, so in class I'm trying to speak as correctly as I can, and I do try to emulate how Americans speak including their intonation. You listen to their speech and try to copy that.

Similarly, Kelly commented on the importance of becoming a native language speaker so that the students would understand her lecture easier. The reinforcement of native speakers' superiority further produced an error correction phenomenon in which her perception of communication issues were all generated by her alone, and because of this problem generator identity, she wanted to become a better English language speaker.

You want to try to be a native language speaker. I think that's the goal, it's just easier that way, so people can understand me easier, too. But sometimes it's unavoidable if you grow up in another country. I mean if someone doesn't understand me, I will think it's my problem actually, so I will try to say it better.

Additionally, Kelly discussed her way of becoming more native-like, which was through immersing herself in an American English environment. Specifically, she mentioned how she used to create that language environment when she was in Indonesia through listening to English music and watching American movies. After she came to the US, she started forming a small teaching community with other American TAs, which is something that an ITA must do if he or she wants some professional development, particularly in language.

You just have to try. For some people it's really hard, for some people it's easy; you just never know. I think it comes easier to me than other people. You just have to hang out with Americans. I mean really, but I grew up listening to English music, watching American TV shows, American movies in Indonesia, so kinda having that environment a little bit. But after you get to the US, I mean having American friends, speaking English all the time? That really, really helps.

Thus, in Kelly's case, her access to American TV shows and movies from early on helped her develop a more comprehensive understanding of the language and culture. Additionally, her membership in an American TA community further improved her English language skills and developed a deeper sense of US TA professionalism. In these ways, Kelly distinguished herself from other ITAs who may not have had English language and culture exposure when they were growing up and opportunities or social skills to establish a more congenial relationship with American TAs. Besides this desire for English language and American people, language regulation was also observed. Kelly had been in the program for 5 years; when she first started teaching about 4 years ago, she had some issues delivering her questions, because the students could not understand what her questions were. In order to solve the problem, Kelly started figuring out that she needed to be able to talk in a straightforward fashion. She explained this language technique in the story below.

You just have to be straightforward. It's just like because English is not our first language, sometimes we go around in a circle when we try to make a point. When we ask questions to the students, we cannot go around in a circle because that makes them confused as to what you actually are trying to ask. Sometimes they would say "what is really the question," so you just have to be straightforward. If you want to go from point A to point B, you can't go around and around, you just have to go straight. That's the hard thing, because we try to translate everything from our native language and sometimes it doesn't make sense to them.

Jun held a contradictory feeling about American TAs. On the one hand, he shared Kelly's desire that becoming a native speaker is the goal because that way he is more likely to become better at explaining and delivering ideas. On the other hand, Jun also found through the ratemyprofessor website that not all American TAs are considered qualified teachers in terms of delivering a topic.

假如说能够变的像 native speaker 那样的话, 我觉得会把我的想法更好的传达出去, 有时候该解释的东西可以解释的更多更好, 但是我也发现了, 就算是

native speaker, 比方你在 ratemyprofessor 上面看的话, 也并不是所有美国老师她的评分就高, 他们语言方面肯定没问题, 那就可能是他们讲课的方式或者是可能逻辑不太清楚。

(Translation)

If I can become like native speakers, I think I can better verbalize my thoughts and explain things better. But I also noticed that, even for native speakers, like you would find on the ratemyprofessor website, not all American teachers have high rating scores. They definitely have no problems with their English language, so it's their teaching practice or fuzzy logic in class.

Accented English

Among the literature on ITA in the US, the most frequently discussed topic is their English accent and how it is perceived by American undergraduates. In the current study, all three ITAs thought they spoke accented English and believed that accent downplayed their overall professional identity. For Kelly, accent could be used as a scapegoat when her students in fact did not comprehend the content itself.

In the classroom, having an accent will be another thing the students will—if they don't understand you, or if they don't do well in class—it will be another thing they use as an excuse, like a scapegoat. The students will say it's hard to understand you.

At times, Kelly also advocated more about the illegitimate role of accented English. In elaborating her critical view of accented English, she discussed her recent symposium experience where an international student expressed her concern of having an accent in the job market. In relation to classroom instruction, Kelly argued that the students should equally value different accents if they are interested in pursuing their professional career on a global scale.

So accent, this is very interesting, I just went to a workshop and there was this international student, it's a woman in a STEM symposium that said that she was having a hard time finding a job especially like teaching, because she has an accent and all the stuff. And one of the panelists said that "oh students they have to deal with it, if they want to work globally you have got to deal with it. You have to see people with different accents and they have to get used to it." So, I think that makes sense. I mean if they want

to do business with people all over the world they have to listen to different accents and get used to it.

In Jun's reflection about accent, he thought that having an accent is the only disadvantage for Asian TAs, because they all tend to have a very solid foundation in their content area. His knowledge of Asian TAs' accented English came from the ratemyprofessor website, an online webpage that displays students' course evaluations of their professors and instructors. He felt that American TAs were not as well prepared with their lesson plans compared to Asian TAs.

我觉得我们唯一的 disadvantage, 应该就是口音的关系, 一般来说亚洲学生的基础都会好一些, 相对美国人的数学来说亚洲人的数学基础会好些, 然后备课什么的相对来说我觉得是会认真的, 因为我也有见过美国的 ta 准备的不是那么充分, 因为我看那个 ratemyprofessor 那个网站上面对中国老师或者中国 ta 的评价好像在 accent 上说的比较。

(Translation)

I think having an accent is the only disadvantage of us Asian TAs. Generally speaking, Asian TAs all have a very good background knowledge about the math content; compared with Americans, they are better. And in terms of lesson preparation, I think Asian TAs are more serious about it. I've seen American TAs who don't take that seriously, and on that ratemyprofessor website, the comments about Chinese instructors are mostly about their accent.

Additionally, Jun seemed to agree with the claim that accent could influence someone's comprehension of an utterance. He discussed this comprehensibility issue through his teaching where a few students did not understand some of his points and his self-reflection that speaking English lowered his communicative competence in delivering ideas. Instead, he found himself to be a better speaker regarding expressing ideas when he used Mandarin Chinese.

我觉得口音对我上课好像是有一些影响, 因为有时候你讲的东西, 而且你讲了不只一遍, 你讲完之后, 你们都知道了吗, 完了之后就有人发邮件问你, 老师你讲的是这个, 还是那个, 这个我不知道她是上课走神了, 还是什么, 因为大部分人都知道了, 另外就是用中文的话, 我用中文的话我可以表述的更好, 但是用英语的话会限制我的表达能力, 举个例子, 我倒是没有想到, 但是我上课有这个感觉,

就是有一句话你这么说不顺，但是你如果换一个表述方式你会觉得顺一点，但是英文的话就没有像中文那么熟练。

(Translation)

I think having an accent impacts my teaching a little bit, because when you tell the students about things, and you said it not just once and got confirmation that they got it, you'll still get students' emails asking you what I said in class. So I don't know if this student got distracted in class or what. Also, I think the English language use lowers my communication competence; it's better if I use Chinese. For example, in class I can feel that my English use won't be as flexible as the way I speak Chinese.

Building on his desire to become a native speaker, Jun indicated that while he may not be so communicatively competent in speaking English, he could try to compensate for it with other aspects including classroom authority, his personality, and lesson preparation which all count toward one's teaching quality.

如果说有时候作为一个人你的气场，或者你性格不好，或者你课准备的不好，都会导致你上课磕磕绊绊的，那如果我们可以其他方面，会在语言方面慢慢的补，就是 *make up for the disadvantage* 我是这么想的，如果说可以提升语言，那是最好，因为我是这么想的，可以提高自己的语言水平的我也愿意做这个事情。

(Translation)

Sometimes, your classroom authority, your personality, and how you prepare your class would all influence your delivery, so as ITAs, we can do better in those areas to make up for the disadvantage in our English language. That's how I view it. If I can improve my English language, that'd be the best, and I'm willing to develop my English language level.

In the above stories, Kelly and Jun discussed how having an accent could impact their teaching from the students' perspective. Based on Kong, he not only pointed out the negative connotations of having an accent but also indicated himself as a person who does not like accents. His perception of accent comes from his first language learning experience in China in which he was conditioned to view those who spoke standard Mandarin Chinese as superior to those who spoke it with an accent. When he came to the US, such a view was still strong as he

saw those who spoke standard English to be more powerful. Despite this rather prejudiced view of accent, Kong did not intend to reduce his accent in English.

咱们在国内不是也会说有说话口音吧,就是莫名的优越感,就是说别人有口音的人,可能本身自己有那么一点点优越感,觉得自己说话更标准一些,或者也不叫与生具来,大概吧,或者也不叫与生具来,可能就是从小到大潜移默化形成的一种,我也不懂,因为从小到大都要学普通话,然后就是觉得普通话说的好其实感觉这人会更高大上一些,是有这种感觉吧,所以你说到口音这个问题,说到口音就是一种不好的印象在里面,怎么形成的我也不知道,所以跟你在这边说英语有口音,一个道理吧我觉得,你该怎么说话,你也一下改不过来,你说就是了,但是说到口音这事,心里有点疙瘩,可能别人也没有恶意吧,但是这个词听了就是,感觉这个词天生就带有贬义好像。

(Translation)

In China we also have this concept of accent. I think it is just a feeling of superiority when you speak standard Mandarin Chinese, and I think this is something that I grew up with. I don't know where it comes from, maybe because we all need to learn Mandarin Chinese early on, and so we think if someone can speak standard Mandarin, then this person is more powerful. So when we speak of accent, I just think of it as bad. So I think it's the same thing here in the US, You can't change your accent though, so just speak the way you used to. It is just that this word "accent" is used with this bad meaning to it; maybe those who commented on your accent don't really mean it.

Using Informal Language

Besides the desire to become native speakers and accented English, another finding of the ITAs' English language use in classrooms suggested that they find using the students' language to be rewarding. Informal language in this study was interpreted as the language that is less prescriptive and commonly used in oral speech. In Kelly's case, she discussed an occasion when she used "boom" during her lecture, it was well received by her students.

At one point, last semester I was teaching linear algebra. And then I told them, "so I watched this and this, oh usually your teachers don't teach this." And I said in front of my class, I said "Boom! I actually teach it." They loved it, just like regular language you tell your friends.

Jun indicated that using informal language in class can make the content less abstract, which improved the interactions between him and the students. The use of informal language was also related to Jun's understanding of the students' purpose for taking his class. According to him, students do not need to develop literacy in mathematics because they only need the credit hour and will stop learning mathematics once they complete the course.

那个我觉得很可能会交流不下去，就是可能自己讲的挺 high 的，下面满脸疑惑，慢慢的低下头，太学术话的东西，口语话的我是想尽力跟他们口语话，教这个课也是尽量能不数学化就不数学化，他们不需要去培养怎么好的数学素养，他们只是需要修这门课，拿到学分然后不用学数学了。

(Translation)

I think if I were to use a lot of academic words in my class, it would be very hard for me to communicate with my students. What would happen with this is that I would enjoy myself talking, but the students would think that is too academic. So I'll try to use spoken language as much as I can, because one of your goals of teaching this class is to not talk mathematically. The students don't need to be well versed in those mathematical terms, they just need to get the credit hour, and they are done; they don't need take mathematics anymore.

Kong discussed his view of students' language and the ITAP instructors' language. He seemed to have a more difficult time understanding students because they spoke faster than ITAP instructors who articulated their words with clarity and precision. Apart from the fast-paced speech, Kong also thought that the other reason for not being able to understand the students was due to the fact that he is not a native speaker. He commented on his lack of exposure to the English language from an early age and the fact that he needed 1 or 2 seconds to translate from English to Chinese.

这个因为 ITAP 里面，他们问问题，咬字都很清晰的，所以你能听懂，但是正常过程学生跟你说话，他们可能是以他们的速度，是吧，那你很有可能听不懂了，这说白了我觉得又回到了你是不是 native speaker 了，因为你平常听英语的机会没他们多，他们从小到大听的都是英语，反正对我来说我听的不是那么多吧，所以很多时候他们如果说的特别快的时候，我就有些词听不太懂，还有就是可能反应速

度的问题，就是我大脑需要一个时间来处理你听到的东西，然后来翻译，就是你来处理这句话什么意思，反正我是做不太到，人家说话说完可能要1, 2秒才能，我才听懂是什么，刚来的时候就更差了。

(Translation)

When the teachers in the ITAP program ask questions, their words are very clear, so you can understand it, but when the students talk to you, they might be using their own talking speed, right, so you are very likely to not understand what they are saying. I think this goes back to whether you are a native speaker or not, because you [i.e., non-native speaker] don't get that many opportunities to listen to English every day, but they grew up using the language. So when they speak very fast, I will have problems understanding some words, and also my brain needs some time to process that information and translate it into Chinese, so usually when they say something to me, I'll need 1 or 2 seconds to understand what they are saying, and this was worse when I first got here.

V

DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

Demographically speaking, compared with native English speaking students, ITAs are underrepresented by their number of enrollment at most U.S. campuses, which places them into the minority group. In addition, the majority of ITAs' racial and linguistic profiling draws some distinctions from TAs who are Caucasians. These differences work in concerted ways to project ITAs more visibly as foreigners who are not competent in teaching. Recent development in ITA research has documented these "foreign TA problems" (Bailey, 1989) from communications between undergraduates and ITAs (Kang, Rubin, & Lindemann, 2014), interviews with faculty members and ITAs (Jenkins, 2000), case studies of ITAs (Jia & Bergerson, 2008), critical discourse analysis of ITAs' instructional performance (Chiang, 2013), reports of ITAs' online journal entries (Ates & Eslami, 2012), and ITAs' self-disclosure about their language inadequacy (Li, Mazer, & Jun). This body of scholarship has facilitated our understanding of the challenges many ITAs encounter in their professional life; nevertheless, how ITAs develop their professional identity in relation to the challenges they face and the broader sociocultural context they are situated in remains under-researched. This study aimed at exploring ITAs' professional identity development from a critical perspective. Specifically, it examined how students' feedback about ITAs' teaching, ITAs' interactions with their supervisors, and the ITAs' English language use in academic settings influenced their professional identity development. As the number of ITAs grows exponentially in the US, an in-depth understanding of ITAs' professional identity development will provide ITA trainers, departmental personnel, and university

administrators with knowledge about this particular population on campus; as a critical study, it also serves as an empowerment mechanism for incoming ITAs through the discussion of the three participants' stories.

Theoretical Framework

The current study was operationalized on the thinking of Critical Theory and Poststructuralist Theory. Critical Theory foregrounds the notion of liberation and destabilization in that it seeks to empower those who are marginalized and problematizes knowledge production that could benefit the dominant groups. Grounded in Critical Theory, new approaches to language and education research and practice emerged over the past decades, including critical literacy, critical pedagogy, and critical applied linguistics. Through these streams of thought, new light was shed on salient constructs in education and language research such as peripherality, center, power, access, identity, and investment that play an important role in understanding learners' learning experience and what teachers can do to make that experience meaningful (Norton, 2008). According to Pennycook (2008), to adopt a critical approach to the study of language and education is to see its inherent connection to politics and how this relationship attributes to individuals' struggles in their own contexts. Thus, scholars and educators using Critical Theory need to be aware of "issues of dominion, disparity, difference and desire while at the same time maintaining a constant scepticism towards cherished concepts of applied linguistics, from language and ethnicity to identity and discourse" (p. 175).

In addition to a critical orientation to ITAs' professional identity development, this study also adopted a Poststructuralist Theory lens to view their identity construction process. This school of thought challenges this notion of universalism, objectivity, and the belief that reality is singular (Morgan, 2007). What this means for the interpretation of identity is that it should be

understood as multilayered, fluid, dynamic, and contradictory, because identity development is essentially a social practice, which suggests that how individuals act with their use of language, bodily movement, sound, and other modes of expressions will influence who they are (Morgan, 2007). Furthermore, a poststructuralist understanding of identity takes into consideration power relations that could manipulate the individuals' choice of identities they want to take on. For instance, the act of silencing language or racial minority students or discouraging their participation in classrooms is indicative of the power dynamics that permeate education. This differs from the view of identity as static and fixed, which is largely influenced by positivism, the Cartesian thought that identity is a priori rather than something that is practiced and negotiated in action. In feminist scholar Butler's interpretation, the notion of performativity is another way to problematize identity essentialization. For example, in educational contexts, teachers who identify themselves as LGBT members may feel it necessary to create a heterosexual teacher identity (Nelson, 2004), and working class students resist the use of English language due to their lack of access to the language after school and limited language resources in their families (Lin, 1999). These are cases that guide the contemporary understanding of identity as dynamic and inextricably connected to the social world.

Methodology

The current study used a multiple case study design to examine three ITAs' professional identity development, because the researcher was more interested in garnering detailed information about how the ITAs made sense of their professional identity, which suggested that a qualitative approach to the study was more suitable. Through snowball sampling, the researcher recruited three ITAs in different stages of their study from the Department of Mathematics on campus. Data collection included interviews, classroom observations, and research journals.

During the data collection process, the researcher attended the ITAs' classes and kept field notes and research journals relevant to the research questions. The observations and field notes helped the researcher verify whether the participants' actions in class were in accordance with their interviews and develop further interview questions. In the following sections, significant findings will be discussed in relation to the research questions. Additionally, limitations and implications of the study and conclusions will be discussed.

Discussion of Research Question 1

Research Question 1: What role does undergraduates' feedback play in ITAs' professional identity development?

Marginalized Status of Monotone English

In the brief discussion of the theoretical frameworks delineated in this chapter and previous chapters, adopting a critical perspective means problematizing the status quo and deconstructing notions that are already established. According to the findings from the three participants, monotone English has a negative connotation to it because the students could not understand the spoken language aspect of the ITAs' lectures. To investigate how they associated monotone English with poor lecture quality, the researcher looked at the ITAs' understanding of monotone English and where their definitions were based.

In the findings, Jun's understanding of monotone English came from his interactions with senior ITAs who relied on their students' feedback about their language as some guidance for beginning ITAs. In Kong's case, he became aware of his monotone English through his ITAP training with a NNEST. Lastly, Kelly referred back to her undergraduate speech course in which she was presented with different types of speech patterns including monotone English. While contemplating with the participants' experience with monotone English, the researcher started problematizing the notion of monotone English. Indeed, there are studies about the

characteristics of monotone English and how it differs from normal tone speech (Levis & Moyer, 2014). However, it is equally important to examine the power relations involved in determining what monotone English is and the interest groups it serves. One of the main reasons of the ITAs' strong belief that their English language is indeed monotone English vis-à-vis the "normal English language" produced by their American colleagues is deeply ingrained in the discourse of native speakersim that normalizes language use. In this way, the ITAs do not have ownership of their English. If native English speakers think their English needs some improvement, there is slim chance that they would disagree with their suggestions. Jun's story is seen through the legitimation process of monotone English, which is first produced among the students' course evaluation and then transferred to their instructors who were senior ITAs. During Jun's interactions with those senior ITAs, this knowledge of monotone English and its ubiquity among the ITAs' teaching becomes reproduced. Jun's disclosure that he thought his English was also monotone after hearing from the senior ITAs further suggests that there is tension between his students' preference of normal English language and his monotone English, or the struggle between a native norm and its various deviations. Jun mentioned that when he speaks Mandarin Chinese, his native language, he could sense his changing tone, which is a sign of non-monotone Chinese. In this case, no one gave Jun any language evaluations or informal feedback about his non-monotone Chinese. Instead, his native Chinese speaker identity legitimized his claim as a non-monotone speaker.

Similarly, Kong was also partially influenced by this native norm discourse in that he accepted his native English speaking ITAP trainer's evaluation of his English as monotone. During his interactions with the trainer about presentation feedback, he was diagnosed with monotone English, a commonly seen problem he knew of among English language learners but

was not aware that it applied to him. Both the language evaluation mechanism and the native speaker identity of his ITAP trainer made Kong believe that his English was monotone and he needed to take actions to change that. For Kong to discover and accept his monotone English, there needs to be a power relation that produces authoritative discourse about language use. When he was enrolled in the ITAP program and approached by his ITAP trainer, he was very responsive and attentive to the feedback he received in the program. After he completed the ITAP program, he was no longer in contact with his ITAP trainer who would give him suggestions about his language use. In the classroom, his students, based on Kong's reflection, were not giving him feedback about his monotone English. In other words, the power dynamics that regulate how English language needs to be properly used in classroom is absent, thus, for the time being Kong no longer positioned himself as a monotone English speaker.

Although not a monotone English speaker, Kelly viewed it as an unwanted speech pattern from a teaching perspective. Through her description, she first became aware of this type of speech in an undergraduate public speaking course in the US. From a critical perspective, this was when knowledge about monotone English, which is a speech pattern devoid of rising and falling tones, became produced and disseminated through formal education. Additionally, Kelly's concern that monotone English could be associated with her students' distraction in a 50-minute class made her believe that a teacher should try not to speak monotone English. In Kelly's story, the tension was less heavy between native and nonnative English speakers, rather it was more about the relationship between a teacher and her students. In her mind, if Kelly were to speak monotone English, her students might as well not stay for the entire 50-minute session. As someone who is deeply invested in teaching and committed to teaching professionally, Kelly did not want to see her students leave the classroom, and among her strategies to keep the

students in class, avoiding the use of monotone English was a less assertive way to accomplish that goal.

Classroom Authority

One of the common threads running through the participants' stories about their professional identity development was the view of classroom authority. The three ITAs had different perceptions of classroom authority. Kelly saw it as her control of the class and respect from the students. Kong understood authority as a teacher's confidence in class and his or her educational background. Jun's view of authority was more nebulous in that he did not want to explicitly display his classroom authority because the students should already have internalized classroom rules and policy and know how to perform their identity as students. To have a classroom authority only aids the development of a ranking system between students and teacher, which was something Jun did not want to see.

Viewing authority from a critical perspective, it is part of a power dynamic that produces truth and legitimates knowledge. In its actualization, authority could be seen via different labels, such as native/nonnative speaker, class, race, genre, and educational background. Based on the interviews with the participants, they noted a desire to sound native-like and believed that their current English language needed some improvement. Due to this self-perception of the English language issue, the ITAs found ways to reestablish their authority and exercise their agencies. In Kelly's case, her classroom authority was seen in her content knowledge and the way she enforced the classroom policy. When choosing her major, Kelly understood the challenges a foreigner may encounter in the US, especially when this foreigner is not a native speaker. To compensate for her language and cultural disadvantages, Kelly found her power in mathematics because she possessed capital in this subject. She accumulated this capital through her K-12

education in Indonesia and Taiwan and the fact that mathematics is a subject that heavily uses numbers and shares similarities with language use. Thus both her 2-year Chinese language teaching experience in Indonesia and knowledge of mathematics gained through her K-12 education overseas help her secure the foundation of classroom authority. Additionally, for Kelly, the syllabus, access to the students' grade, and completing the ITAP program acted as symbolic power through which she actively enforced her teacher identity. In Kelly's remarks, this is quite different from teacher authority in Indonesia where students would automatically perceive their teachers to be the authority because this is the value the students have been inculcated into. Kelly's professional identity development in relation to the Poststructuralist Theory lay in its tension between being a nonnative English speaker and a reliable teacher. On one hand, she understood the potential language-related problems her NNEST identity could cause for her, thus, having someone else to clear her language barrier would effectively solve those problems. On the other hand, she was not letting her timid voice due to her NNEST status take control of her teaching; instead, she took actions to solidify her position as an ITA who would not hesitate to be assertive in class when needed.

Kong related classroom authority mostly to his educational background and confidence in teaching. His first response to this notion of authority was that he was a PhD student in mathematics, which automatically warranted his credibility to teach mathematics to undergraduate students. He further suggested that teaching with confidence played an important role in consolidating that classroom authority. In this case, Kong's discovery of his professional identity came from two parts. The first part was the assigned identity, in which Kong was recognized as an instructor in the Department of Mathematics. The other part came from his

realization that being professional ITA meant being confident at teaching so that his students would take him seriously.

Becoming a Perfect Teacher

In the above theme of classroom authority, I mentioned how Kelly felt constant tension between being a NNEST and a reliable teacher. Her narration of becoming a perfect teacher also demonstrated the struggle of adapting herself to a different audience. For students who have not yet developed their mathematics background, Kelly attempted to be perfect so that the students would not complain about her; whereas more mathematically experienced students would be more lenient about her errors.

Discussion of Research Question 2

Research Question 2: In what ways do ITAs' interactions with their supervisors and colleagues influence their sense of teaching practice?

American TAs are Better Teachers

Examining Kong and Jun's interactions with their American TAs, the perception that being a native speaker warrants one's teaching quality is common. They expressed the view that American TAs are more likely to become better teachers if they are committed to their job because they have no language issues. This assumption goes back to the discourse of native speakerism discussed in Chapter II in which native English speakers have inherent language advantage over nonnative speakers, and in education this advantage could be easily translated into teaching quality and student's expectation of their teachers. The problem embedded in this assumption is first of all the overgeneralization that all native English speakers produce error-free language. Second, it implies a deficit tone that NNESTs' English language would not be as good as NESTs', which suggests that the NNESTs' effort to improve their professional development would eventually be obliterated by their English language deficiency. Thus, in

Kong's story, he indicated the unfairness of comparing his teaching with that of American TAs but also displayed his approval of the fact that American TAs are better. In this difficult condition, Kong chooses to not think about the comparisons with American TAs. In addition to their teaching quality, Kong also sees American TAs as his career advisor. Through his interactions with a few American TAs, Kong thought it was more beneficial for him to create a relaxing environment so that he could receive positive feedback from the students, which could be his stepping stone in securing future employment after graduation. In this case, the nativeness of American TAs takes the shape of their familiarity with the job market in the US, which similar to their perceived superiority in language, legitimizes them as experts. Through his communication with the American TAs, Kong became aware of the different status of being a TA and being a real instructor and their respective teaching practices.

Jun's comment about American TAs is indicative of the possible role race and language might play in evaluating one's teaching quality. Similar to Kong's observation, when asked about his perception of American TAs, Jun believes that American TAs' language advantage could effectively aid their teaching practice in classroom. Additionally, Jun made a racialized statement about the teaching profession in that Asian TAs are not the preferred teachers amongst all graduate teaching assistants. This ties to, in Jun's opinion, the students' assumption about the potential advantage of particular race over others. Underlying the statement was the discourse of othering that made Jun feel he is the victim of the pervasive presence of native speakerism, which reminds him about his identity as a NNEST. To further justify this victimization, Jun expressed his own perception of what his students may think about the othered teaching assistants. In this kind of thinking, race becomes capitalized and integrated into the power dynamics running through Jun's teaching. His assumption about the American TAs as better

teachers was confirmed through his professors' feedback that ITAs could consider becoming better researchers instead of teachers. Thus, the tension in Jun's professional identity development was not only about his struggle of his linguistic and racial background, but also the professors' suggestion of becoming a better researcher.

Research is Your Priority

In Kong's interaction with his supervisor, the similar tension of being a teacher and the desire to graduate on time was seen. As an ITA who is interested in teaching and possibly following a professional teaching path after graduation, Kong would have loved to spend more time exploring his pedagogy, as evidenced by his interest in possibly obtaining the departmental teaching award. However, his other identity as a PhD candidate who was in the process of working on his dissertation created an agenda that forced him to shift his attention from teaching to researching. In his explanation for this shift, Kong pointed to the pressure of producing a satisfactory dissertation for the department and his supervisor. This changing emphasis reflected the institutional discourse of receiving higher educational degrees, which is contingent upon one's successful completion and defense of the dissertation or thesis. During this process, the Department of Mathematics and Kong's supervisor wielded some power in that the supervisor is the only person recognized by the institution to approve Kong's dissertation quality.

Learning From Colleagues and Friends

When Kong found out about his limited English language proficiency when he first started teaching, he was introduced to a local church weekly meeting through a friend. Jun goes to a gymnasium with other American TAs at the Department of Mathematics on a regular basis more for the purpose of maintaining his friendship with American TAs. Kelly differed from Kong and Jun in that she actively sought teaching advice from her American colleagues and

friends. This could be explained by her high investment in teaching and becoming a university level teacher after graduation. Through interactions with American TAs, Kelly learned about their teaching strategies, understanding of the content knowledge, and other pedagogical issues. Thus, Kelly delivers the implicit message that being with American TAs gains her membership in that particular TA community where she is introduced to American TAs' ways of teaching mathematics at a U.S. university. From another perspective, she imagined her friends to be her students and solicited feedback about any teaching ideas she had. While it was arguable whether her friends' feedback truly benefitted her class, the fact that their lack of systematic mathematical knowledge allowed Kelly to practice her delivery skill, which was a simulation of her classroom practice.

Discussion of Research Question 3

Research Question 3: To what extent does English language use in academic settings play a role in ITAs' professional identity development?

American TAs as Role Models

Among the stories told by the ITAs, they all set the tone that their English language proficiency needed to be improved, which was largely influenced by the discourse of native norms. Kong's action of emulating American TAs' English is a case in point. In his first example of hearing nonnative Chinese people speak Chinese, Kong pointed out that native Chinese speaking people would identify errors, suggesting that nonnative Chinese people's Chinese is fraught with errors, a notion that is produced in reference to how native Chinese people use the language. Switching this scenario to an English speaking class, Kong's response to his language use was to speak as correctly as possible; in other words, try his best to approximate his English language to that of the Americans, such as emulating their intonation. In this story, there is first of all the notion of language regulation going on in Kong's English language use. Similar to the

concept of language standardization, which legitimizes one particular language based on its sociopolitical power, language regulation in this case builds on the discourse of native norm and produces the knowledge of what kind of language is preferred in classroom and who its speakers are. During this process of language regulation and homogenization, Kong's agency lay in his constant awareness and reflection of his English and ways to speak as correctly as possible.

Kelly had a contradictory feeling about English language use in classroom. On the one hand, she thought that being in a multilingual society such as the US created safe space for ITAs to use their "not so standard English" to teach; however, as she mentioned later in the interviews, Kelly also believed that ITAs should speak like native speakers, because this will help others understand them much easier. The demarcation between a native speaker and a nonnative speaker is one's country of origin. As Kelly implied, if someone was born in a country that is not a English speaking country, it is difficult for this person to speak like a native speaker. In this case, the discourse of othering is actively circulating as Kelly considers native speakers to be the desired ones and nonnative speakers as language problem carriers. Once this mentality of nonnative-like English language as problem was established, self-regulation was also enacted as Kelly started to pay more attention to the ways she could speak better in class. Additionally, Kelly explained that she and possibly other ITAs needed to talk in a straightforward fashion, because she was concerned that a more circular speaking style which was influenced by her bilingual translation in her mind would get students confused and receive responses such as "what is your question." Thus, there was a need for Kelly to develop a straightforward teaching style and ask questions that the students could understand. Other purposeful activities that she did to improve her English language included immersing herself in an English speaking environment with American movies, American TV shows, and English music; speaking English

all the time; and actively seeking American friends, from who she hoped to develop more native-like English language communicative competence. While these language learning strategies are facilitative in one's language learning, they also entail the monolingual ideology that ITAs need to conform to. Although at various stages of the data collection, the participants all discussed the fact that there are plural language practices in the US, this is not the case in the professional life of these ITAs as they believed that the medium of instruction should be English only.

Like Kong and Kelly, Jun believed that if he could become a native speaker, he would be able to better verbalize his ideas and explain certain math issues in detail and with more clarity. Nevertheless, based on his own research about teaching assistants in the Department of Mathematics on the ratemyprofessor website, Jun was critical about the perceived teaching quality of American TAs and suggested that while they were error free in their English language, their delivery could be subject to fuzzy logic.

Accented English

In the above theme, I discussed Kelly's inclination to become a native speaker so that her lectures could be better understood. When mentioning the role of accent in her teaching, Kelly expressed her frustration that accent is often used as an excuse for the students to complain about the lectures. This is a finding that confirms previous studies that investigated the role of accent in ITAs' perceived teaching skills (Derwing, Fraser, Kang, & Thomson, 2014; Derwing, Moulton, & Campbell, 2005). Accent is one of the many variables including ITAs' understanding of the content knowledge, their lesson preparation, and others that determine the overall quality of an ITAs' lecture. Thus, it would be misleading to comment on ITAs' lack of lecturing skills simply because their English is accented. Additionally, it links to the notion of language standardization in accented English is a language variety that deviates from the norm or standard, thus, its status

should be treated as non-standard and marginalized language. Apart from the frustration with accent, Kelly was adamant that ITAs or individuals who speak accented English should ignore others' comment about their accent. In her reasoning, Kelly referred to her earlier argument about the plural language uses in the US by demonstrating the existence of multiple English accents not only in the US but also other parts of the world.

In Jun's case, he considered accent to be part of his ITA professional identity because it affected his teaching and students' understanding; in an over-generalized statement, he also thought that having an accent was the only disadvantage of most Asian ITAs because this was one of the most common themes about Asian ITAs on the ratemyprofessor website. His statement seemed to suggest that if the Asian ITAs did not have an accent, which is in and of itself problematic because it implies that there is a standard to which other varieties of language reference, then they would become as good as their American colleagues. Furthermore, it builds on an assumption that instead of pedagogy, the ITAs' English language use occupies a more important position in their teaching and professional identity development.

Kong's perception of accented English originated from his early education in standardized Mandarin Chinese in Mainland China. As a standardized language, Mandarin Chinese is a language that is the only version of Chinese taught and allowed for use in most educational settings across Mainland China. Referring back to the theoretical constructs of language standardization and ideology, such educational policy tends to receive political endorsement as it aids the development of nationalism in the sense of "one nation, one language"; however, it marginalizes other languages that are used by indigenous people or that deviate from the standardized Chinese. Kong thus developed a sense of superiority by speaking standardized language and considered accent to be a problem that needs to be corrected.

Use Informal Language

According to the ITAs' account of their informal language use in classrooms, the students may find it makes their instructors more relatable or the teaching material less difficult to understand. The purposeful use of informal language thus transforms a hierarchical teacher and student relationship to a more equal and humanistic relationship. It helps the ITAs to temporarily become members of the student community in university level classrooms where language use tends to be standard and heavy on terminologies.

Implications

The current study has examined three ITAs' professional identity development through students' feedback about their courses, the ITAs' interactions with their supervisors and colleagues, and the ITAs' use of English language in academic settings. While the ITAP program on campus, the Department of Mathematics, and the ITAs are all making efforts to provide more satisfactory service for their students, the findings of this study offer implications that could further the ITAs' professional development.

First of all, the component absent from the ITAP program that deliberates about teaching method and presentation skills is a Critical Pedagogy informed way of approaching English language and its use in classrooms. While English language may be the default language to use in their educational contexts, ITAs may benefit from critical engagement with the notions of monolingualism and multilingualism so that they would become less constrained by the desire to become native speakers or emulate native-like intonations. While the ITAs had all included critical thinking skills to be part of their learning objectives on their syllabi, they did not understand what critical thinking is and how to integrate it into their classrooms. One of the reasons for their inattention to critical thinking pertains to the fact that the syllabi are provided by

the Department of Mathematics and circulated widely among graduate teaching assistants. Without the experience of designing the syllabi themselves, the ITAs are less likely to reflect on sections that are in the periphery such as learning objectives. Thus, another crucial task for ITA trainers and ITAs is to figure out ways to incorporate critical thinking into their existing lesson plans. It may be related to content such as critiquing a certain mathematical formula or ways to solve a mathematical problem; ITAs could also address mathematical problems from a more socioeconomic perspective. For instance, the mathematical problems in exercise sections could be embedded in a real-life situation as an indication of the interplay between mathematics and our daily life and a way to interrogate students' assumptions of monotone or accented English. After each exercise, ITAs may invite discussions from the students or briefly comment on both the problems and their implications.

What is also needed among the ITAs is awareness that their content knowledge is more important than their language use in classrooms. The institutional discourse of ITA recruitment is that graduate students are awarded teaching assistantships based on their academic performance, desire to become teaching assistants, and successful completion of ITAP program (*The Graduate Student Guide*, 2014). While the ITAs in this study had all obtained full pass on the ITAP program evaluations, they were, however, overly concerned with how their English language may be received by their students and disregarded the content aspect of their professional identity as teachers. Such belief that ITAs' professional identity is more English language-based is largely produced through feedback from students who are mostly US undergraduates. In viewing the students' feedback, ITAs treated content-related comments as inconsequential and seemed to be particularly vulnerable to the spoken aspect of English language-related remarks. As Kelly pointed out in her story about accented English, sometimes ITAs' language acts as a

scapegoat that shields the real classroom issues, which could be students' indolence in completing assignments and even problematic assumption about foreign teachers' professional qualification. To help ITAs understand the dialectic relationship between content knowledge, English language proficiency, and students' feedback, more participatory ITA orientations and trainings where ITAs and students discuss their views of teaching, learning, and languages are needed.

Directions for Future Research

As I have elaborated in Chapter II, identity, informed by poststructuralist theory, is a complex theoretical construct that involves aspects of language, power dynamics, agency, ideology, discourse, race, and capital. The current qualitative multiple case study investigated ITAs' professional identity development primarily from students' course feedback, ITAs' interactions with their supervisors and colleagues, and the ITAs' English language use in academic settings. Future research in ITA identity development may benefit from examining the intersections of their race, English language, and discourse of Othering. Additionally, Queer Theory would be an alternative lens to investigate the professional identity development of ITAs who identify themselves as members of LGBT community. Regarding research methodology, this study was operationalized on three case studies, using interviews, classroom observations, and research journals. To answer Moussu and Llorca's (2008) call for more identity work employing qualitative ethnography, mixed method approach, and experimental designs, future research may consider these methods as ways to shed new light on ITA identity development

Conclusions

As Norton and Toohey (2011) pointed out, identity formation is a complex process that is power driven, multilayered, contested, invested, and imagined. The dissertation study has found

that ITAs' professional identity development is a complicated process that involves their negotiation with the students about English language use in the classroom, their memberships in diverse communities, and their interactions with supervisors. The dominant discourse of language standardization in the society has conditioned the participants to develop the belief that native like English language proficiency is advantageous; despite their language desire, the ITAs also critiqued American TAs for their lack of professionalism in class preparation. The ITAs have also developed more sensitivity toward the students' feedback of their English language and less so with their pedagogy, which misleadingly implies that one's English language skills are the most important aspect in delivering lectures. As more ITAs begin to take teaching positions on US campuses, it becomes increasingly important for ITA trainers, administrators, ITAs, and students to critically reflect on notions of multilingualism, multiculturalism, and effective intercultural communication that would mitigate the communication breakdowns between ITAs and their students and facilitate the professional growth of ITAs.

REFERENCES

- Adamuti-Trache, M. (2013). Language acquisition among adult immigrants in Canada: The effect of premigration language capital. *Adult Education Quarterly*, 63(2), 103-126.
- Ahearn, L. M. (2001). Language and agency. *Annual Review of Anthropology*, 20, 109-137.
- Althusser, L. (1971). *Lenin and philosophy, and other essays*. London: New Left Books.
- Althusser, L. (2004). Ideology and ideological state apparatuses. In J. Rivkin & M. Ryan (Eds.), *Literary theory: An anthology* (2nd ed.) (pp. 693-702). Malden, MA: Blackwell Publication.
- Amin, N. (1997). Race and the identity of the nonnative ESL teacher. *TESOL Quarterly*, 31(3), 580-583.
- Angrosino, M., & Rosenberg, J. (2011). Observations on observation. In N. K. Denzin, & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.) *The Sage handbook of qualitative research* (4th ed.) (pp. 467-478). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Inc.
- Arshavskaya, E. (2015). International teaching assistants' experiences in the US classrooms: Implications for practice. *Journal of the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning*, 15(2), 56-69.
- Ates, B., & Eslami, Z. R. (2012). An analysis of non-native English-speaking graduate teaching assistants' online journal entries. *Language and Education*, 26(6), 537-552.
- Bailey, K. (1983). Foreign teaching assistants at U.S. universities: Problems in interaction and communication. *TESOL Quarterly*, 17(2), 308-310.
- Bakhtin, M. (1981). *The dialogic imagination: Four essays by M. M. Bakhtin*. Austin, TX: University of Texas Press.
- Bakhtin, M. (1984). *Problems of Dostoevsky's poetics* (C. Emerson, Trans.). Minneapolis, MN: University of Minnesota Press.
- Bakhtin, M. (1986). *Speech genres and other late essays* (V. McGee, Trans.). Austin, TX: University of Texas Press.
- Bamberg, M. (2006). Stories: Big or small: Why do we care? *Narrative Inquiry*, 16(1), 139-147.

- Bamberg, M., & Georgakopoulou, A. (2008). Small stories as a new perspective in narrative and identity analysis. *Text & Talk*, 28(3), 377-396.
- Barkhuizen, G. (2008). A narrative approach to exploring context in language teaching. *English Language Teaching Journal*, 62(3), 231-239.
- Barkhuizen, G. (2010). An extended positioning analysis of a pre-service teacher's better life small story. *Applied Linguistics*, 31(2), 282-300.
- Baxter, P., & Jack, S. (2008). Qualitative case study methodology: Study design and implementation for novice researchers. *The Qualitative Report*, 13(4), 544-559.
- Bayley, R., & Schecter, S. R. (Eds.). (2003). Introduction: Toward a dynamic model of language socialization. In R. Bayley, & S. R. Schecter (Eds.) *Language socialization in bilingual and multilingual societies* (pp. 1-6). Tonawanda, NY: Multilingual Matters Ltd.
- Beijaard, D., Meijer, P. C., & Verloop, N. (2004). Reconsidering research on teachers' professional identity. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 20(2), 107-128.
- Bell, J. S. (2002). Narrative inquiry: More than just telling stories. *TESOL Quarterly*, 36, 207-213.
- Best, A. L. (2003). Doing race in the context of feminist interviewing: Constructing whiteness through talk. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 9(6), 895-914.
- Block, D. (1996). Not so fast: Some thoughts on theory culling, relativism, accepted findings and the heart and soul of SLA. *Applied Linguistics*, 17, 63-83.
- Block, D. (2000). Problematizing interview data: Voices in the mind's machine. *TESOL Quarterly*, 757-763.
- Block, D. (2003). *The social turn in second language acquisition*. Edinburgh, UK: Edinburgh University Press.
- Block, D. (2006). *Multilingual identities in a global city: London stories*. London: Palgrave.
- Block, D. (2007). *Second language identities*. London, England: Continuum.
- Blommaert, J. M. E. (2015). Pierre Bourdieu and language in society. *Working Papers in Urban Language and Literacies*, paper 153, London: King's College.
- Bourdieu, P. (1977). The economics of linguistic exchanges. *Social Science Information*, 16(6), 645-668.
- Bourdieu, P. (1991). *Language and symbolic power*. Cambridge: Polity Press.
- Bourdieu, P. (2011). The forms of capital (1986). In I. Szeman & T. Kaposy, (Eds.) *Cultural theory: An anthology* (pp. 81-93). Chichester, West-Sussex, UK: Wiley-Blackwell.

- Boyatzis, R. (1998). *Transforming qualitative information: Thematic analysis and code development*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology, 3*(2), 77-101.
- Briggs, C. (2007). Anthropology, interviewing, and communicability in contemporary society. *Current Anthropology, 48*, 551-567.
- Bucholtz, M. (1999). "Why be normal?": Language and identity practices in a community of nerd girls. *Language in Society, 28*(02), 203-223.
- Bucholtz, M., & Hall, K. (2005). Identity and interaction: a sociocultural linguistic approach. *Discourse Studies, 7*, 585-614.
- Calkins, S., & Kelley, M. R. (2005). Mentoring and the faculty–TA relationship: Faculty perceptions and practices. *Mentoring & Tutoring: Partnership in Learning, 13*(2), 259-280.
- Carr, W. (2006). Education without theory. *British Journal of Educational Studies, 54*(2), 136-159.
- Census Enrollment Report (2015). *The University of Alabama total enrollment by country of origin*. Retrieved from http://oira.ua.edu/d/webreports/enrollment2/Fall_2015/e11.html
- Chao, X., & Kuntz, A. (2013). Church-based ESL program as a figured world: Immigrant adult learners, identity and power. *Linguistics and Education, 24*(4), 466-478.
- Chang, Y. J., & Kanno, Y. (2010). NNES doctoral students in English-speaking academe: The nexus between language and discipline. *Applied Linguistics, 31*(5), 671-692.
- Chellaraj, G., Maskus, K. E., & Mattoo, A. (2005). *The contribution of skilled immigration and international graduate students to U.S. innovation*. The World Bank, Policy # 3588. Retrieved from <http://dx.doi.org/10.1596/1813-9450-3588>
- Chiang, S. Y. (2009). Dealing with communication problems in the instructional interactions between international teaching assistants and American college students. *Language and Education, 23*(5), 461-478.
- Clark, E., & Paran, A. (2007). The employability of non-native-speaker teachers of EFL: A UK survey. *System, 35*(4), 407-430.
- Cooper, K., & White, R. E. (Eds.). (2011). *Qualitative research in the post-modern era: Contexts of qualitative research*. London: Springer Science & Business Media.
- Creswell, J. W., & Miller, D. L. (2000). Determining validity in qualitative inquiry. *Theory into Practice, 39*(3), 124-130.

- Cummins, J. (1981). The role of primary language development in promoting educational success for language minority students. In California State Department of Education (Eds.), *Schooling and language minority students: A theoretical framework* (pp. 3-49). Los Angeles, CA: National Dissemination Center.
- Davies, A. (2003). *The native speaker: Myth and reality*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Davies, B., & Harré, R. (1990). Positioning: The discursive production of selves. *Journal for the Theory of Social Behavior*, 20(1), 43-63.
- Darvin, R., & Norton, B. (2014). Transnational identity and migrant language learners: The promise of digital storytelling. *Education Matters: The Journal of Teaching and Learning*, 2(1), 55-66.
- Denzin, N. K. (Ed.) (1989). *The research act: A theoretical introduction to sociological methods* (3rd ed.). New Brunswick, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2008). *Collecting and interpreting qualitative materials* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publication Inc.
- Derrida, J. (1972). Structure, sign and play in the discourses of the human sciences. In R. Macksey & E. Donato (Eds.), *The structuralist controversy* (pp. 247-265). Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press.
- Derrida, J. (1982). *Margins of philosophy* (A. Bass, Trans.). Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Derwing, T. M., Moulton, B., & Campbell, M. (2005). *Accent doesn't have to be an obstacle. A report submitted to University Teaching Services and The Endowment Fund for the Future*. Edmonton: University of Alberta.
- Derwing, T. M., Fraser, H., Kang, O., & Thomson, R. I. (2014). L2 accent and ethics: Issues that merit attention. In A. Mahboob & L. Barratt (Eds.) *Englishes in multilingual contexts* (pp. 63-80). Netherlands: Springer.
- DiCicco-Bloom, B., & Crabtree, B. F. (2006). The qualitative research interview. *Medical Education*, 40(4), 314-321.
- Dixon, D. P., & Jones, J. P. (2004). Poststructuralism. In J. S. Duncan, N. C. Johnson, & R. H. Schein (Eds.), *A companion to cultural geography* (pp. 79-107). Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing Ltd.
- Duff, P. (2012). Identity, agency, and second language acquisition. In S. M. Gass & A. Mackey (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 410-426). New York: Routledge.
- Duranti, A., & Goodwin, C. (Eds.) (1992). *Rethinking context: Language as an interactive phenomenon*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

- Duarte, E. M. (2005). Learning as freedom—the letting be of learning together. In I. Gur-Ze'ev (Ed.), *Critical theory and critical pedagogy today. Toward a new critical language in education*. (pp. 317-328). Haifa, Israel: Faculty of Education, University of Haifa.
- Dwyer, S. C., & Buckle, J. L. (2009). The space between: On being an insider-outsider in qualitative research. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 8(1), 54-63.
- Ellwood, C. (2009). Uninhabitable identifications: unpacking the production of racial difference in a TESOL classroom. In R. Kubota & A. Lin (Eds.), *Race, culture and identities in second language education* (pp.101-117). London & New York: Routledge.
- Fairclough, N. (Ed.) (1989). *Language and power*. London: Longman.
- Fairclough, N. (Ed.) (1992). *Discourse and social change*. Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing Inc.
- Fairclough, N. & Wodak, R. (1997). Critical discourse analysis. In T.A. van Dijk (Ed.), *Discourse as social interaction* (pp. 258-284). London: Sage.
- Farrell, T. S. (2011). Exploring the professional role identities of experienced ESL teachers through reflective practice. *System*, 39(1), 54-62.
- Flick, U., von Kardorff, E., Steinke, I., & Jenner, B. (2004). *A companion to qualitative research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Flowerdew, J., & Miller, L. (2008). Social structure and individual agency in second language learning: Evidence from three life histories. *Critical Inquiry in Language Studies*, 5(4), 201-224.
- Flyvbjerg, B. (2006). Five misunderstandings about case-study research. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 12(2), 219-245.
- Finch, J., & Kim, S. K. (2012). Kirōgi families in the US: Transnational migration and education. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 38(3), 485-506.
- Firth, A., & Wagner, J. (1997). On discourse, communication, and (some) fundamental concepts in SLA research. *Modern Language Journal*, 81(3), 285-300.
- Fotovatian, S. (2012). Three constructs of institutional identity among international doctoral students in Australia. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 17(5), 577-588.
- Foucault, M. (1972). *The archaeology of knowledge and the discourse of language*. New York: Pantheon.
- Foucault, M. (1980). *Power/knowledge: Selected interviews and other writings, 1972-1977*. New York: Pantheon.
- Freire, P. (1970). *Pedagogy of the oppressed*. New York: The Continuum Publishing.

- Gao, X., Cheng, H., & Kelly, P. (2008). Supplementing an uncertain investment? Mainland Chinese students practising English together in Hong Kong. *Journal of Asian Pacific Communication, 18*(1), 9-29.
- Gardner, R. C. (1985). *Social psychology and second language learning: The role of attitudes and motivation*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Gardner, R. C., & Lambert, W. C. (1972). *Attitudes and motivation in second language learning*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Gee, J. P. (1996). *Social linguistics and literacies: Ideology in discourses* (2nd ed.). London: Taylor & Francis.
- Gee, J. P. (1999). *An introduction to discourse analysis*. New York: Routledge.
- Gee, J., & Crawford, V. (1998). Two kinds of teenagers: Language, identity, and social class. In D. Alvermann, K. Hinchman, D. Moore, S. Phelps, & D. Waff (Eds.), *Reconceptualizing the literacies in adolescents' lives* (pp. 225-245). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Geertz, C. (1973). *The interpretation of cultures: Selected essays*. New York: Basic Books.
- Georgakopoulou, A. (2006). Thinking big with small stories in narrative and identity analysis. *Narrative Inquiry, 16*(1), 122-130.
- George, A. L., & Bennett, A. (2005). *Case studies and theory development in the social sciences*. Cambridge: MIT Press.
- Gergen, M. M. & Gergen, K. J. (2000) Qualitative inquiry: Tensions and transformations. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.) *Handbook of qualitative research* (2nd ed.) (pp. 1025-1046). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Gergen, M. M., & Gergen, K. J. (2006). Narratives in action. *Narrative Inquiry, 16*, 119-128.
- Giddens, A. (1984). *The constitution of society: Outline of the theory of structuration*. Oxford, England: Polity.
- Giroux, H. A. (Ed.) (1992). *Border crossings: Cultural workers and the politics of education*. New York: Psychology Press.
- Glesne, C. (2010). *Becoming qualitative researchers: An introduction* (4th ed.). Boston: Pearson.
- Gold, R. L. (1997). The ethnographic method in sociology. *Qualitative Inquiry, 3*, 388-402.
- Golombek, P., & Klager, P. (2015). Play and imagination in developing language teacher identity-in-activity. *Ilha do Desterro, 68*(1), 17-32.
- Gramsci, A. (1971). *Selections from the prison notebooks of Antonio Gramsci*. London: Lawrence and Wishart.

- Gramsci, A., & Forgacs, D. (Eds.) (1988). *An Antonio Gramsci reader: Selected writings, 1916-1935*. New York: Scholcken Books.
- Guba, E.G. (1981). Criteria for assessing the trustworthiness of naturalistic inquiries. *Educational Communication and Technology Journal*, 29, 75-91.
- Hall, J. K. (1993). The role of oral practices in the accomplishment of our everyday lives: The sociocultural dimension of interaction with implications for the learning of another language. *Applied Linguistics*, 14, 145-166.
- Higgins, C., & Sandhu, P. (2014). Researching identity through narrative approaches. In M. Bigelow & J. Enns-Kananen (Eds.) *The Routledge handbook of educational linguistics*, (pp. 50-61). New York: Routledge.
- Holland, D., Lachicotte, W., Skinner, D., & Cain, C. (Eds.) (2003). *Identity and agency in cultural words*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Holland, D., Lachicotte, W. (2007). Vygotsky, Mead, and the new sociocultural studies of identity. In H. Daniels, M. Cole & J. V. Wertsch (Eds.), *The Cambridge companion to Vygotsky* (pp. 101-135). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Holliday, A. (2006). Native-speakerism. *ELT Journal*, 60(4), 385-387.
- Holliday, A. (2008). Standards of English and politics of inclusion. *Language Teaching*, 41(1), 119-130.
- Holliday, A., Hyde, M., & Kullman, J. (2004). *Intercultural communication: An advanced reader*. New York: Routledge.
- Holstein, J. A., & Gubrium, J. F. (1997). Active interview. In D. Silverman (Ed.) *Qualitative research: Theory, method and practice* (pp. 113-129). New York: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Horkheimer, M. (1982). *Critical theory*. New York: Continuum.
- Huang, I. C. (2014). Contextualizing teacher identity of non-native-English speakers in US secondary ESL classrooms: A Bakhtinian perspective. *Linguistics and Education*, 25, 119-128.
- Huang, I. C., & Varghese, M. M. (2015). Toward a composite, personalized, and institutionalized teacher identity for non-native English speakers in US secondary ESL programs. *Critical Inquiry in Language Studies*, 12(1), 51-76.
- IELTS* (2016). Retrieved from http://www.ielts.org/about_us.aspx
- International Teaching Assistant Program (2016). *Course placement*. Retrieved from <http://www.eli.ua.edu/static/home/international-teaching-assistant-program/>

- Ives, D., & Juzwik, M. M. (2015). Small stories as performative resources: An emerging framework for studying literacy teacher identity. *Linguistics and Education, 31*, 74-85.
- Jenkins, S. (2000). Cultural and linguistic miscues: A case study of international teaching assistant and academic faculty miscommunication. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 24*, 477-501.
- Jenkins, J. (2011). Accommodating (to) ELF in the international university. *Journal of Pragmatics, 43*(4), 926-936.
- Jensen, S. Q. (2011). Othering, identity formation and agency. *Qualitative Studies, 2*(2), 63-78.
- Jia, C., & Bergerson, A. A. (2008). Understanding the international teaching assistant training program: A case study at a northwestern research university. *International Education, 37*(2), 8.
- Johnson, K. E., & Golombek, P. R. (Eds.). (2002). *Teachers' narrative inquiry as professional development*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Jørgensen, M. W., & Phillips, L. J. (2002). *Discourse analysis as theory and method*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publication Ltd.
- Kamhi-Stein, L. (Ed.). (2004). *Learning and teaching from experience: Perspectives on nonnative English-speaking professionals*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.
- Kang, H. S. (2015). Teacher candidates' perceptions of nonnative-English-speaking teacher educators in a TESOL program: "Is there a language barrier compensation?". *TESOL Journal, 6*(2), 225-251.
- Kang, O., & Rubin, D. L. (2009). Reverse linguistic stereotyping: Measuring the effect of listener expectations on speech evaluation. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology, 28*(4), 441-456.
- Kang, O., Rubin, D., & Lindemann, S. (2014). Mitigating US undergraduates' attitudes toward international teaching assistants. *TESOL Quarterly, 49*(4), 681-706.
- Kanuha, V. K. (2000). "Being" native versus "going native": Conducting social work research as an insider. *Social Work, 45*(5), 439-447.
- Keller, D. (2005). Towards a critical theory of education. In I. Gur-Ze'ev (Ed.), *Critical theory and critical pedagogy today. Toward a new critical language in education*. (pp. 49-69). Haifa, Israel: Faculty of Education, University of Haifa.
- Kinging, C. (2004). Alice doesn't live here anymore: Foreign language learning and identity construction. In A. Pavlenko & A. Blackledge (Eds.), *Negotiation of identities in multilingual contexts* (pp. 219-242). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Kramsch, C. (2003). *Language acquisition and language socialization*. London: Continuum.

- Kramersch, C. (2009). *The multilingual subject*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Kramersch, C. (2012). Imposture: A late modern notion in poststructuralist SLA research. *Applied Linguistics*, 33(5), 483-502.
- Krashen, S. (1981). *Second language acquisition and second language learning*. Oxford: Pergamon.
- Krashen, S. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. Oxford: Pergamon.
- Kraus, W. (2006). The narrative negotiation of identity and belonging. *Narrative Inquiry*, 16, 103-111.
- Krumer-Nevo, M., & Sidi, M. (2012). Writing against othering. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 18(4), 299-309.
- Kubota, R. (2004). Critical multiculturalism and second language education. In B. Norton & K. Toohy (Eds.). *Critical pedagogies and language learning* (pp. 30-52). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Kubota, R., & Lin, A. (2006). Race and TESOL: Introduction to concepts and theories. *TESOL Quarterly*, 40(3), 471-493.
- Kubota, R., & Lin, A. (Eds.) (2009). *Race, culture, and identities in second language education*. London & New York: Routledge.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (Ed.) (2002). *Beyond methods: Macrostrategies for language teaching*. Yale University Press.
- Kung, F. W. (2015). Reexamining the NS and NNS dichotomy in Taiwanese higher EFL education. *The Asia-Pacific Education Researcher*, 24(1), 27-34.
- Kvale, S. (1996). *InterViews: An introduction to qualitative research interviewing*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Labov, W. (Ed.) (1972). *Language in the inner city: Studies in the Black English vernacular* (Vol. 3). Philadelphia, PA: University of Pennsylvania Press.
- Lacan, J. (Ed.) (1977a). The agency of the letter in the unconscious or reason since Freud (A. Sheridan, Trans.) *Écrits: A selection* (pp. 146-159). New York: W.W. Norton & Co.
- Lacan, J. (Ed.) (1977b). The mirror stage as formative of the function of the I as revealed in psychoanalytic experience (A. Sheridan, Trans.) *Écrits: A selection* (pp. 1-7). New York: W.W. Norton & Co.
- Lan, P. C. (2011). White privilege, language capital and cultural ghettoisation: Western high-skilled migrants in Taiwan. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 37(10), 1669-1693.

- Lantolf, J. P. (1996). SLA theory building: 'Letting all the flowers bloom!' *Language Learning*, 46, 713-749.
- Lee, E. (2008). The "other (ing)" costs of ESL A Canadian case study. *Journal of Asian Pacific Communication*, 18(1), 91-108.
- Lee, J. J. (2010). International students' experiences and attitudes at a US host institution: Self-reports and future recommendations. *Journal of Research in International Education*, 9(1), 66-84.
- Lee, J. J., & Rice, C. (2007). Welcome to America? International student perceptions of discrimination. *Higher Education*, 53(3), 381-409.
- Leeman, J. (2015). Heritage language education and identity in the United States. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 35, 100-119.
- Levis, J. M., & Moyer, A. (Eds.). (2014). *Social dynamics in second language accent* (Vol. 10). Walter de Gruyter.
- Li, L., Mazer, J. P., & Ju, R. (2011). Resolving international teaching assistant language inadequacy through dialogue: Challenges and opportunities for clarity and credibility. *Communication Education*, 60(4), 461-478.
- Lin, A., Wang, W., Akamatsu, N., & Riazi, A. M. (2002). Appropriating English, expanding identities, and re-visioning the field: From TESOL to teaching English for globalized communication (TEGCOM). *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education*, 1(4), 295-316.
- Lippi-Green, R. (1994). Accent, standard language ideology, and discriminatory pretext in the courts. *Language in Society*, 23(2), 163-198.
- Liu, J. (2005). Chinese graduate teaching assistants teaching freshman composition to native English speaking students. In E. Llorca (Ed.), *Non-native language teachers* (pp. 155-177). New York: Springer.
- Llorca, E. (2013). Native and non-native teachers of English. In C. A. Chapelle (Ed.) *The encyclopedia of applied linguistics* (pp. 1-5). Chichester, West Sussex, UK: Blackwell Publishing Ltd.
- Llorca, E. (2014). Non-native teachers and advocacy. In M. Bigelow & J. Enns-Kananen (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of educational linguistics* (pp. 105-116). New York: Routledge.
- Lo Bianco, J. (2005). Globalisation and national communities of communication. *Language Problems and Language Planning*, 29(2), 109-133.
- Mahoob, A., Uhrig, K., Hartford, B., & Newman, K. (2004). Children of a lesser English: Nonnative English speakers as ESL teachers in English language programs in the United

- States. In L. D. Kamhi-Stein (Ed.), *The state of the non-native teachers in the United States* (pp. 100-120). Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.
- Mann, S. (2010). A critical review of qualitative interviews in applied linguistics. *Applied Linguistics*, 32(1), 6-24.
- Mawhinney, H., & Xu, F. (1997). Reconstructing the professional identity of foreign-trained teachers in Ontario schools. *TESOL Quarterly*, 31(3), 632-639.
- McKenzie, M. (2005). The 'post-post period' and environmental education research. *Environmental Education Research*, 11(4), 401-412.
- McLeod, J. (2006). Narrative thinking and the emergence of postpsychological therapies. *Narrative Inquiry*, 16, 201-210.
- McNamara, T. (2012). Poststructuralism and its challenges for applied linguistics. *Applied Linguistics*, 33(5), 473-482.
- Merriam, S. B. (Ed.) (1998). *Qualitative research and case study applications in education*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Meyer, K. R., & Mao, Y. (2014). Comparing student perceptions of the classroom climate created by US American and international teaching assistants. *Higher Learning Research Communications*, 4(3), 12-22.
- Morgan, B. (2004). Teacher identity as pedagogy: Towards a field-internal conceptualisation in bilingual and second language education. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 7(2-3), 172-188.
- Morgan, B. (2007). Poststructuralism and applied linguistics. In *International handbook of English language teaching* (pp. 1033-1052). New York: Springer.
- Morita, N. (2004). Negotiating participation and identity in second language academic communities. *TESOL Quarterly*, 38(4), 573-603.
- Morrell, E., & Collatos, A. M. (2002). Toward a critical teacher education: High school student sociologists as teacher educators. *Social Justice*, 29(4), 60-70.
- Motha, S. (2006). Racializing ESOL teacher identities in U.S. K-12 public schools. *TESOL Quarterly*, 40, 495-518.
- Moussu, L., & Llorca, E. (2008). Non-native English-speaking English language teachers: History and research. *Language Teaching*, 41(3), 315-348.
- Moussu, L. (2010). Influence of teacher-contact time and other variables on ESL students' attitudes towards native- and nonnative-English-speaking teachers. *TESOL Quarterly*, 44, 746-768.

- Myles, J., & Cheng, L. (2003). The social and cultural life of non-native English speaking international graduate students at a Canadian university. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 2(3), 247-263.
- Nelson, C.D. (2004). A queer chaos of meanings: Coming out conundrums in globalised classrooms. *Journal of Gay & Lesbian Issues in Education*, 2(1), 27-46.
- Norton Peirce, B. (1995). Social identity, investment, and language learning. *TESOL Quarterly*, 29(1), 9-31.
- Norton, B. (Ed.) (2000). *Identity and language learning: Gender, ethnicity, and educational change*. London: Longman.
- Norton, B. (2008). Identity, language learning, and critical pedagogies. In J. Cenoz & N. H. Hornberger (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of language and education* (2nd ed.) (pp. 45-57). Chicago: Springer.
- Norton, B., & Early, M. (2011). Researcher identity, narrative inquiry, and language teaching research. *TESOL Quarterly*, 45(3), 415-439.
- Norton, B., & Toohey, K. (2011). Identity, language learning, and social change. *Language Teaching*, 44(4), 412-446.
- Norton, B., & Morgan, B. (2013). Poststructuralism. In C. A. Chapelle (Ed.) *The encyclopedia of applied linguistics*. (pp. 1-6). Chichester, West Sussex, UK: Blackwell Publishing Ltd.
- Ortega, L. (2009). *Understanding second language acquisition*. London: Hodder Education.
- Palfreyman, D. (2005). Othering in an English language program. *TESOL Quarterly*, 39(2), 211-233.
- Pan, L. (2011). English language ideologies (ELI) in Olympic Beijing. *Applied Linguistics Review*, 2, 75-98.
- Patton, M. (2002). *Qualitative research and evaluation methods* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Pavlenko, A. (2002). Narrative study: Whose story is it, anyway? *TESOL Quarterly*, 36, 213-218.
- Pavlenko, A. (2007). Autobiographic narratives as data in applied linguistics. *Applied Linguistics*, 28(2), 163-188.
- Pavlenko, A., & Blackledge, A. (2004). *Negotiation of identities in multilingual settings*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Pavlenko, A., Blackledge, A., Piller, I., & Teutsch-Dwyer, M. (2001). *Multilingualism, second language learning, and gender*. New York: Mouton de Gruyter.

- Pennycook, A. (1999). Introduction: Critical approaches to TESOL. *TESOL Quarterly*, 329-348.
- Pennycook, A. (2008). Critical applied linguistics and language education. In J. Cenoz & N. H. Hornberger (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of language and education* (2nd ed.). Chicago: Springer.
- Pennycook, A. (Ed.) (2010). *Language as a local practice*. New York: Routledge.
- Pennycook, A. (2011). Critical and alternative directions in applied linguistics. *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics*, 33(2), 16.1-16.16.
- Pérez-Milans, M. (2015). Language education policy in late modernity:(Socio) linguistic ethnographies in the European Union. *Language Policy*, 14(2), 99-107.
- Peters, M. A. (2005). Education, post-structuralism and the politics of difference. *Policy Futures in Education*, 3(4), 436-445.
- Phillipson, R. (1992). *Linguistic imperialism*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Plakans, B. S. (1997). Undergraduates' experiences with and attitudes toward international teaching assistants. *TESOL Quarterly*, 31(1), 95-119.
- Polanyi, L. (1985). *Telling the American story: A structural and cultural analysis of conversational storytelling*. New York: Ablex Publishing Corporation.
- Pool, I. D. S. (1957). A critique of the 20th anniversary issue. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 21(1), 190-198.
- Radford, G. P., & Radford, M. L. (2005). Structuralism, post-structuralism, and the library: de Saussure and Foucault. *Journal of Documentation*, 61(1), 60-78.
- Ragin, C. C. (1992). Introduction: Cases of “what is a case?” In C. C. Ragin & H. S. Becker (Eds.), *What is a case?* (pp. 1-18). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Rajagopalan, K. (2005). Nonnative speaker teachers of English and their anxieties: Ingredients for an experiment in action research. In E. Llorca (Ed.), *Nonnative language teachers: Perceptions, challenges and contributions to the profession* (pp. 283-303). New York: Springer.
- Rich, S., & Troudi, S. (2006). Hard times: Arab TESOL students' experiences of racialization and othering in the United Kingdom. *TESOL Quarterly*, 615-627.
- Richards, K. (2009). Trends in qualitative research in language teaching since 2000. *Language Teaching* 42, 147-180.
- Rubin, D. L., & Smith, K. A. (1990). Effects of accent, ethnicity, and lecture topic on undergraduates' perceptions of nonnative English-speaking teaching assistants. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 14(3), 337-353.

- Ruohotie-Lyhty, M. (2013). Struggling for a professional identity: Two newly qualified language teachers' identity narratives during the first years at work. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 30*, 120-129.
- Said, E. W. (1985). Orientalism reconsidered. *Cultural Critique, 1*, 89-107.
- Saldaña, J. (2012). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publication Inc.
- Saussure, F. D. (Ed.) (1966). *Course in general linguistics*. (C. Bally & A. Sechehaye, Trans.), Wade Baskin.
- Serrant-Green, L. (2002). Black on black: Methodological issues for black researchers working in minority ethnic communities. *Nurse Researcher, 9*(4), 30-44.
- Simon, R. I. (1995). Face to face with alterity: Postmodern Jewish identity and the Eros of pedagogy. In J. Gallop (Ed.), *Pedagogy: The question of impersonation* (pp. 90-105). Bloomington, IN: Indiana University Press.
- Simon-Maeda, A. (2004). The complex construction of professional identities: Female EFL educators in Japan speak out. *TESOL Quarterly, 38*(3), 405-436.
- Song, K. H., & Del Castillo, A. G. (2015). NNESTs' professional identity in the linguistically and culturally diverse classrooms. *International Journal of Educational Psychology, 4*(1), 54-83.
- Speaking section*. (2016). Retrieved from <https://www.ets.org/toefl/ibt/scores/understand>
- Stake, R. E. (2005). Qualitative case studies. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of qualitative research* (3rd ed.) (pp. 443–466). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Sterzuk, A. (2015). 'The standard remains the same': Language standardisation, race and othering in higher education. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development, 36*(1), 53-66.
- St. Pierre, E. A. (2011). Post qualitative research: The critique and the coming after. In N. K. Denzin, & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.) *The Sage handbook of qualitative research* (4th ed.) (pp. 611-626). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Inc.
- Subtirelu, N. C. (2015). "She does have an accent but...": Race and language ideology in students' evaluations of mathematics instructors on RateMyProfessors.com. *Language in Society, 44*(1), 35-62.
- Sung, K.-W. (2002). Critical theory and pedagogy: Remapping English teaching in Korea. *English Teaching, 57*(2), 65-89.
- Talmy, S. (2010). Qualitative interviews in applied linguistics: From research instrument to social practice. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 30*(1), 128-148.

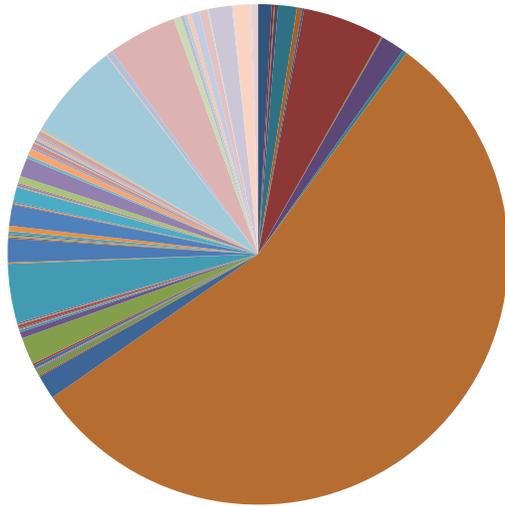
- Temple, B., & Young, A. (2004). Qualitative research and translation dilemmas. *Qualitative Research*, 4(2), 161-178.
- The IELTS 9-band scale*. (2016). Retrieved from http://www.ielts.org/test_takers_information/getting_my_results/my_test_score.aspx
- The graduate student guide* (2014). Retrieved from <http://services.graduate.ua.edu/publications/ga/gaguide.htm>
- Thomas, G. (2011). A typology for the case study in social science following a review of definition, discourse, and structure. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 17(6), 511-521.
- Thompson, J.B. (Ed.) (1990). *Ideology and modern culture*. Cambridge: Polity Press.
- TOEFL® score scales* (2016). Retrieved from <https://www.ets.org/toefl/ibt/scores/understand>
- Torres, C. A. (1999). Critical theory and political sociology of education: Arguments. In T. J. Popkewitz & L. Fendler (Eds.), *Critical theories in education: Changing terrains of knowledge and politics*, Vol. 9 (pp. 87-116). New York: Routledge.
- Tracy, S. J. (2010). Qualitative quality: Eight “big-tent” criteria for excellent qualitative research. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 16(10), 837-851.
- Trent, J. (2014). ‘I’m teaching, but I’m not really a teacher’. Teaching assistants and the construction of professional identities in Hong Kong schools. *Educational Research*, 56(1), 28-47.
- Trice, A. G. (2003). Faculty perceptions of graduate international students: The benefits and challenges. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 7(4), 379-403.
- Tsui, A. B. M. (2011). Teacher education and teacher development. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (Vol. 2, pp.21-39). New York: Routledge.
- Uzum, B. (2012). A microethnographic case study of Fulbright language teaching assistants: Dialogic mediation and conceptual thinking for professional identity development. In Gorsuch, G. (Ed.). *Working theories for teaching assistant development: Time-tested & robust theories, frameworks, & models for TA & ITA learning* (pp. 388-422). Stillwater, OK: Stillwater Press.
- Valencia, R. R. (2010). *Dismantling contemporary deficit thinking: Educational thought and practice*. New York: Routledge.
- van Lier, L. (1994). Forks and hope: Pursuing understanding in different ways. *Applied Linguistics*, 15, 328-347.

- Varghese, M., B. Morgan, B. Johnston, and K. Johnson. (2005). Theorizing language teacher identity: Three perspectives and beyond. *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education* 4(1), 21-44.
- Vásquez, C. (2011). TESOL, teacher identity, and the need for “small story” research. *TESOL Quarterly*, 45(3), 535-545.
- Villarreal, D. (2013). Closing the communication gap between undergraduates and international faculty. *CATESOL Journal*, 24(1), 8-28.
- Volkman, M. J., & Zgagacz, M. (2004). Learning to teach physics through inquiry: The lived experience of a graduate teaching assistant. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 41(6), 584-602.
- Warren C. A. B., & Karner, T. X. (Eds.) (2009). *Discovering qualitative methods: Field research, interviews, and analysis* (2nd ed.). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Waters, J. L. (2005). Transnational family strategies and education in the contemporary Chinese diaspora. *Global Networks*, 5(4), 359-377.
- Weedon, C. (1987). *Feminist practice and poststructuralist theory* (2nd ed.). Malden, MA: Blackwell.
- Weedon, C. (1997). *Feminist practice and poststructuralist theory* (2nd ed.). Oxford, England: Blackwell.
- Weems, L. (2006). Unsettling politics, locating ethics representations of reciprocity in postpositivist inquiry. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 12(5), 994-1011.
- Wenger, E. (1999). *Communities of practice: Learning, meaning, and identity*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Williams, G. (2007). Investigating the influences on the teaching identity of international teaching assistants. In M. Mantero (Ed.), *Identity and second language learning: Culture, inquiry and dialogic activity in education contexts* (pp. 305-328). Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing.
- Williams, G. M. (2011). Examining classroom negotiation strategies of international teaching assistants. *International Journal for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning*, 5(1), 1-16.
- Williams, J. (Ed.) (2014). *Understanding poststructuralism*. New York: Routledge.
- Woodward, K. (Ed.). (1997). *Identity and difference*. London: Sage.
- Wright, S. (2004). *Language policy and language planning: From nationalism to globalisation*. Basingstoke, England: Palgrave Macmillan.

- Yayli, D. (2008). Theory-practice dichotomy in inquiry: Meanings and preservice teacher-mentor teacher tension in Turkish literacy classrooms. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 24(4), 889-900.
- Yashima, T. (2013). Agency in second language acquisition. In C. A. Chapelle (Ed.). *The Encyclopedia of Applied Linguistics*. Chichester, West Sussex, UK:Wiley-Blackwell.
- Yazan, B. (2015). Three approaches to case study methods in education: Yin, Merriam, and Stake. *The Qualitative Report*, 20(2), 134-152.
- Yin, R. K. (2003). *Case study research: Design and methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

APPENDIX A

ENROLLMENT DISTRIBUTION BY FOREIGN COUNTRY: FALL 2015



- | | | |
|----------------|----------------|---------------------|
| ■ Australia | ■ Austria | ■ Azerbaijan |
| ■ Bahamas | ■ Bangladesh | ■ Belgium |
| ■ Bolivia | ■ Brazil | ■ Cameroon |
| ■ Canada | ■ Chile | ■ China |
| ■ Colombia | ■ Costa Rica | ■ Cyprus |
| ■ Denmark | ■ Dominica | ■ Ecuador |
| ■ Egypt | ■ France | ■ Germany |
| ■ Ghana | ■ Greece | ■ Grenada |
| ■ Haiti | ■ Honduras | ■ Hong Kong |
| ■ Iceland | ■ India | ■ Indonesia |
| ■ Iran | ■ Iraq | ■ Ireland |
| ■ Israel | ■ Italy | ■ Jamaica |
| ■ Japan | ■ Jordan | ■ Kazakhstan |
| ■ Kenya | ■ Kuwait | ■ Lithuania |
| ■ Malaysia | ■ Mauritania | ■ Mexico |
| ■ Nepal | ■ Netherlands | ■ Nigeria |
| ■ Norway | ■ Pakistan | ■ Paraguay |
| ■ Peru | ■ Philippines | ■ Poland |
| ■ Romania | ■ Russia | ■ Rwanda |
| ■ Saint Lucia | ■ Saudi Arabia | ■ Singapore |
| ■ South Africa | ■ South Korea | ■ Spain |
| ■ Sri Lanka | ■ Sweden | ■ Switzerland |
| ■ Taiwan | ■ Thailand | ■ Trinidad & Tobago |
| ■ Turkey | ■ Ukraine | ■ United Kingdom |

APPENDIX B
IRB APPROVAL

March 9, 2016

Hao Wang
Department of Curriculum & Instruction
College of Education
The University of Alabama
Box 870232

Re: IRB # 16-OR-067 (Revision) "International Teaching Assistants' Professional Identity Development at a U.S. University: A Multiple Case Study Perspective"

Dear Mr. Wang:

The University of Alabama Institutional Review Board has reviewed the revision to your previously approved expedited protocol. The board has approved the change in your protocol.

Please remember that your approval period expires one year from the date of your original approval, February 11, 2016, not the date of this revision approval.

Should you need to submit any further correspondence regarding this proposal, please include the assigned IRB application number. Changes in this study cannot be initiated without IRB approval, except when necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to participants.

Good luck with your research.

Sincerely,

APPENDIX C

CLASSROOM OBSERVATION AND INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Classroom Observation and Interview Schedule

Date		Observations			Field Notes			Interviews			Journals		
1	Mar. 10												
2	Mar. 14												
3	Mar. 15												
4	Mar. 16												
5	Mar. 17												
6	Mar. 21												
7	Mar. 22												
8	Mar. 23												
9	Mar. 24												
10	Mar. 28												
11	Mar. 29												
12	Mar. 30												
13	Mar. 31												
14	Apr. 4												
15	Apr. 5												
16	Apr. 6												
17	Apr. 7												
18	Apr. 11												
19	Apr. 12												
20	Apr. 13												
21	Apr. 14												

22	Apr. 18												
23	Apr. 19												
24	Apr. 20												
25	Apr. 21												
26	Apr. 25												
27	Apr. 26												
28	Apr. 28												
29	Apr. 29												

APPENDIX D
INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Individual Interview Questions

The interview questions are broken into two categories: general information and research questions. Research questions are listed before each set of related interview questions to assist the researcher in staying focused on that particular information during the interview process.

The following questions will be the main point in the interview with the participants. Additional questions developing from classroom observations and research journals will also be used.

General Questions

1. What is your name?
2. What is your nationality?
3. What languages do you speak?
4. How did you learn these languages?
5. About the ITAP program, do you think the training and exams are helpful for you as an ITA?
6. What kind of teaching assistantship did you receive?
7. What subject do you teach?
8. How many students do you usually have in one class?
9. How long have you been teaching as an ITA?
10. Have you had any teaching experience before you took the ITA position at this university?
11. Could you briefly describe your teaching experience so far as an ITA at this university?
12. In what way do you view yourself as a professional ITA?

Questions about receiving feedback from students

13. How often do you get feedback from your students?
14. Can you share with me what kind of feedback you get from your students?
15. In what way do you think that your students' feedback serves to help you develop professionally?

Questions about interacting with supervisors

16. How often do you meet with your supervisor?
17. What are the main purposes of your appointment with your supervisor?
18. In what way are your interactions with your supervisor influencing the way you teach?
19. Has language proficiency or perhaps accent been a matter of discussion with your supervisor?

Questions about English language use in academic settings

20. Are there any comments from students that are specifically related to English language use in academic settings? If so, could you give me some examples? If not, has there been some concern at a certain point that your English language use in academic settings could be an obstacle for your professional growth?
21. As an ITA, to what extent do you think English language use in academic settings should be taken into the consideration of one's overall teaching competence?

APPENDIX E

INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEW QUESTIONS (CHINESE VERSION)

Individual Interview Questions (Chinese Version)

采访问题有两部分：一部分是关于背景的，还有一部分是关于研究问题的。研究员在一些问题的前面注明了相应的研究问题，以方便研究员集中话题。

以下的问题将会是本次研究的主要部分，额外的问题会从课堂观摩和研究员的日志中提取。

背景类问题

1. 你叫什么名字？
2. 你的国籍是什么？
3. 你会说哪几国语言？
4. 你是如何学习这些语言的？
5. 关于这些 ITAP 你觉得上课和考试对你的 ITA 有帮助吗？
6. 你拿到的是怎么样的一个助教？
7. 你教什么学科？
8. 你的课堂上有多少学生？
9. 你做 ITA 多久了？
10. 在你做 ITA 之前，你有教学经验吗？
11. 你能简要谈谈你到目前为止的做 ITA 的经历吗？
12. 你怎么评价自己是个专业的 ITA？

关于学生的反馈

13. 你多久从学生中获得一次反馈？
14. 能不能谈谈学生给你的反馈内容？
15. 你觉得学生对你的反馈对你有什么帮助？

关于与导师交流

16. 你多久见一次导师？
17. 你一般与导师见面的原因是哪些？

18. 你与导师见面交流对你的教学有哪些影响？

19. 在你和你的导师见面时，语言或者是口音有涉及到吗？

关于学术环境中的英语使用

20. 学生对你评价中有和学术环境中的英语使用相关的内容吗，如果有，你能给出一些例子吗？如果没有，你自己之前会有觉得学术环境中的英语使用对今后的成长会是一个阻碍吗？

21. 作为一个 ITA，你觉得学术环境中的英语使用应该纳入评价一个教师教学水平高低里面吗？

APPENDIX F
OBSERVATIONAL FIELD NOTE FORM

Observational Field Note Form

Field notes completed by:	
Observations site:	
Location of researcher within site:	
Time entered the field:	Time exited the field:
Subjects observed:	
Activities observed:	
Notes:	

APPENDIX G
INFORMED CONSENT STATEMENTS

**THE UNIVERSITY OF ALABAMA
HUMAN RESEARCH PROTECTION PROGRAM
Informed Consent for a Non-Medical Study**

Study title: *INTERNATIONAL TEACHING ASSISTANTS' PROFESSIONAL IDENTITY DEVELOPMENT AT A U.S. UNIVERSITY: A MULTIPLE CASE STUDY PERSPECTIVE*

Investigator's Name & Position: Hao Wang; Doctoral candidate at UA

You are being asked to take part in a research study.

This study is called *International Teaching Assistants' Professional Identity Development at a U.S. University: A Multiple Case Study Perspective*. The study is being conducted by Mr. Hao Wang, who is a graduate student at the University of Alabama.

Is the researcher being paid for this study?

The researcher is not receiving payment.

Is this research developing a product that will be sold, and if so, will the investigator profit from it?

The researcher is not developing a product that will be sold therefore will not profit.

Does the investigator have any conflict of interest in this study?

The investigator has no conflict of interest in this study.

What is this study about? What is the investigator trying to learn?

The study is about understanding international teaching assistants' (ITA) professional identity development in an American university through students' feedback, ITAs' interactions with their supervisors, and the impact of English language proficiency. The current study may shed light on further development of ITA training programs and knowledge of ITAs' teaching experience in the U.S.

Why is this study important or useful?

UNIVERSITY OF ALABAMA IRB
CONSENT FORM APPROVED: 10-18-16
EXPIRATION DATE: 2-10-17

This study is important and useful because it focuses on a group of individuals who are, by the number of enrollment, underrepresented in the university where this study will be operationalized. Thus, this study creates opportunities for ITAs to tell their stories. As the primary teaching force in many U.S. higher institutions, it is important to understand ITAs' professional identity development.

Why have I been asked to be in this study?

You have been asked to be in this study because you are an international graduate student who is holding teaching assistantship currently an ITA at this university.

How many people will be in this study?

About two other people will be in this study.

What will I be asked to do in this study?

If you meet the criteria and agree to be in this study, you will be asked to participate in interviews and classroom observations. The interviews and classroom observations will be audiotaped and transcribed. If you do not wish to be audiotaped, you will not be able to participate in the study.

How much time will I spend being this study?

You will spend approximately two to three months being in this study.

Will being in this study cost me anything?

The only cost to you from this study is your time.

Will I be compensated for being in this study?

You will not be compensated for being in this study.

Can the investigator take me out of this study?

As the investigator, I may take you out of the study if I feel that the study is upsetting you or something happens that means you no longer meet the study requirements, etc.

What are the risks (dangers or harms) to me if I am in this study?

Little or no risk is foreseen. The chief risk is that you may get tired from the interviews, uncomfortable with classroom observations, upset by thinking about your teaching experience in the U.S. The research will attempt to minimize or avoid these risks through breaks, rescheduling the interview, or removing the person from the study, etc. Another risk to you is to your privacy and confidentiality. All precaution

UNIVERSITY OF ALABAMA IRB
CONSENT FORM APPROVED: 10-18-16
EXPIRATION DATE: 2-10-17

will be taken to minimize this as much as possible. (See section on privacy and confidentiality.)

What are the benefits (good things) that may happen if I am in this study?

There are no direct benefits to you. Although you will not benefit personally from being in the study, you may feel good about knowing that you have helped other ITAs as stakeholders in education gain a deeper understanding and learn how to improve their services to ITAs.

What are the benefits to science or society?

This study will help educators to better understand ITAs in their teaching positions. Society will benefit from an increasing number of ITAs in U.S. campuses as it brings different perspectives to students.

How will my privacy be protected?

Privacy will be protected in several ways. Interviews will occur in a private room or a site of your choosing and you will know in advance what you will be asked about. Additionally, you do not have to answer any questions you do not want to.

How will my confidentiality be protected?

Confidentiality refers to data and how it will be safeguarded. Yours will be protected by such actions as separating signed consents from datasheets, using pseudonyms for records, locked drawers and doors, restricting the number of people who can access data, and destroying raw data or identifiers after data have been used.

What are the alternatives to being in this study? Do I have other choices?

There are no other choices. The alternative to being in this study is not to participate.

What are my rights as a participant in this study?

Taking part in this study is voluntary. It is your free choice. You can refuse to be in it at all. If you start the study, you can stop at any time. There will be no effect on your relations with the University of Alabama. The University of Alabama Institutional Review Board ("the IRB") is the committee that protects the rights of people in research studies. The IRB may review this study records from time to time to be sure that you are being treated fairly and that the study is being carried out as planned.

Who do I call if I have questions or problems?

If you have questions, concerns, or complaints about the study right now, please ask them. If you have questions, concerns, or complaints about the study later on, please

UNIVERSITY OF ALABAMA IRB
CONSENT FORM APPROVED: 10-18-16
EXPIRATION DATE: 2-10-17

call Mr. Hao Wang at 205-239-1371.

If you have questions about your rights as a person in a research study, call Ms. Tanta Myles, the Research Compliance Officer of the University, at 205-348-8461 or toll-free at 1-877-820-3066. You may also ask questions, make suggestions, or file complaints and concerns through the IRB Outreach website at http://osp.ua.edu/site/PRCO_Welcome.html or email the Research Compliance office at participantoutreach@bama.ua.edu. After you participate, you are encouraged to complete the survey for research participants that is online at the outreach website or you may ask the investigator for a copy of it and mail it to the University Office for Research Compliance, Box 870127, 358 Rose Administration Building, Tuscaloosa, AL 35487-0127.

I have read this consent form. I have had a chance to ask questions. I agree to take part in it. I will receive a copy of this consent form to keep.

Signature of Research Participant

Date

Signature of Investigator

Date

UNIVERSITY OF ALABAMA IRB
CONSENT FORM APPROVED: 10-18-16
EXPIRATION DATE: 2-10-17

(A Chinese version of the informed consent document)
THE UNIVERSITY OF ALABAMA
HUMAN RESEARCH PROTECTION PROGRAM
Informed Consent for a Non-Medical Study

阿拉巴马大学研究保护同意书

研究课题：美国大学国际生助教职业身份的发展：多案例分析角度

研究员：Hao Wang, 博士生 The Curriculum and Instruction Department, 研究员由阿拉巴马大学教育学院应聘

是否与阿拉巴马大学合作：否

此项研究课题会得到经济资助吗？

否

此项研究课题是研发一个产品出售吗？如果是，研究员会得到利益吗？

此项研究课题不是研发一个产品用于出售

研究员在此项研究中有任何利益上的冲突吗？

无

本次研究是关于什么？研究员想学到什么？

本次研究的目的是探索美国大学国际助教生的职业身份发展。此次研究从三方面出发，一是了解美国大学学生对国际助教的评价，二是国际助教与导师之间的交流，三是英语语言对国际助教的影响。

研究的重要性

本次研究的重要性在于 1. 在一个国际生数量较少的学生，该研究有助于提高国际生的影响力，使得学校和社会对国际生有更多的认识 2. 国际生助教在许多美国大学扮演着重要的角色，因此了解他们的职业身份发展是不容忽视的。

为什么我被选为研究对象？

因为你是该学校的学生同时也是国际生助教

本次研究有多少人参与？

本次研究有 3 人参与

UNIVERSITY OF ALABAMA IRB
CONSENT FORM APPROVED: 10-18-16
EXPIRATION DATE: 2-10-17

我需要做什么？

如果你满足以上要求，研究员会对你进行采访，并且进行课堂观摩。届时，研究员将会对全过程录音，然后听译成英文。假如你不愿意被录音，那么你将无法参加此次研究

我需要花多少时间参加这次研究？

数据收集地点由你来决定，本次研究时间全程大约 2-3 个月

参加这次研究，我会支出什么吗

参加这次研究，你只支出你的时间

参加这次研究，我会得到补助吗

参加这次研究没有任何补助

参加这次研究，会给我带来危险吗

因为研究采用采访的形式，不存在可预见的危险，你的任何信息会得到保护。任何相关信息会储存在我的个人电脑上，并且设有密码保护。所有信息只有我和另一名研究员可以获取。一年后，所有信息会被删除

参加这次研究，我会有哪些好处

虽然参加这次研究没有直接的好处，但是你会为研究人员提供相关信息使他们更好的了解所研究的问题

此次研究对社会有哪些好处

此次研究会为研究人员，教师，学校，还有当地社区更国际生助教

我的隐私如何得到保护

采访会在你所选取的地点进行。你会事先知道这个研究的大体内容，如果你不想进行采访，你可以随时终止采访。并且，任何数据会被存放在我的个人电脑上，并且设有密码保护。所有信息只有我和另一名研究员可以获取。一年后，所有信息会被删除。

有其他选项吗？

其他的选择就是不参加本次研究

作为参加研究的人员，我有什么权利？

参加研究是自愿的，你可以选择参加，也可以选择不参加。阿拉巴马大学有设立 IRB 对所有研究进行监管

UNIVERSITY OF ALABAMA IRB
CONSENT FORM APPROVED: 10-18-16
EXPIRATION DATE: 2-10-17

如果我有疑问，我应该和谁联系

如果你有疑问，请联系本次研究的研究员：Hao Wang hwang15@crimson.ua.edu
你也可以联系 Ms. Tanta Myles, 阿拉巴马大学研究办公室 205-348-8461 或者 1-877-820-3066. 你还可以与 IRB 联系 http://osp.ua.edu/site/PRCO_Welcome.html or email us at participantoutreach@bama.ua.edu.

当你完成研究后，你可以向研究员要一份参与研究的调查并且寄送到 the University Office for Research Compliance, Box 870127, 358 Rose Administration Building, Tuscaloosa, AL 35487-0127.

我读了以上的问题，我有机会问问题，我会有一份同意书作为保存

参与者签名 时间

研究员签名 时间

当完成本次研究后，研究员或许会再次联系你做一个相关当研究，你有权利拒绝请求，请在下方选择:

_____ 研究员可以再次联系我做相关研究

_____ 我不希望再次参加相关研究

UNIVERSITY OF ALABAMA IRB
CONSENT FORM APPROVED: 10-18-16
EXPIRATION DATE: 2-10-17

APPENDIX H
TRANSLATOR'S DECLARATION

AAHRPP DOCUMENT # 113

**UNIVERSITY OF ALABAMA
HUMAN RESEARCH PROTECTION PROGRAM**

FORM: TRANSLATOR'S DECLARATION

NOTE: *If more than one person works on a translation, each person shall sign this form but only one copy of the source and the translated document need be attached.*

IRB Study #: International Teaching Assistants' Professional Identity Development at a U.S. university: A Multiple Case Study Perspective

PI: Hao Wang

To the University of Alabama Institutional Review Board:

I, _____Hao Wang_____, declare that I am fluent in and understand the English language and the _Chinese language_____ language. To the best of my knowledge and belief, the attached translation(s) is true, accurate, and correct.

_____ This is a word-for-word translation, OR

___☐___ This is an equivalent translation (the meaning is the same).

The original (source) English document and the translated version are attached.

Other than my role as translator:

1. _____I have no other involvement with this research proposal.
2. ___☐___I will be serving as an interpreter/interviewer as well as a translator.*
3. ___☐___ I will be consulting about the findings.

Translator's Printed Name:_____HAO WANG

Address:___ 1108 14th Ave. Canterbury Apt. #310, Tuscaloosa, 35401_____

Phone:___ 205-239-1371_____ FAX _____

E-mail:___ hwang15@crimson.ua.edu_____

**Complete investigator training and forward certificate or have PI do so.*