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FACULTY OF HUMANITIES

**Thai university teachers' beliefs about English language teaching and their awareness of Global Englishes: A study of relationship and impact on teaching practices**

by

**Rutthaphak Huttayavilaiphan**

Thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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# UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHAMPTON

# ABSTRACT

## FACULTY OF HUMANITIES

## Modern Languages and Linguistics

Thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

## THAI UNIVERSITY TEACHERS' BELIEFS ABOUT ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING AND THEIR AWARENESS OF GLOBAL ENGLISHES: A STUDY OF RELATIONSHIP AND IMPACT ON TEACHING PRACTICES

Rutthaphak Huttayavilaiphan

Teachers' beliefs are an important concept perceived among a variety of fields in the educational system. Particularly to the field of teacher education and behavioural study, this concept is generally linked with teachers' teaching behaviours and practices in classrooms given their influences on each other. This study aims to contribute to previous research on the topic of teachers' beliefs, and its focus is placed on teachers in the field of English language teaching (ELT). In addition, it aims to combine the theory of teachers' beliefs with Global Englishes (GE) because these theories are seen to have a significant impact on teachers' ELT practices. Thus, the research aims include: to discover teachers' beliefs about ELT and factors; to examine teachers' awareness of GE; and to study the relationship among teachers' beliefs, awareness of GE, and teaching practices. And these aims were formalised through two research questions; what are the beliefs about ELT of Thai university teachers? and what is/are the relationship among the teachers' beliefs, awareness of GE, and teaching practices?

This study focuses on ten Thai university teachers of English language. The data collection took place over a six month period at a public university in northern Thailand during mid-January to mid-June 2017. This study employed a qualitative research approach for both data collection and analysis. The instruments used to gather data included surveys, interviews, classroom observations, focus groups, and document analysis. Regarding the data analysis procedure, the study selected to employ qualitative content analysis with the help of Nvivo 11 computer software.

Furthermore, the data was analysed based on the deductive and inductive approach for qualitative data analysis.

The findings of RQ1 suggested three types of teachers' beliefs about ELT. They included beliefs about English language, beliefs about ELT in relation to the NESs' norms, and beliefs about ELT in relation to the GE perspective. Among these beliefs, the beliefs about English language played a role as a core belief influencing other two beliefs which were thus claimed to be peripheral beliefs. Apart from the contents of teachers' beliefs, the findings demonstrated two important types of factors; internal and external factors, which influence the teachers' belief formation and implementation in classrooms. The internal factor found in this study mainly referred to the teachers' beliefs about English language based on its power to affect not only other cognitive constructs (e.g. other beliefs, attitudes, awareness) but also teaching practices of the teachers. With regard to the external factors, they involved the teachers' different experiences with people (e.g. parents and former teachers) and institutional regulations (e.g. policy and curriculum).

In answer to RQ2, the findings reflected that the teaching practices based on the GE perspectives were fewer in numbers than the practices based on the NESs' norms. The factors influencing this result consisted of the more number of the participants who held the beliefs related to the NESs' norms and the influence of some contextual factors on the teachers' belief implementation (e.g. students and curriculum). In addition, a more discussion of the teachers' practices both based on the NESs' norms and the GE perspective informed a limited number of participants in this study who had adequate knowledge of GE. And this factor tended to be another factor affecting the unlikely occurrence of the GE-based teaching practices. This is because the results suggested that the unfamiliarity of GE had led the participants to hold misconceptions, negative attitudes, as well as unawareness of GE which were another key for GE-based teaching practice decision. Hence, based on the results of teachers' belief contents, factors influencing beliefs, and teaching practices, the study could categorise the relationship among the beliefs, awareness of GE and teaching practices into two direction; one refers to when the beliefs affect the awareness of GE and teaching practices, and another direction means when the practices played a role to influence the beliefs as well as the awareness of GE.

Finally, the results of this study could be concluded in the same way as previous studies that combined the theory of teachers' cognition with the field of GE. That is, the teachers' beliefs are an important construct in the teacher cognitive system playing a vital role in the teachers' teaching practice decision. In addition, based

on the results presenting that many teachers held the beliefs conformed to the NESs' norms could lead to negative consequences both for the teachers themselves and students, it seems crucial for current Thai teachers of English to reconsider what to bring to classrooms to teach students, especially in this period when the status and use of English in Thai are different from what stated in the monolingual ELT models.

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# Research Thesis: Declaration of Authorship

| Print name: | Rutthaphak Huttayavilaiphan |
|---|---|

| Title of thesis: | Thai university teachers' beliefs about English language teaching and their awareness of Global Englishes: A study of relationship and impact on teaching practices |
|---|---|

I declare that this thesis and the work presented in it are my own and has been generated by me as the result of my own original research.

I confirm that:

1. This work was done wholly or mainly while in candidature for a research degree at this University;
2. Where any part of this thesis has previously been submitted for a degree or any other qualification at this University or any other institution, this has been clearly stated;
3. Where I have consulted the published work of others, this is always clearly attributed;
4. Where I have quoted from the work of others, the source is always given. With the exception of such quotations, this thesis is entirely my own work;
5. I have acknowledged all main sources of help;
6. Where the thesis is based on work done by myself jointly with others, I have made clear exactly what was done by others and what I have contributed myself;
7. None of this work has been published before submission
8.

| Signature: | | Date: | |
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# Definitions and Abbreviations

| | |
|---|---|
| GE | Global Englishes |
| WEs | World Englishes |
| ELF | English as a lingua franca |
| EIL | English as an international language |
| ENL | English as a native language |
| EFL | English as a foreign language |
| ESL | English as a second language |
| ELT | English language teaching |
| L1 | First language |
| L2 | Second language |
| FL | Foreign language |
| NESs | Native English Speakers |
| NNESs | Non-native English Speakers |
| NETs | Native English teachers |
| NNETs | Non-native English teachers |
| METs | Multilingual English teachers |
| ASEAN | Association of South-East Asian Nations |
| AEC | ASEAN Economic Community |
| MoE | Ministry of Education |

# Chapter 1  Introduction

The primary objectives of this study are to investigate Thai university teachers' beliefs about English Language Teaching (ELT) and their awareness of Global Englishes (GE), as well as to examine the relationship between these two concepts and teachers' teaching practices. This chapter begins with brief information concerning the context of the study. Then, it provides an outline of the research background, informing sources of the motivation which have made a contribution to the rationale of the present study. Next, it presents the research aims, research questions, and significances of the study. The final part of the chapter discusses the thesis structure and explains how each chapter of the thesis develops.

## 1.1    Research context and background

### 1.1.1    Research context

Prior to discussing this research's background (i.e. motivation and rationale) in the next sections, it seems important to address some information concerning the context of the study. This study took place in Thailand, a country in South-East Asia where is commonly concerned as an ethnically and linguistically homogeneous country, based on the assumption that all Thai people speak Thai language (Keyuravong, 2010). However, in fact, Thailand has currently become more diverse both in terms of ethnicity and linguistics given that many other groups of people are living and many languages are also spoken in this country (e.g. English, Chinese, Vietnamese, Cambodian, and languages of indigenous tribes) (Foley, 2005, Darasawang and Watson Todd, 2012). This has led to a reflection that Thailand is already a multilingual context and its recognition as a monolingual country should be reconsidered (Baker and Jarunthawatchai, 2017).

Focusing more on the English language, this language has long been recognised as a foreign language (EFL) and this means it has no official status in Thailand (Wongsothorn et al., 2002). However, given the impact of globalisation, the position of English in Thailand has become more complicated in recent times as similar to many countries in ASEAN (Association of South-East Asian Nations) and Asia more generally (Baker and Jarunthawatchai, 2017). That is to say, Thai people currently use English not only as an EFL to communicate with native English speakers (NESs) but also as a lingua franca (henceforth ELF) with other non-native

English speakers (NNESs) both from the same and different regions (Baker, 2012a, Kirkpatrick, 2010a, Baker, 2015b). Given this fact, this study views Thailand as not only an EFL context by its given recognition, but also an ELF country based on its use of ELF in many spheres of daily communication.

However, it seems that Thailand's English language education does not take the issue concerning the roles and status of English in society into account of their classroom teaching and learning practices. This is because, according to Baker and Jarunthawatchai (2017), the Anglocentric native English speaker models and approaches are still deeply embedded in the Basic Education Curriculum. More importantly, although there seems to have a demonstration of an awareness of the current status and use of English (e.g. the role of ELF in ASEAN in Higher Education policy), their practices are still heavily conforming to the NESs' models of English language (e.g. assessment practices). The present study thus perceives this issue as a gap of English language teaching (ELT) in Thailand, and this may lead to negative results in Thai people' learning and using English (e.g. learning difficulty in classrooms and negative attitudes towards other kinds of English) (see examples in next sections). Note that the situations of English in use and in ELT are presented more in 3.3.

## 1.1.2 Research motivation

### 1.1.2.1 Researcher's experiences with the standard language ideology

The researcher was motivated to undertake this research by his experiences with the standard language ideology in the Thai context. Some of these experiences took place during his undergraduate education, including when he found that learning English with non-native English teachers (NNETs) was more challenging than with native English teachers (NETs). For example, in speaking practice, the NNETs would frequently be stricter about the pronunciation and accent than the NETs. This led to students being discouraged or lacking the confidence to perform in front of their class. At that time, however, this experience did not have much impact on the researcher's belief system, given that he was only a student and his status did not seem to have the power to reflect on his teachers' teaching practices.

It was not until later, when the researcher started his work as a novice teacher in the teaching profession and the students could provide feedback to their teachers confidentially (based on the learner-centred approach), that the researcher started questioning the native English speakers' (NESs) models for ELT in Thailand. At that

time, after he was required to teach some classes based on the NESs' models due to the institution's policy (e.g. grammar-translation methods), the researcher received feedback from his students explaining the difficulty they had achieving the NESs' accents and pronunciation. Moreover, some students' feedback contained negative attitudes towards their peers' English, in particular when they were assigned to perform role plays in English and they thought that their friends' mispronunciation or strong Thai accent caused their groups' poor score. These experiences, thus, were a genesis of his belief that the NESs' models were negative rather than positive for Thailand's English education system.

Another experience with the standard language ideology occurred when the researcher socialised with people on Thai social media and discovered that many Thai people held this kind of language ideology. What is more, some of them often attacked other Thai people and non-native English speakers (NNESs) whom they found unable to achieve what they called the 'standard' English language. Even worse, such behaviour has led to more serious issues including discrimination, stigmatisation, and marginalisation, which are often demonstrated in studies related to the standard language ideology in societies (Lippi-Green, 2012, Milroy and Milroy, 2012). To illustrate, as can be seen in 1.1.2, some groups of Thai people debated the use of English by a former leader of Thailand who took part in an international meeting in Bali, Indonesia. Obviously, this situation showed that some Thais (especially those who held the standard language ideology) used English not only as a 'political tool' to attack other people (Edelman, 2013), but also as a tool to establish status and power hierarchies in Thai society. This situation has generated some questions which have led to the research rationale as presented below.

### 1.1.2.2    An example of English language ideologies in Thailand

In November 2011, there was a heated debate in Thailand's social media after the first female Prime Minister of Thailand, Ms. Yingluck Shinnawatra, gave a welcome speech to the US Secretary of State, Mrs. Hillary Clinton, at a warm-up meeting before the 19th Association of South-East Asian Nations (ASEAN) Summit in Bali. At that time, with countable grammatical mistakes and mispronunciations as well as her strong Thai accent in the English language, a mountain of criticism was raised that accused Shinnawatra of being a cause of "national embarrassment and even liability" (Kaewmala, 2012). The debate was further fuelled when a former senator and mass-communication guru, Mr. Somkiat Onwimol, posted his opinions about his anxiety regarding Shinnawatra's limited language ability and suggested she

kept quiet at the Bali conference to prevent national disadvantage (Ganjanakhundee, 2011).

As controversially, Onwimol and his followers have criticised Shinnawatra as being less professional and less intelligent than the former Prime Minister, Mr. Abhisit Vejjajiva, due to her flaws in language performance. This has caused a number of Shinnawatra's supporters to accuse them of being unfair, since Vejjajiva gained his English proficiency from his birth in the United Kingdom (UK) and Eton-Oxford education, which was entirely different from Shinnawatra's method of English language acquisition. To support the claim, Ganjanakhundee (2011) clarified that, although Shinnawatra was seen as less fluent, her English was still serviceable and comprehensible when communicating and conveying either general or specific information about Thai politics with other countries' leaders. Some supporters even argued that the accusations about Shinnawatra's language performance were derived from personal biases (e.g. gender discrimination). Hence, it was not only her language performance, but also other issues that motivated Shinnawatra's critics. For example, there was criticism due to her relationship with Mr. Thaksin Shinnawatra, another former Prime Minister of the country, who was under suspicion of national corruption. Kaewmala (2011) mentioned that no matter how much Yingluck improved her language, the anti-Shinnawatra camp would continue to mock her accent and grammar.

In conclusion, the researcher highlights that this situation is not solely related to political issues, as it seems to involve more complicated issues, such as gender discrimination. However, it is indicative of the standard English language ideology found in Thai society. As can be perceived from the above situation, grammar, pronunciation, and accent tend to be seen inclusively as essential for the use of English language among many Thai people. More importantly, these features of the English language could even be used as criteria for judging the intelligence and professionalism of a particular person in a particular situation in society. This is illustrated in Kaewmala's (2012) report about critics of Prime Minister Shinnawatra's English language performance in relation to Thai politics. This raises some questions, such as 'where and how do these Thai people obtain this kind of English language ideology?' 'who may be involved in this process of their English language ideology formation?' and furthermore, 'are they aware of the change and the status of the English language at the present time, when this language claims to be a global language and its roles and functions are various according to users and contexts?'

### 1.1.3 Research rationale

### 1.1.3.1 English language ideologies and Thailand's English education

The above questions concerning the factors behind the English language ideologies have motivated the researcher to explore these aspects in more detail. This contributes to the research rationale, which focuses on the Thai educational sector. In particular, the first two questions (where, how, and who may be involved?) urged the researcher to examine a variety of sources investigating the language ideologies of Thai people, and to consequently ascertain their "social practices" or "activities of the language use" (Park and Wee, 2011, Silverstein, 1979). More importantly, this examination suggested that the educational context was found to be of most relevance. This is because most Thai people spend a significant amount of time exposed to the English language in an educational context (either in formal or informal modes), more than other contexts (Hayes, 2016). In particular, in the mode of formal education, Hayes (2016) claimed that most Thai people who graduate from the tertiary study will have studied English since Grade 1 of their formal education. This means they have to study English for at least 15 years and, during this period, their English language ideologies will develop significantly (Piller, 2015).

Therefore, the researcher perceives formal education to be one of the essential sources of the standard language ideology in Thai society. Apart from the long period of education mentioned above, what makes formal education effective in influencing the language ideologies is related to its structures and plans (e.g. policy, curriculum, and assessment). In other words, these aspects of formal education will force the students' learning system to be more structured and disciplined than informal education, which does not normally have structures or organisations (e.g. learning English through the internet or daily communication). More importantly, in formal education, there are formal teachers who are often required to follow the regulations of the institution. This means that their teaching system is often highly structured (e.g. to test the students' language proficiency based on formal tests and to report the grade point average; GPA) to ensure that the students' learning outcomes meet expectations, both their own and those of the institution. This way of teaching and learning in formal education may link back to the researcher's teaching experience exemplified above, when he found that his teaching practices that strictly conformed to the institution's regulations had resulted in the negative learning outcomes of some students.

Chapter 1

With these facts in mind, it is sensible for the present study to narrow its focus on sources of the English language ideology in the Thai context to formal education, especially on teachers of English language. This is because, as will be described in more detail in the next section, these people are perceived as one of the most important agents in the educational system according to their direct relationship with both the students' learning experiences and the government's or the institution's English language education policies.

## 1.1.3.2 The importance of studies on teachers of English language

This study aims to focus on the teachers of English language in the Thai education system for a number of reasons. This includes, as mentioned earlier, that they are a significant group of people in the educational sector who have to interact with both students and government. This implies that the teachers' beliefs in relation to teaching the English language can affect both the students' learning outcomes and the government's policy practices.

Focusing on the impacts of the teachers on the students, the researcher perceives that the teachers' activities in classrooms (e.g. lecturing, testing, giving feedback, or interacting) are influential on Thai students' beliefs and practices about teaching and learning English. For example, while negotiating lessons in classrooms, teachers may transfer sets of their beliefs about English language (or language ideologies) to their students, and such beliefs can consequently become part of the students' beliefs (Creese et al., 2014). More interestingly, in particular in Thailand where classrooms are often teacher dominated (Khamkhien, 2010) and most of the students' learning behaviours are passive (Wiriyachitra, 2002, Deveney, 2005), what the teachers teach in classes tends to be easily accepted as genuine and authentic by the students, which means they are likely to apply it in their future life. With this fact in mind, this study considers the teachers to be one of the controlling mechanisms of the educational and social system, based on their ability to exercise control over students who will be an essential part of society (Obilişteanu and Niculescu, 2015). In addition, these reasons concerning how teachers can influence students in classes may support the abovementioned assumption concerning the teachers as a source of the English language ideologies of the students in Thai classrooms.

With regard to the impact on the government, the researcher considers the teachers' sense of 'agency' to be a factor affecting how the government manipulates the educational policies. That is to say, although the educational policy

practices of Thailand are very much top-down in nature, which means teachers have limited opportunities for design and are often required to follow, it may be that, in fact, Thai teachers have the right to follow or ignore the content of such policies in their classroom practices. To illustrate, it was recently found that many Thai teachers rejected following the national policies of the Thai government, despite their awareness of and agreement with them, because the implementation of the policies was difficult and ineffective in their local practices (Darasawang and Watson Todd, 2012, Watson Todd, 2005) (see also 3.3.1). This example clearly shows how the teachers' sense of agency works in the Thai educational system, where the educational policies are problematic. As Fitzpatrick (2011) claimed, Thailand's top-down policy may continue to pose problems to the Thai educational system until there is a sense of agency involved (p. 51).

The above impacts of the teachers, both on the students and the government, have highlighted the teachers as a key aspect of the educational system. Thus, focusing on these people may enable researchers to gain an understanding of the Thai education system as a whole, which is essential when dealing with problems and challenges in this field (Hayes, 2010). This perspective may link with Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991) who argued that the "educational change depends on what teachers do and think – it's as simple and complex as that" (p. 117). In addition, as Hayes (2010) noted, prior to designing or reforming the educational policies, it seems necessary to gain an insight into the socio-educational context of ELT from the teachers' perspective, because they are key actors in the implementation of any education reform in formal schooling (p. 306).

With regard to the teachers' sense of agency, the researcher understands this aspect as a solution to problems posed by the Thai government's top-down policy. That is to say, as an educational agent, the teachers can choose not to follow the policies of the government if they perceive them to be impractical for their teaching (Fitzpatrick, 2011, Ball, 1997). However, some researchers have stated that not all teachers have a sense of agency, especially those who cannot "critically shape their responses to problematic situations" (Pimpa, 2003, p.11). This perception may be linked with the concept called 'the awareness of Global Englishes' (GE), which the researcher predicts has the potential to deal with Thailand's policy problems. This is because the teachers' awareness of GE in this study does not only concern their awareness of the global spread of the English language (e.g. language variation), but also examines awareness of the situations of English language use and English

language education problems in the country, from both global and local perspectives (see Chapter 3).

More importantly, given that one of the main emphases of this research is on the teachers' belief system in relation to teaching practices, the researcher perceives this emphasis as an effective method of examining whether or not Thai teachers have a sense of agency. This is because, according to Biesta (2015) and Biesta et al. (2015), the teachers' agency often relies on the beliefs that individual teachers bring to their practices. In other senses, the teachers' beliefs are a matter of the extent to which and the degree in which teachers are able to achieve the sense of agency (e.g. core beliefs control teachers' agency and awareness). Therefore, in summary, the investigation of the teachers' beliefs in relation to teaching practices, as well as their awareness of GE, is predicted to provide information regarding the teachers' sense of agency in their teaching practices. More information concerning the relationship between beliefs and other constructs of teachers (e.g. practices and awareness of GE) is provided in Chapter 2.

## 1.2    Research aims and questions

This study has three research aims. First, it seeks to explore the beliefs about ELT held by Thai teachers of English language, to gain an insight into their beliefs about the English language and teaching English language that is perceived to be helpful for an understanding of their ELT practices. Second, this study aims to investigate Thai English language teachers' awareness of GE, in an attempt to understand the extent to which they are aware of the global phenomenon of English language use, as well as the local use and problems of English language in the country. It is believed that the output of this investigation can provide essential information, including factors that influence teachers' awareness of GE that are important for the implementation of the GE-orientation into their ELT practices. This study also perceives that the three aspects: teachers' practices, their beliefs about ELT, and awareness of GE, and teachers' ELT practices have some effect on each other. Therefore, the third aim of the study is to investigate the relationship between these three aspects and measure to what extent they are influential on each other in Thai ELT classrooms. Thus, the research questions that guide this study are:

1. What are the beliefs of Thai teachers of English language about ELT?

   1.1 What are their beliefs about English language?

   1.2 What are their beliefs about English language teaching in relation to the NESs' norms?

   1.3 What are their beliefs about English language teaching in relation to the perspective of GE?

   1.4 What are the factors influencing teachers' beliefs about ELT?

2. What is/are the relationship(s) among teachers' practices, their beliefs about ELT, and awareness of GE?

   2.1 What are the patterns of teachers' teaching practices?

   2.2 How can teachers' beliefs about ELT, awareness of GE, and teaching practices influence each other?

## 1.3   Research significance

There are a number of significances of the present study. Firstly, although there have been some studies on teachers' beliefs in relation to Thai ELT over recent decades, few of them have placed the focus directly on the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices, and, in particular, in relation to the issue of GE. For example, a number of previous studies emphasised other aspects including teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning approaches (Naruemon, 2013, Nonkukhetkhong et al., 2006, Vibulphol, 2004) and teachers' motivations (Hayes, 2008). Although there have been some studies in correspondence with the issues related to the teachers' beliefs, only a few of them have studied the issues in great detail. This means they have only mentioned teachers' beliefs in relation to Thai ELT at a surface level (Darasawang, 2007, Darasawang and Watson Todd, 2012, Fitzpatrick, 2011). In addition, as Prapaisit de Segovia and Hardison (2008) reported, "although the teachers played a major role in the reform, they were an untapped resource in the decision-making process" (p. 161). Thus, to respond to this lack of research into teachers, which is seen as a source of understanding of the socio-educational context of Thai ELT, the present study places a particular emphasis on the Thai teachers' beliefs.

Secondly, in rural settings, where the present study took place, there are a limited number of studies in relation to ELT beliefs, practices, and awareness of GE. To clarify this, many of the studies were conducted in the large urban provinces, such as nearby Bangkok and its perimeter (Baker, 2009b, Punthumasen, 2007, Baker,

2013), or in other contexts, which are not in the same field as the target context of the present study (Fitzpatrick, 2011, Hayes, 2009, Jindapitak and Teo, 2013a). Therefore, there should be more studies on these topics in relation to ELT in rural areas, because English plays a great role in all Thai society due to globalisation and, in particular, the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) in the Asian region. That is to say, conducting this study in a rural area may provide different perspectives and may narrow the gap between the rural-urban divide in studies in relation to the topics of focus.

Finally, given that the present study aims to study teachers' beliefs about ELT, teachers' teaching practices, and teachers' awareness of GE, the data gained from this study will support other studies that support educational reform in Thailand. This is particularly relevant to studies that investigate the discrepancy between language policy and language teaching and learning in practice and studies that suggest including teachers' beliefs into the policy to solve the problems found in the recent policy (Burgos, 2012, Hayes, 2010).

## 1.4   Research structure

This study is presented in the following chapters:

**Chapter 1** is the introductory chapter of the study. It begins with the research context and background (i.e. context, motivation, and rationale). Then, it moves on to state the research aims, research questions, and the significance of the study, before concluding with an outline of the organisation of the individual chapters of this study.

**Chapter 2** explains the theory related to teachers' beliefs. It initially outlines the definitions of teachers' beliefs, content, constructs, and types of beliefs. Then, it follows with an explanation of different factors influencing teachers' beliefs. Next, it illustrates the relationship between the teachers' beliefs, teaching practices, and awareness of GE, which is one of the aims of the study. The chapter ends with a critical examination of previous studies related to teachers' beliefs and awareness of GE.

**Chapter 3** discusses the conceptual framework of Global Englishes (GE). It begins with background information about the field, which leads to a presentation of the awareness of GE of this study. Then, it introduces the phenomenon of the use of English in Asia, as well as English language teaching (ELT) in this region, to

highlight the gap between how the English is used in society and how this language is taught in classrooms and to propose ELT models based on the GE perspective. Next, the chapter moves on to report the situation of English in Thailand, illustrating the English language education practices and problems and how the concept of GE can be useful. Finally, Chapter 3 summarises the overview of the literature chapters.

**Chapter 4** covers all the processes of the research methodology. Firstly, it presents the research aims and questions of this study. Then, it illustrates the setting for the fieldwork. This is followed by a presentation of the research instruments, which includes a discussion of the benefits of the qualitative research method, an explanation of each research instrument, as well as the data collection and analysis process. Finally, this chapter describes research reliability and validity as well as all the research risks and limitations.

**Chapter 5** offers findings received from two research instruments: the survey of teachers' backgrounds and attitudes towards ELT and GE and the semi-structured interview. Given that the survey was employed before other research instruments, its findings are thus presented first. Then, the results of the semi-structured interview, which is the main instrument of this study, are portrayed. In presenting the research findings, the chapter separates them into two main parts (i.e. teachers' beliefs about ELT and factors influencing beliefs) which were based on research question 1 (RQ1). Finally, it ends with a summary of the chapter.

**Chapter 6** presents the findings of the other three research instruments: focus groups, classroom observations, and document analysis. In presenting each instrument's findings, the chaper concerns types of their data received. For instance, the focus groups' results are mainly related to teachers' beliefs about ELT based on RQ1, while the results of classroom observation and document analysis were related to RQ2 which seeks to see the relationship among teachers' practices, their beliefs about ELT and awareness of GE. Then, the chapter ends with an explanation of how the five research instruments of this study triangulate with each other.

**Chapter 7** brings together the findings received from the five research instruments for discussion in relation to the two research questions (RQ) and to link such results with relevant literature. The chapter thus discusses the findings in relation to RQ1 and RQ2, respectively. In discussing the results for RQ1, the results regarding the content of teachers' beliefs about ELT and factors influencing beliefs are

considered. For a discussion of the results for RQ2, the focus is placed on the teachers' teaching practices and the relationship among the teachers' practices, their beliefs, and awareness of GE.

**Chapter 8,** which is the final chapter, offers a summary and conclusion of this thesis. It initially presents a brief rationale of the study and returns to the research aims and questions. Next, a restatement of the research methodology is addressed before moving to a short synopsis of the research findings. Then, the chapter points out the limitations and further research, as well as the research contributions and implications. In this part, the recommendations for Thai ELT are provided. Lastly, this final chapter summarises the chapter and ends with a conclusion of the thesis.

# Chapter 2  Teachers' beliefs

The previous chapter introduced the primary information about the present study, informing the research motivation, rationale, aims, questions, and significance. In presenting such information, in particular the research rationale, the importance of the studies on teachers and teachers' beliefs was partially explained. This chapter aims to demonstrate teachers' beliefs in more detail and focuses on conceptualising this term (i.e. definition, nature, and type) as well as examining factors influencing the formation and implementation of teachers' beliefs (i.e. internal and external factors). Then, it moves on to exemplify the relationship between teachers' beliefs and other constructs of teachers that are also emphasised in this study (i.e. teaching practices and awareness of Global Englishes or GE). Finally, the chapter critically examines previous studies related to the field of teachers' beliefs and awareness of GE in order to draw the link between their theoretical frameworks and the framework of this study.

## 2.1    Conceptualising teachers' beliefs

Before proceeding further, it is important to outline what is meant by 'beliefs'. This is because it can be useful for conceptualising teachers' beliefs related to English language Teaching (ELT), which are key terms in the research title and research questions. In brief, beliefs can be defined as an "individual's judgment of the truth or falsity of a proposition" (Pajares, 1992, p.316) or "a set of interrelated notions" (McAlpine et al., 1996, p.392), or "as a set of conceptual representations which store general knowledge of objects, people and events, and their characteristic relationships" (Hermans et al., 2008, p.128)

However, when it comes to teachers' beliefs, the researcher agreed with previous studies which claimed there was a lack of clear consensus on a definition of teachers' beliefs and this was a major challenge for the studies in this field (Borg, 2001, Yook, 2010, Pajares, 1992, Fives and Buehl, 2012). This is because the researcher also found it difficult to confirm what is meant by this term, given that previous studies in this field often defined teachers' beliefs in a non-specific and indistinct manner, leading to poor conceptualisations and differing understandings (Yook, 2010, Pajares, 1992). Hence, the researcher had to find the way to conceptualise the teachers' beliefs about ELT for this study, leading to an

exploration of two approaches; 'descriptive' and 'constructional' perspectives, as presented below.

### 2.1.1    Contents of teachers' beliefs about ELT

According to Fives and Buehl (2012), to conceptualise teachers' beliefs about ELT based on the 'descriptive perspective' meant that the researcher had to examine and summarise common topics or contents of the teachers' beliefs found in previous studies, and generated the working definition for this study accordingly. By following this approach, the results from the examination suggested that common contents of teachers' beliefs about ELT included beliefs about: teaching general or specific aspects of English (e.g. grammar and pronunciation) (Hall et al., 2017, Ferreira, 2014, Baker, 2014, Sifakis and Sougari, 2005); teaching English to different groups of learners (e.g. adult and young learners, and primary-school children) (Wyatt, 2013, Maum, 2004, Shinde and Karekatti, 2012); teaching English in different contexts (e.g. Japan and Zimbabwe) (Matsuura et al., 2001, Nyawaranda, 2000); and beliefs of different groups of teachers (e.g. pre-service teachers and urban school teachers) (Muchmore, 2001, Shinde and Karekatti, 2012). Furthermore, given that this study aimed to explore teachers' beliefs in relation to the GE perspective, the researcher was prompted by some GE studies to focus on teachers' beliefs about the subject matter of ELT, which directly means the English language (Seidlhofer, 2011, Hall et al., 2017, Hall et al., 2013, Widdowson, 2003, Harris, 2009). This is particular to Hall et al. (2013) and Harris (2009) who claimed that what the teachers mean by English (e.g. which English and whose English) will significantly affect their English language instruction. Therefore, the researcher also aimed to emphasise the beliefs about English language in the process of defining the contents of the teachers' beliefs about ELT in this study.

From all these investigations, the researcher thus defined teachers' beliefs about ELT, in a similar way to Hermans et al. (2008) as presented above, as "a set of teachers' beliefs or conceptual representations whereby the teachers store their knowledge in relation to teaching English language". To a certain extent, the teachers' beliefs about ELT involve "sets of beliefs or ideas related to what teachers feel to be the essential features of teaching English language", such as their beliefs about: subject matter (e.g. English as a foreign language: EFL, English as a lingua franca: ELF); teaching English language either in general or specifically (e.g. teaching fundamental English, teaching English for Specific Purposes: ESP); people

related to English (e.g. students or teachers of English); and events or contexts related to English (e.g. English classrooms).

In addition, based on this definition, it seems clear that the teachers' beliefs about ELT in this study have a relationship with other constructs of the teachers (e.g. knowledge, ideas, and other beliefs). This perspective is linked with some previous studies including Pajares (1992) who claimed, "Belief sub-structures, such as educational beliefs, must be understood in terms of their connections not only to each other but also to other, perhaps more central, beliefs in the system" (p. 325). Note that this issue is further explained in the following sections which attempt to conceptualise the teachers' beliefs based on their constructional perspective.

### 2.1.2    Constructs of teachers' beliefs about ELT

As discussed, one of the common challenges in conceptualising teachers' beliefs is to consistently define and use the term within or across fields. However, apart from the descriptive perspective presented earlier, to approach the teachers' beliefs from their constructional dimensions may also be useful (Fives and Buehl, 2012). Hence, this section aims to present some important constructs of teachers' beliefs about ELT including; the teachers' beliefs as an integrated system, the implicit and explicit nature of beliefs, the stability over time, and the contextual demands of the teachers' beliefs. This examination may help to build a better understanding of what is meant by the teachers' beliefs about ELT throughout this study, in particular a discussion of the relationship between the teachers' beliefs and other key terms (i.e. teaching practices, awareness of GE).

### 2.1.2.1    Teachers' beliefs as an integrated system

Research in the field of teachers' beliefs often recognises that teachers' beliefs exist as a system (Bryan, 2003, Fives and Buehl, 2012, Mansour, 2008a). This means they often interact with other aspects in the teachers' cognitive system. For example, in Mansour (2008a), the belief system of ten Egyptian teachers was interrelated with their religious beliefs, social contexts, experiences, identity, and teaching and learning beliefs. This study agrees with these researchers, given that the teachers' beliefs about ELT in this study tend also to have a connection with other constructs of the teachers including the teachers' knowledge, other types of beliefs, ideologies, attitudes, and awareness of GE (see following sections). Note that the relationship between the teachers' beliefs and awareness of GE will be dealt

with separately in section 2.3, which presents the relationship between the teachers' beliefs about ELT, awareness of GE, and teaching practices.

### 2.1.2.1.1 The interconnection between teachers' beliefs and teachers' knowledge

In this study, the teachers' beliefs and knowledge were seen to be interwoven. That is to say, their knowledge is perceived to be an integral part of the teachers' beliefs, especially knowledge that is approved as being practical by the teachers through their teaching practices (see 2.3.1.2.1). This perception supports Zheng (2009) who described that, in fact, "knowledge is either taken as different from beliefs by nature or used as a grouping term without distinguishing between what we know and what we believe" (p.74). In addition, Verloop et al. (2001) showed that many empirical studies that attempted to highlight the difference between the teachers' beliefs and knowledge often concluded that the disconnection of these two terms are 'blurry' and 'inextricably intertwined'. On this basis, it seems difficult to distinguish whether teachers refer to their knowledge or beliefs when they plan and make decisions and act in classrooms (p.446).

However, in some stages of the data analysis in this study, the researcher had to distinguish the teachers' knowledge from the teachers' beliefs about ELT. For example, in examining the teachers' ELT beliefs and practices related to the GE perspective, the researcher had to define the knowledge of GE as a separate construct and to compare it with the knowledge of communicative language teaching (CLT), which is another ELT approach. This is because the teacher participants may have referred to one of these overlapping sets of knowledge when they expressed their beliefs. This implies that, if the researcher had not distinguished the knowledge from the teachers' beliefs and defined them explicitly, there may have been misinterpretation problems. Note that the distinctions between the GE and CLT approach for ELT are addressed in 3.3.

### 2.1.2.1.2 The interaction among teachers' beliefs about ELT

Apart from the teachers' knowledge, the teachers' beliefs about ELT in this study may also interact among themselves. To illustrate, given that the teachers' ELT beliefs in this study contain different sets of beliefs in the definition, such beliefs may influence or affect each other (e.g. the beliefs about English language may control the beliefs about teaching speaking). This is supported by Nishino (2012) who explained that, in the teachers' belief system, there often appears to be an

interplay of different types of beliefs and this is one of the reasons that explains why a particular belief does not alone influence the classroom practices of teachers.

In addition, previous studies often claimed that, if interactions among the beliefs in the teachers' belief system were found, the pattern of their interactions would be that one belief controls and defines other beliefs (Brownlee et al., 2001, Gabillon, 2007, 2012, Phipps and Borg, 2009, Bryan, 2003). For instance, in Bryan's (2003) exploration of a female teacher's belief system, there existed two groups of beliefs: foundational beliefs and dualistic beliefs. Bryan explained that the foundational beliefs, which are deeply entrenched by the teacher and are resilient to the teacher's knowledge, goals of instruction, and control in the classroom, often support or identify the dualistic beliefs, which are less powerful in the belief system.

### 2.1.2.1.2.1   Core and peripheral beliefs

The example of Bryan (2003) above systematically contributes to the concept of 'core' and 'peripheral' beliefs, which is significant throughout this study. In fact, apart from Bryan's (2003) case, there seem to be more distinctions between teachers' core and peripheral beliefs. One example is the different periods of belief formation by teachers. For instance, while teachers' core beliefs are often formed early in their lives on the basis of their schooling as young students, the teachers' peripheral beliefs are basically formed later and are anchored to the core beliefs that already exist in their beliefs repertoire (Gabillon, 2012, Richards et al., 2001). Furthermore, as they are formed differently by the teachers, these beliefs thus have different effects on other constructs of the teachers, such as their teaching practices and behaviours. This is supported by Phipps and Borg (2009) who claimed that not all beliefs have the same effect on the teachers' actions. Also, Birello (2012) pointed out that "the basic distinction between core and peripheral is in simple terms one of strength" (p. 90). This indicates that the teachers' (early-formed) core beliefs are more influential in shaping the teachers' instructional decisions than their (later-formed) peripheral beliefs about language learning.

Another difference between these two beliefs relates to their centrality in the belief system, and this aspect affects both their ability to change and their ability to affect other types of beliefs. Regarding the ability to change, Pajares (1992) claimed the stronger (core) beliefs are those that are more central to an individual's identity, given that they were established during earlier experiences and were used in processing of subsequent experiences. In contrast, it was argued that the

peripheral beliefs which teachers held with less psychological strength and further from the belief system's core are easier to change (Brownlee et al., 2001, Brownlee, 2001, Green, 1971). For the ability to affect other teachers' beliefs, Rokeach (1968) considered that the change in the central beliefs could result in the change of the belief system as well as the peripheral beliefs. This means, as argued by Moscovici and Vignaux (2000), the core beliefs, which are more central and stable, often dominate the meanings of the belief system including those of the peripheral beliefs.

In short, the core beliefs are a type of belief that is usually formed in the teachers' early experiences (e.g. through schooling experiences). With this nature, they are more deeply entrenched in the teachers' belief system than the peripheral beliefs, which are constructed later. In addition, based on their earlier formation, which means they have passed through the teachers' actions or practices, the core beliefs are thus more powerful and more stable than the peripheral beliefs.

### 2.1.2.1.3   Teachers' beliefs and teachers' language ideologies

As the conceptualising process of the teachers' beliefs about ELT in this study includes their beliefs about English language, the relationship between the terms beliefs and ideologies may be foreseen. For one reason, beliefs about language share a similar conceptual framework with language ideology. For example, Silverstein (1979) defined language (linguistic) ideology as a "set of beliefs about language articulated by users as a rationalisation or justification of perceived language structure and use (p.193)". Therefore, the term 'teachers' ideology' or 'teachers' language ideology' are often used interchangeably with teachers' beliefs about language in research (Trujillo, 2005, Young, 2014, Palmer, 2011).

In addition, some researchers have even claimed the ideologies either as part of, or as one of, the constructs that can be used to examine the beliefs (Pajares, 1992, Razfar, 2012, Gal, 1998). This includes Gal (1998), who said that the language ideologies are not only the ideas, constructs, notions, or representations, but they are also practices through which those notions are enacted. This argument means that when human beings engage in various language practices (e.g. oral communication and negotiation) they are simultaneously displaying their beliefs including nature, function, and purpose of language. For example, in any type of language classroom, the language ideologies of the teacher can be indexed via their teaching practices (Kroskrity, 2010). With all these reasons, language ideologies were thus claimed to have an inextricable link between the local

language use and the broader historical and institutional practices, values, and interests (Kroskrity, 2010).

### 2.1.2.1.4  Teachers' beliefs and teachers' attitudes

Similar to teachers' ideologies, teachers' attitudes are often conversely employed with teachers' beliefs. Some researchers even combined these terms in their working definitions to deal with the conceptualisation problems among the teachers' cognitive constructs, such as the use of the term 'teachers' cognition' in Borg (1999a) and Lim (2016). For this study, despite the fact that the teachers' beliefs and teachers' attitudes are not used interchangeably due to their perceived differences in definition and function, these two terms tend to have a significant relationship. That is to say, this study sees the teachers' beliefs, in line with Preston (2013), as an underlying construct that can presuppose, stereotype, lie behind, and support the existence of the teachers' attitudes. For example, some teachers may believe the English spoken by the NESs as the most appropriate and acceptable form of English. With this belief, this group of teachers may express negative attitudes towards the English spoken by NNESs. However, the researcher also accepted other research that claimed attitudes to be a factor influencing belief formation (Anderson and De Silva, 2009, Czerniawski, 2011). This issue will be explained further in 2.2.1, which illustrates the (internal) factors including the teachers' values or attitudes that can influence their beliefs.

In summary, the information presented above shows teachers' beliefs as an integrated system, and the researcher thus chose to use the term 'teachers' beliefs' rather than 'teachers' cognition' (Woods, 1996, Borg, 1999a, Borg, 2003a), although teachers' cognition is a well-known term defined to solve the problems of poor conceptualisation of the teachers' cognitive system (see 2.1). This is because the definition of teachers' cognition combines the beliefs with other significant terms in this study (e.g. knowledge, ideologies, and attitudes). Furthermore, the researcher decided not to use terms such as 'attitudes' and 'ideologies', which were often employed in former studies that combined the theory of the teachers' cognition with the field of GE (Jenkins, 2007, Young, 2014, Weekly, 2015). Although these terms have some relationship with teachers' beliefs and they are also significant, their functions and definitions are different from the teachers' beliefs in this study (see more in 2.4).

### 2.1.2.2 The implicit and explicit nature of teachers' beliefs

The teachers' beliefs in this study may be regarded as both implicit and explicit psychological constructs. According to Fives and Buehl (2012), the distinction between these beliefs lies in their nature of consciousness (explicit) or lack of awareness (implicit). For example, the teachers' implicit beliefs may work as the guidance of "teacher's behaviours and filter interpretation of teaching experiences without the teacher's awareness" (ibid, 2012, p.474), and they are often associated with unconscious assumptions about teaching, students, learning, and learning materials (Kagan, 1992a). In addition, Nespor (1987) described the teachers' implicit beliefs as being beyond the control of the teachers and unable to be influenced through personal reflective practices. This links with Huang (2014), who reported that some implicit beliefs of the teachers (e.g. NNESs can only be simply subject-matter teachers with limited or no provision of language instruction) could constrain not only the teachers' teaching practices, but also their professional development.

In contrast, in relation to the teachers' explicit beliefs, Dewey and Boydston (1986) claimed that these beliefs require both intellectual and practical commitment, and "[explicit] beliefs … involve precisely this commitment and consequently sooner or later they demand our investigation to find out upon what ground they rest" (p.117). That is to say, the explicit beliefs require teachers' justification to be maintained. This advocates Gabillon (2012), who noted that how explicitly teachers hold certain beliefs depends on different individuals' diverse personal experiences (p.193).

The present study is aware of the implicit and explicit nature of the teachers' beliefs for a number of reasons. Firstly, as explained above by Nespor (1987) and Huang (2014), implicit beliefs can affect the teachers' practices. The researcher observed a link between this type of belief with the assumption that implicit (or unclear) knowledge of GE can be a cause of the teachers' lack of awareness of GE in their teaching practices (Jenkins, 2005a, Wang, 2014, Litzenberg, 2013). In addition, the researcher perceived a benefit of understanding this issue in the process of data analysis. That is to say, if the teachers' beliefs are explicit in their nature (e.g. the teachers state or espouse their beliefs explicitly through their verbal or written communication), the researcher would be able to use such beliefs as the unit of analysis. Nonetheless, if it happens that the beliefs of the teachers are not stated explicitly, the researcher would need to find another method to clarify such beliefs. For example, if the teachers expressed some implicit or unclear ELT beliefs related

to GE, one of the methods to deal with such beliefs may include directly asking them about this during the interview sessions. Alternatively, as explained in 2.1.2.1.1, the researcher might classify the contents of their expressions (e.g. knowledge of GE or CLT) to capture their beliefs.

### 2.1.2.3    The stability of teachers' beliefs

It is essential to examine whether teachers' beliefs are stable or dynamic to gain an understanding of the constructs of the teachers' beliefs in this study. That is to say, although this study does not aim to change the teachers' beliefs, to understand their nature can still be useful, especially when it is connected with the knowledge of core and peripheral beliefs. For instance, Ainscough (1997) perceived some teachers' beliefs as " … subject to an ongoing reappraisal of teaching context in which they [work] … " (p.574). Gabillon (2012) confirmed that this ongoing professional experience was a challenge leading teachers to assess and fine-tune their beliefs and their personal theories about teaching. For the researcher, the dynamic nature of the teachers' beliefs has a link with their peripheral beliefs, which emphasise the teachers' ability to be flexible in their beliefs. More importantly, this issue of the beliefs' flexibility can be beneficial for raising teachers' awareness of GE. This is because the researcher assumed that if the teachers hold beliefs about ELT that are flexible they may be more open to accept new sets of knowledge into their belief and practice system.

On the other hand, Kagan (1992b) pointed out that some teachers' beliefs are stable and resistant to change even in the face of contradictory evidence, such as reason, time, or experience. Pajares (1992) also claimed these beliefs (e.g. beliefs about teaching) are often well established or are formed early when they start their schooling. For the researcher, this stable nature of beliefs links with the nature of the core beliefs that are deeply entrenched in the teachers' belief system and, thus, are difficult to change. In addition, this type of belief may link with what Tatto and Coupland (2003) called the traditional beliefs (i.e. the beliefs that have long been held by the teachers) that are often claimed to be problematic and a challenge to improving the quality of the educational system. Note that this issue is further explained in Chapter 3, especially in the discussion of the problems posed by the Thai educational system.

### 2.1.2.4    The contextual demands and teachers' beliefs

Apart from the issue concerning whether or not teachers' beliefs are changeable, it seems important to examine whether the contextual demands can affect the

teachers' beliefs. In other words, the teachers' beliefs may be situated in contexts or generalisable across situations (Fives and Buehl, 2012). The researcher was concerned with this construct of the teachers' beliefs because of its link with one of the research aims (i.e. to investigate the relationship between the teachers' beliefs and teaching practices). This means, as detailed in section 2.2, the contextual factors including events and classrooms are assumed to be influential on the teachers' practices.

Regarding the context-independent view of beliefs, teachers' beliefs can change in accordance with contexts and environments. For example, in the context of English language education, Borg (2003b) claimed that the language teachers' beliefs can be context-independent, as the contextual factors often play a vital role in determining the extent to which teachers are able to implement instruction congruent with their cognition. In addition, Borg (2015) described how the contextual factors might interact with the teachers' beliefs in two ways: they may lead to change in these beliefs or else they may alter practices directly without changing the cognitions underlying them. Note that the former scenario can lead to "a lack of congruence between teachers' stated beliefs and actual practices" (ibid, 2015, p.324–325).

In relation to the context-dependent views, Hermans et al. (2008) pointed out that, given that teachers are often influenced by the broader cultural context and beyond (e.g. national policies, cultural norms and values), their held-beliefs are thus reasonably coherent across multiple contexts (p. 129). Also, Ambrose et al. (2004) indicated that the teachers' beliefs (like knowledge) have come to be perceived as situated and grounded in specific contexts and practices. Additionally, because the teachers' beliefs often operate with differing intensities and levels of commitment, and they are capable of shaping interpretations of events, they can dispose the teachers towards particular actions (ibid, 2004, p. 62). In short, these arguments regarding the context-dependent nature of teachers' beliefs may also be connected with the present study. In particular, the point arguing that the teachers' beliefs can be dependent on the larger context (e.g. national policies and cultural norms) tends to support the researcher's argument about the impact of the Thai educational policy on the Thai university teachers' beliefs about ELT (see also Chapter 3).

To summarise, this section has focused on conceptualising the teachers' beliefs in this study. To properly conceptualise the teachers' beliefs, the researcher followed the descriptive perspective (i.e. contents) and the constructional dimensions (i.e.

constructs). In discussing the contents of the teachers' beliefs, the researcher examined the common topics of teachers' beliefs examined in previous studies and defined the contents of the beliefs about ELT in this study accordingly. In contrast, in evaluating the beliefs' constructs, the researcher examined the nature of the beliefs as an integrated system, the implicitness and explicitness, the stability, and the contextual demands of the teachers' beliefs.

## 2.2   Factors influencing teachers' beliefs

This section aims to review the theoretical framework used to examine the factors behind the formation and implementation of teachers' beliefs, which is one of the research aims of this study. Having conceptualised the contents and constructs of teachers' beliefs in the above section, observation suggested that the research on the teachers' beliefs were quantitatively developed, especially those included to explain the teachers' belief factors (Borg, 2003b, Ertmer, 2006, Griffin and Ohlsson, 2001, William and Burden, 1997). Nonetheless, similar to the problem of conceptualising the beliefs' contents, many researchers claimed the previous studies' results concerning factors were diverse and inconsistent, which makes effectively approaching the topic of factors problematic (Fives and Buehl, 2012, Buehl and Beck, 2015).

Given this fact, some researchers have attempted to deal with the complexity of the teachers' belief factors. Research by Maxson (1996), Fives and Buehl (2012), and Buehl and Beck (2015) approached this topic based upon the factors' 'internal' and 'external' distinctions (see below). Apart from its practicality, the researcher aimed to adopt this approach in this study, given its benefit in terms of ecological validity (Brewer, 2000, Bronfenbrenner and Morris, 1998). That is to say, this approach focuses not only on what is inside the teachers' cognitive system (internal), but also on what resides in the environment in which the teachers engage (external). This can generate a sense of a real-world examination based on the ecological model for studying the teachers' cognitive system (Bronfenbrenner and Morris, 1998, Bronfenbrenner, 1994).

With regard to what are considered to be external and internal factors, Maxson (1996) contended that the internal factors included the teachers' personal practical knowledge, culture, values, personality, and internalised external factors (e.g. positive school experiences, life experiences, and desirability of subjects). In contrast, the external factors referred to the teachers' life experiences, educational

experiences, classroom events, school curriculum requirements, students, administrative demands, theoretical knowledge, educational policy, family, and peers. For Fives and Buehl (2012), the internal factors meant teachers' knowledge and other kinds of beliefs (e.g. teachers' beliefs about subject matter, self-efficacy, and personal identity). The external factors consisted of the contextual factors such as culture, educational policies in different levels, the perceived culture within a school of people (e.g. colleagues, students, and mentor teachers), classroom control, and reactions from parents and students. In keeping with Fives and Buehl (2012), Buehl and Beck (2015) declared that their internal factors encompassed other kinds of beliefs (e.g. teachers' beliefs about themselves and students), knowledge, and self-awareness and self-reflection, whereas the external factors dealt with different levels of contexts involving classroom, school, nation, state, and district.

It should be noted that, in this study, these factors (both internal and external factors) were re-categorised as presented in Figure 1 to make them easier to understand and explain throughout the study. According to Figure 1, the internal factors include the teachers' personality, internalised external factors, and other kinds of teachers' beliefs. The external factors, which can be considered as the teachers' experiences, contain the teachers' experiences with people, regulations, controls, media, and events.

Figure 1  Internal and external factors influencing teachers' beliefs

| Maxson (1996) | Fives and Buehl (2012) | Buehl and Beck (2015) |
|---|---|---|
| **Internal factors**<br>- Personal practical knowledge<br>- Culture and Values<br>- Personality<br>- Internalised external factors | **Internal factors**<br>- Teachers' knowledge<br>- Other kinds of teachers' beliefs | **Internal factors**<br>- Teachers' knowledge<br>- Other kinds of teachers' beliefs<br>- Self-awareness and self-reflection |
| **External factors**<br>- Different forms of teachers' experiences (e.g. life and educational experiences)<br>- Classroom events<br>- School curriculum requirements<br>- Students<br>- Administrative demands<br>- Theoretical knowledge<br>- Educational policy<br>- Family and peers | **External factors**<br>- Culture<br>- Different levels of policy (e.g. district, state, nation)<br>- Perceived culture within a school of colleagues, students, and mentor teachers)<br>- Classroom control<br>- Reactions from parents and students | **External factors**<br>- Different levels of contextual factors (e.g. classroom, school, district, state, nation) |

| Internal factors | External factors (teachers' experiences) |
|---|---|
| - Personality (e.g. openness)<br>- Internalised external factors (e.g. practical and professional knowledge, culture and values)<br>- Other kinds of teachers' beliefs (e.g. beliefs about self-efficacy) | - Experiences with people (e.g. family, peers, colleagues, teachers, administrators)<br>- Experiences with regulations, controls and media (e.g. subject matters, educational policy, curriculum, administrative demands, culture, media, and advertisements<br>- Experiences with events (e.g. classroom events) |

## 2.2.1    Internal factors

Schwitzgebel (2015) found that the content of a person's beliefs depends entirely on things going on inside their mind, and not at all on the external world except via the effects of the latter on their brain. This is relevant to the internal constructs within the teachers' cognition system if we aim to study their beliefs. Maxson (1996) and Buehl and Beck (2015) supported this argument, indicating that things residing within the teachers' minds can internally influence how teachers form their beliefs. Fundamentally, this study classifies the internal factors into three main categories namely personality, internalised external factors, and other kinds of teachers' beliefs.

### 2.2.1.1    Teachers' personality

The teachers' beliefs have been proposed to be central to the teachers' personality. Ashton (2015) investigated whether teachers' beliefs can be created by different forms of personality, such as their ability to get along with pupils and their satisfaction with teaching as a career (p.33). Decker and Rimm-Kaufman (2008) also demonstrated that the teachers' personality is one of the factors that is useful for predicting their beliefs. For example, based on their study of the pre-service teachers' personalities guided by a framework called 'Big Five Factors of Personality' (which includes neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness), their results indicated that personal attributes and personalities are essential for the construction of teachers' beliefs (ibid, 2008).

In relation to the present study, it seems that among the factors in the framework presented above, the teachers' openness to experience and agreeableness are significantly relevant. These two personality types tend to be the factors affecting the teachers' beliefs about new knowledge (e.g. Global Englishes) and their implementation of such knowledge in classrooms. This is because, as Lee et al. (2006) claimed, the more teachers open their mind and agree with new knowledge and practice, the more they will apply it in their teaching. Notably, in addition to the Big Five Factors of Personality approach, there seems to be more factors related to the teachers' personality that may also be significant in this study, such as the teachers' efficacy and identity (Buehl and Beck, 2015, Levin, 2015), the teachers' gender, age, race, and ethnicity (Levin, 2015, Gay, 2015), and the teachers' motivation, goals, and emotions (Gill and Hardin, 2015, Rubie-Davies, 2015).

## 2.2.1.2    Teachers' internalised external factors

The internalised external factors are another type of internal factor that can affect teachers' beliefs. In a sense, they relate to the teachers' internalisation of the external factors (e.g. the teachers' positive experiences of English education). Thus, it was perceived that the internalisation could be seen as a metaphor in which something (e.g. ideas, concepts, and actions) moves from outside the mind to a place inside it (Tavoletti, 2010). More precisely, the teachers' internalisation is a process of absorption of the shared public knowledge into their domain of thought (Zheng, 2015).

In practice, internalising something can occur through both conscious learning and unconscious assimilation (Littlewood, 1984). The former case refers to when individuals consciously know concepts of the information before internalising it, such as when students learn about language rules and internalise them into their brain. In this case, it seems that the information passes the process of learning and evaluating, which means the beliefs shaped by these types of internalised external factors are likely to make people conscious when performing actions.

On the other hand, some particular cognitive constructs can be absorbed into a person's mind unconsciously. Fives and Buehl (2012) referred to this case as a kind of knowledge that teachers have which remains employed when teaching although it was perceived as being old-fashioned and needing to be reformed by the teachers themselves. Clearly, this kind of knowledge has been internalised into the teachers' minds, passed a certain period of experiment and insensibly accepted as a default approach by the teachers. Therefore, whenever the teachers instruct the topics relating to this default knowledge they will unconsciously refer to it. For the researcher, these types of internalised external factors may have some links to the traditional beliefs mentioned in 2.1.2.3 that are claimed to be a barrier to reforming or improving the educational system.

Based on this discussion of the internalised external beliefs, it seems necessary for the researcher to re-categorise Maxson's (1996) category of the internalised external factors. This is because Maxson separated some internal factors which it may be more suitable to combine (e.g. knowledge, culture, value). Thus, as can be seen in Figure 1, the internalised external factors in this study encompass: any type of teachers' 'knowledge' (e.g. teachers' personal practical knowledge) that the teachers gain from their education and profession; 'cultures' that have been set or

perceived within the contexts by people before the teachers grew up; and 'values' that are primarily evoked through the process of social judgement.

### 2.2.1.2.1 Personal practical knowledge

As mentioned in section 2.1.2.1.1, the terms 'knowledge' and 'beliefs' have an overlap of meanings and functions (Fives and Buehl, 2012, Murphy and Mason, 2006). As this can be problematic for conducting research, some researchers have attempted to make a clear separation between these two terms by giving them distinctive meanings. For example, Calderhead (1996) suggested that beliefs fundamentally refer to "suppositions, commitments, and ideologies", while knowledge means "factual propositions and understanding" (p.175).

However, some researchers viewed knowledge as part of beliefs and included it within their definitions of beliefs (e.g. Haney and McArthur, 2002, Hermans et al., 2008, Southerland et al., 2011). This includes Maxson (1996) who perceived the 'teachers' practical knowledge' as a type of internal factor that can affect the teachers' beliefs. Additionally, Kagan (1992a) and Pajares (1992) indicated that some particular types of teachers' knowledge (e.g. practical knowledge and professional knowledge) could rather be considered as teachers' beliefs, given that such knowledge has been affirmed as true on the basis of objective proof or consensus of opinion.

To a certain extent, some previous studies explained that the teachers' beliefs could be formed through their personal and instructional experiences, as well as the knowledge that was gained from their practices. For example, Arıoğul (2007) presented that, within the process of teaching practice, teachers can reconstruct the past and the intentions of the future to deal with the exigencies of the present situation. This indicates that there is a particular set of knowledge called the "teachers' practical knowledge" that can be generated from practising or adjusting their cognitive constructs to suit the practical circumstances of their work environment (ibid, 2007, p.170).

### 2.2.1.2.2 Cultures and values

Teachers can also internalise the cultural values of their societies into their belief system. The cultural factors were found to be related to the teachers' socialisation in different kinds of society, such as their living community, classroom, workplace, school, and university. This means these kinds of factors can influence the teachers' beliefs since the beginning stages of their lives. This is because the

teachers' beliefs are always situated through the physical settings from where the constraints, opportunities, and external factors may derive (Siddiquee, 2014) and happen to affect the teachers' cognitive process. Gabillon (2012) illustrated that teachers' beliefs have a cultural dimension given that the culture can reflect the views of the societies in which the teachers have been brought up or taken part. Siddiquee (2014) also made a point that, without referencing to this internal factor, teachers' beliefs and practices might not be properly understood (p.21).

In addition, in any social interactions teachers will consider whether something is worthwhile (Anderson and De Silva, 2009, Czerniawski, 2011), and this consequently influences their construction of some particular beliefs. For instance, after their communication with some NESs, the teachers may form a belief concerning speaking English correctly and fluently as the most critical aspect of their teaching and learning the English language. This factor can be called the 'teachers' values', and it can be formed over time through their social interactions at home, school, in the community, and wider social settings (Czerniawski, 2011). It was also clarified that the teachers' values could change, be extended and elaborated on through life experiences (ibid, 2011, p.36).

In fact, it may be necessary to note that teachers' values are closely linked with 'teachers' attitudes' (see also 2.1.2.1.4), as their meanings similarly refer to the teachers' levels of satisfaction upon some particular things. To illustrate, Rokeach (1968) described 'attitudes' as "a relatively enduring organisation of beliefs around an object or situation, predisposing one to respond in some preferential manner" (p.112). Meanwhile, 'values' refer to "a single belief that … guides actions and judgment across specific objects and situations, and beyond immediate goals to more ultimate end states of existence" (ibid, 1968, p.160). Due to this overlap of meanings, Rokeach hence included attitudes and values as parts of the definition of beliefs. Furthermore, he claimed them as part of a functionally integrated cognitive system that basically refers to "any simple proposition … inferred from what a person says or does, capable of being preceded by the phrase 'I believe that …'" (ibid, 1968, p.113).

### 2.2.1.3    Other kinds of teachers' beliefs

As discussed in 2.1.2.1.2, the interaction among different kinds of teachers' beliefs could lead them to have an influence on each other. For instance, the belief about Standard English as being the best form of the English language may affect other beliefs about teaching English. This is because teachers' beliefs are claimed to be

within an 'unbounded' cognitive system (Ertmer, 2006, Nespor, 1987) that can be affected by other related aspects including other kinds of beliefs. In this regard, research has frequently explored the relationship among teachers' beliefs, particularly in the form of one central (core) belief mediating the others (peripheral) (Buehl and Beck, 2015).

However, according to Nespor (1987), given that the belief system is not similar to the knowledge system, it does not have to require group consensus or share the same concepts. To demonstrate, Nespor exemplified two teachers who 'know' the same things about technology, but who might 'believe' different things about its usage; for example, one sees it as a blessing but another views it as a curse. This is to say, their beliefs are quite idiosyncratic and are not necessarily congruent to other kinds of beliefs although they share similar topics (e.g. teachers' beliefs about teaching English language and teachers' beliefs about learning English language).

In addition, Buehl and Beck (2015) highlighted that the issue concerning teachers' beliefs influencing each other could lead to a lack of consistent and practical teaching practices in different circumstances. For example, the traditional beliefs about ELT conforming to the NESs' norms may influence the teachers to force their students to pronounce English sounds in accordance with the NESs. This teaching practice may result in some negative effects on their students (e.g. unfamiliarity with other Englishes), as this belief tends to be inconsistent with the current status and use of the English language around the world. To deal with this, therefore, the teachers may have to be aware of their beliefs' impacts both on their other types of beliefs and on teaching practices (Chant, 2009, Mansour, 2009). However, it has to be noted that there are many types of beliefs that are unconsciously held by teachers and they also exert a strong impact both on other types of beliefs and on teaching practices (Fives and Buehl, 2012). Such beliefs may include the teachers' beliefs that are influenced by the internalised knowledge to which they often unconsciously refer whenever they perform teaching practices (see 2.2.1.2.1).

### 2.2.2 External factors (Teachers' experiences)

In a teacher's life, there are several places or contexts in which he or she takes part either temporarily or permanently. The experiences of being involved in those contexts can be considered to be an essential ingredient that blends the teachers' different kinds of beliefs. In other words, the teachers' beliefs can be developed throughout their lifetimes and can be influenced by a variety of contextual factors

including events, experiences, and other people in their lives (Johnson and Hall, 2007, Knowles, 1992, Mansour, 2009). Adapted from Buehl and Beck (2015), Fives and Buehl (2012) and Maxson (1996), this study divides the external factors into three groups comprising the teachers' experiences with people, regulations, controls and media, and events. These factors are related to the teachers' socialisation in different contexts (e.g. living community, former school, workplace, and other places that teachers travel to) through different life periods (pre-service and in-service periods (see Table 1 below).

Table 1    Categorisation of external factors

| External factors | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Contexts | Factors related to people | Factors related to regulations, controls, and media | Factors related to events |
| **Living community** | - family<br>- peers | - cultures and values in living community<br>- religions | - activities held within living communities, e.g. cultural meetings |
| **Prior school** | - teachers<br>- peers<br>- mentor teachers | - cultures and values in schools<br>- theoretical knowledge or lessons | - classroom events, e.g. Students' English presentations |
| **Workplace** | - colleagues<br>- students<br>- administrators<br>- students' parents | - culture and values in workplace<br>- theoretical knowledge or lessons taught to students<br>- school curriculum requirements<br>- educational policy<br>- administrative demands<br>- Contextual factors (e.g. class size)<br>- media and advertisement | - workplace events, e.g. department meetings, students' presentation |
| **Other contexts, e.g. places where teachers travel or visit** | - people from different backgrounds | - culture and values of places where teachers travel to | - any type of activities that teachers attend while traveling |

### 2.2.2.1    Experiences with people

It is undeniable that interactions with people in any context is an important aspect of a human being's mental constructs. Through the process of social interaction, a person can learn to construct their knowledge from an integration of human biological, contextual, and social influences, which are underlying in the theory of social constructivism (Windschitl, 2002). For teachers, their socialisation with

people in different contexts is an important part of the 'informal experience', which consequently plays a role as a factor forming their beliefs (Mansour, 2008b). Therefore, apart from the 'formal experience' (e.g. in school or workplace), teachers can form their beliefs from informal experiences of everyday life contacts either in the past or the present (ibid, 2008b, p.1606). For instance, daily conversation at home with their parents who teach or are interested in English grammar can influence teachers to believe that grammar is the most crucial aspect in achieving and using the English language.

Regarding the formal experiences, particularly in prior schooling, the interactions with their teachers and peers are central to teachers' beliefs (Kagan, 1992b, Gabillon, 2012). That is, the teachers' experiences in schools can guide them to form their beliefs about how to teach their own students (e.g. Cota Grijalva and Ruiz-Esparza Barajas, 2013, Gabillon, 2007, Rashidi and Moghadam, 2015). Skott (2015) supported the proposition that, as teachers' beliefs are seen as value-laden and they are characterised by "a certain degree of commitments" (p.18), what the teachers obtain from their interaction with people can be seen both positively and negatively. In a sense, teachers might perceive their experiences of interacting with their own teachers and peers in classroom contexts as either good or bad experiences that they may or may not retrieve to adapt to their own classrooms. For the present study, this issue links with the impacts of teachers' practices on teachers' beliefs, which are presented in section 2.3.3.

### 2.2.2.2 Experiences with regulations, controls and media

In life, teachers have to interact with not only people, but also different kinds of regulations as well as controls and media. Regulation in the educational context means political statements that focus on controlling educators' behaviours under the command of non-educators (Muir, 1983). To be more precise, for instance, the teachers of English language in Thailand are frequently controlled by the government's educational policies and different forms of educational regulations in their institutions (e.g. curriculum and policy) (Darasawang and Watson Todd, 2012, Foley, 2005). Consequently, the Thai teachers' beliefs about ELT may be influenced by different forms of the national educational policies and regulations (Fitzpatrick, 2011, Saengboon, 2013).

Apart from the regulations, teachers' beliefs can be controlled by other aspects including the culture of their society (e.g. living community, school, workplace, and other contexts). From a psychological perspective, OReilly and Chatman (1996)

claimed that culture could influence focus of attention, shape interpretations of events, and guide attitudes and behaviours of members of society (p.157). This links with some social-science studies which claimed that culture was a social control mechanism, in particular when it has a significant relationship with the performance of members of society (Britzman, 1986, Sharp et al., 2017). Also, in the field of English language education, some studies explained that teachers' beliefs could be controlled by the cultures of the place where the teachers belong, such as the culture of their family (Mansour, 2009), the culture of their school (Comer, 2001), the culture of their workplace (Li, 2008, 2012, Sato and Kleinsasser, 2004), and the culture of other places where the teachers have either short- or long-term experiences (e.g. international settings) (Pence and Macgillivray, 2008, Willard-Holt, 2001).

Finally, research has explored whether some forms of media could also affect teachers' beliefs, in particular in the present period when the teaching and learning of English have been integrated with the digital age (Akeredolu-Ale et al., 2014, Padmavathi, 2013). Previous research explained that some particular media including social media, technology, and advertising are influential on teachers' beliefs. For instance, Gilakjani and Sabouri (2014) found that the Pronunciation Power software affected the beliefs of Iranian EFL teachers after they spent a period using this software in their classrooms.

### 2.2.2.3    Experiences with events

The meaning of the term 'events' may overlap with 'experiences', as both of them refer to a person's commitment to a particular situation. In fact, a person's experiences can be obtained through his or her participation in the events at a given place and time (Getz and Page, 2016). Similarly, teachers have to experience many events in their lives, and their beliefs can be constructed through a process of enculturation and social construction (Pajares, 1992). Thus, their beliefs can be formed by chance, an intense experience, or a succession of events (ibid, 1992, p.307). For instance, in different classroom events where teachers have played a role as a learner they would observe things that happened in those classrooms and absorb these as prototypes for their own further application (i.e. the apprenticeship of observation) (William and Burden, 1997, Borg, 2004, Lortie, 1975)

In summary, there are two groups of factors that can influence the formation and implementation of teachers' beliefs. The first group is called the internal factors, which means things residing in the teachers' cognitive system. This group consists

of the teachers' personality (e.g. openness) and the teachers' internalised external factors (e.g. personal practical knowledge, cultures), and other kinds of beliefs. The second group refers to things that reside outside the teachers' minds. This group comprises the teachers' experiences with different contextual factors like people, regulations, controls, media, and events.

## 2.3 The relationship among beliefs, practices, and awareness of GE

To examine the relationship among the beliefs about ELT, awareness of GE, and teaching practices of teachers is one of the research aims in this study. As discussed in 2.1.2., one of the reasons why teachers' beliefs are a highly complex construct in their cognitive system is their interaction and relationship with teachers' other constructs (Fives and Buehl, 2012, Pajares, 1992, Mansour, 2008a, Bryan, 2003). Given this fact, it is assumed that the teachers' beliefs about ELT in this study are also interrelated with their teaching practices and awareness of GE in some particular ways. The following sections attempt to demonstrate the patterns of their relationship.

### 2.3.1 Teachers' beliefs influence teaching practices

Thompson (1992) declared that the "belief systems are dynamic, permeable mental structures, susceptible to change in light of experience … The relationship between beliefs and practice is a dialectic, not a simple cause-and-effect relationship" (p.140). The researcher concurred with this statement, in particular the concern about the complex relationship between teachers' beliefs and teaching practices. This is because the review of the contents and constructs of teachers' beliefs in the above sections implied that there seems to be more than one approach to define how teachers' beliefs and teaching beliefs impact each other. This includes their reciprocal relationship (Bandura, 1997, Skott, 2001, Muijs and Reynolds, 2015). Thus, researchers who are interested in this topic need to be careful when conducting an empirical investigation. Note that the demonstration of how the practices influence the beliefs can be seen in 2.3.3.

With regard to how teachers' beliefs affect their teaching practices, Fives and Buehl (2012) explained that teachers' beliefs have different impacts or functions on their teaching practices. Such functions include filtering information and experience, framing situations and problems, and guiding intention and action (see Figure 2).

Figure 2  Teachers' beliefs filter, frame, and guide teaching practices
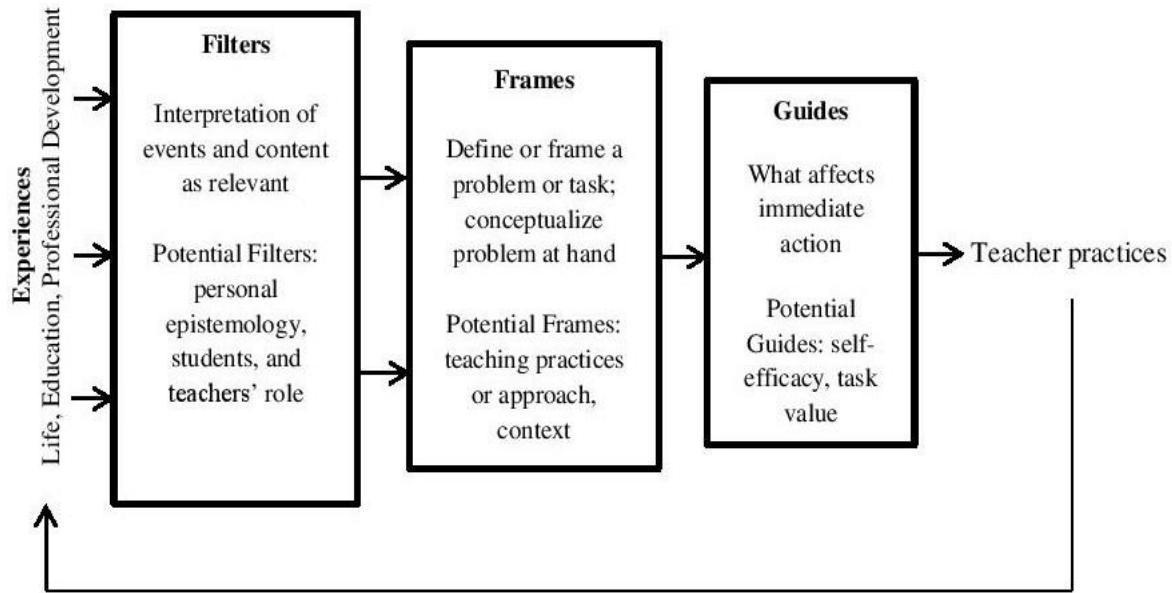


As a filter, Fives and Buehl (2012) and Pajares (1992) showed that beliefs would influence a person's process of perceiving and interpreting new information and experience. Given that teachers' understanding of reality is always seen through the lens of existing beliefs, the role of beliefs as a filter is particularly relevant to the contexts in which the teacher becomes involved (Gates, 2006). For instance, Lee et al. (2006) disclosed that in the circumstance that their beliefs are congruent with the new teaching practices, teachers will be more open to accept such practices. In contrast, if the teachers are unlikely to believe or get along with the new set of knowledge, it seems quite difficult to see their application of such new knowledge in their practices (Marland, 1997). Interestingly, this issue tends to link with the traditional beliefs (e.g. ELT beliefs conformed to the NESs' norms) that often influence teachers to reject a new set of beliefs or knowledge reviewed above (e.g. GE) (see 2.1.2.3 and 2.2.1.2).

In addition, teachers' beliefs can function as a frame for any situations and problems that occur during instruction and professionally. According to Nespor (1987), one of the benefits of teachers' beliefs is to frame the ill-defined problems that are typical within classrooms. Fives and Buehl (2012) also indicated that once teachers extract information from the environment through their beliefs' filter, their beliefs will continue to play a role in their conceptualising or framing of the problem at hand. In other words, after they allow new experiences into their

cognitive process, the teachers will elaborate and frame such new experiences with their former perceptions and experiences. Moreover, regarding teachers' beliefs as a guide for teaching practices, it was perceived that teachers usually set a belief to guide their actions after the process of filtering and framing new information into their mental constructs (ibid, 2012). This supports Borg (1999b), Borg (1999c) who illustrated that teachers tend to use their personal theories (e.g. beliefs and cognitions) to guide their teaching practices when the instructional contexts are not well defined.

### 2.3.2    Teachers' beliefs may affect teachers' awareness of GE

In section 2.1.2, the researcher demonstrated how the teachers' beliefs interact with their other constructs (e.g. knowledge and attitudes). Such demonstration led to a conclusion that teachers' beliefs are best understood as an integrated system (Fives and Buehl, 2012, Mansour, 2008a, Bryan, 2003). Given this fact, there seems to be a possibility that teachers' beliefs about ELT can affect their awareness of GE in this study.

For example, it is assumed that if a teacher believes the NESs' ELT model as the best model for teaching English, the awareness of GE may neither be reflected in their belief system nor classroom practices. For one reason, based on this type of belief, such a teacher may reject the knowledge of GE or not use the GE-based ELT model in their classrooms. This may be because, as exemplified earlier, teachers do not easily accept the new set of knowledge or practice if their existing beliefs are not consistent with such knowledge (Marland, 1997) (see also traditional beliefs in 2.1.2.3 and 2.2.1.2). In addition, it seems logical to link this issue with how the core beliefs control the teachers to define other constructs (e.g. other beliefs, teaching practices, and awareness of GE) (see also 2.1.2.1.2). Furthermore, this perception supports Palmer (2011) and Young (2014) who claimed that teachers' (standard) language ideology was a type of teachers' (core) beliefs according to their impact on other beliefs about teaching and learning a language (e.g. beliefs about language students and self-efficacy).

### 2.3.3    Teaching practices affect beliefs and awareness of GE

As mentioned in section 2.2.1.2.1, once teachers accept new knowledge into their cognitive process and implement it in classrooms, such knowledge may become part of their beliefs or a significant factor that affects construction of their beliefs (Arıoğul, 2007, Liakopoulou, 2011). This is because such knowledge passes

through the teachers' filter, frame, and guide (Fives and Buehl, 2012, Buehl and Beck, 2015) and their cognitive constructs are adjusted to suit the practical circumstances of their classrooms (Arıoğul, 2007, p.170). These arguments link with those of some researchers who found that teachers' beliefs and other cognitive constructs can be shaped through their teaching practices (Guskey, 1986).

Focusing on how the teaching practices influence teachers' beliefs, Buehl and Beck (2015) referred to the experience of pre-service teachers whose beliefs construct and change after their engagement in specific practices (p.69). In the same vein, Johnson (1994) explored whether pre-service teachers' instructional beliefs during a practicum relied on images of the teachers, materials, activities, and classroom organisation originated by their own experiences as second language (L2) learners (i.e. the apprenticeship of observation). In addition, Bandura (1997) explained that individual teachers could receive information about their capability to perform a task by their engagement in it. To a certain extent, teachers' self-efficacy can be increased if they feel successful in their practices. This means the levels of success in their classrooms have a significant influence on teachers' beliefs about self-efficacy.

From the same perspective as Bandura (1997), the researcher assumed that the teachers' teaching practices may have an impact on their awareness of GE. Thus, while they teach their students, teachers may observe some phenomena or receive some information from their classroom and take this into account in their teaching practices. For example, Cho and Reich (2008) observed that their teacher participants changed some teaching practices to suit and help new students who came from different countries. The change of teaching practices included the adjustment of their rate of speech, tasks and assignments, time allocation to complete the assignment, and different instructional materials. Clearly, Cho and Reich's (2008) results provided a good example supporting that the teachers' teaching practices can affect the awareness of GE.

In summary, this section examined the relationship among teachers' beliefs about ELT, awareness of GE, and teaching practices. The patterns of their relationship may be assumed in three forms: beliefs can affect practices; beliefs may affect awareness of GE; and practices can affect both beliefs about ELT and awareness of GE. Note that their relationship may also be seen in Chapter 3, which focuses further on the awareness of GE.

## 2.4 Previous studies on teachers' cognition related to GE

Having reviewed the theoretical evidence related to teachers' beliefs about ELT above, this section attempts to discover how previous studies incorporated such theoretical frameworks to study the field of GE. The examination's results disclosed a significant increase and improvement of the research that aimed to combine these two fields of study. In addition, it provided a better understanding of the connection between these two fields, which is essential for drawing the theoretical and methodological stance of this study.

However, it has to be noted that, in examining those previous studies, the researcher was also faced with a challenge concerning their diverse uses of cognitive terms (e.g. attitudes, beliefs, perceptions, views, ideologies) which have an overlap both in definitions and functions. This issue led the researcher to revert to using the term 'teachers' cognition' (Borg, 2003b) in this section to cover and explain such integrated uses of terms. With regard to the terms related to GE, although the examination results also presented their diverse uses and focuses, the researcher perceived them as unequivocal, given that the previous studies often explained explicitly what their terms meant and how these terms overlapped with other terms (e.g. English as a lingua franca: ELF and English as International language: EIL) (see Table 2).

As can be seen in Table 2 below, a great number of studies have integrated the knowledge of teachers' cognition with the field of GE. Many have used the term 'attitudes', while some have referred to teachers' 'beliefs', 'perceptions', 'ideologies' or 'views'. Given this, the researcher perceived that one reason to employ the term attitudes was related to two attitudinal studies of Jenkins (2007), Jenkins (2005a) that were developed early and are foundational for later studies aimed to combine these two fields.

To a certain extent, Jenkins (2005a) explained, from her in-depth interview results with eight NNETs from five non-native English speaking countries (i.e. Italy, Japan, Malaysia, Poland, and Spain), that to study the attitudes of teachers who held a wide variation in terms of knowledge and experience of ELF (i.e. some had barely heard of it and others were themselves researching it) can lead to an understanding of their willingness to teach ELF in classrooms. Therefore, in Jenkins (2007), she extended the scope of her study about attitudes towards ELF, using a questionnaire to question 326 respondents from 12 countries and found that patterns of answers were straightforward. This means the NESs' accents, in particular UK and US

accents, were preferred in all respects by this large group of expanding circle respondents. More importantly, her participants showed the high value they placed on issues concerning correctness and intelligibility. Meanwhile, Jenkins (2007) revealed that none of the NNESs' accents were preferred, leading to her comment that despite the massive shift in the use and users of English over recent decades, many and perhaps the majority of teachers of English in expanding circle countries still continue to believe that proper English resides in certain of its ancestral homes, principally the UK and US (ibid, 2007, p.188).

Table 2  Previous studies on teachers' cognition in relation to GE issues

| Source | Focus | | Context | Method |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Cognitive construct used | GE issue | | |
| Jenkins (2005a) | Attitudes | Attitudes towards accents of NESs and NNESs | 8 NNETs (all female) from Italy, Japan, Malaysia, Poland, Spain | In-depth interview |
| Sifakis and Sougari (2005) | Attitudes, beliefs | Attitudes regarding pronunciation beliefs and practices | 421 teachers of English from Greece | Surveys |
| Jenkins (2007) | Attitudes | Attitudes towards ELF issues | 326 teachers from 12 countries, Austria, Brazil, China, Finland, Germany, Greece, Japan, Poland, Spain, Sweden, Taiwan, Canada | Questionnaires |
| Ranta (2010) | Views | Views on the teaching targets and practical goals underpinning their use of English inside and outside school | 108 students and 34 non-native teachers of English Upper secondary schools from Finland | Questionnaires |
| Young and Walsh (2010) | Beliefs | Beliefs about the usefulness and appropriacy of varieties such as EIL and ELF compared with native speaker varieties | 26 NNETs from countries in Europe, Africa, and West, Southeast and East Asia | Interviews, focus groups |
| Litzenberg (2013) | Attitudes | Attitudes towards varieties of English of NESs and NNESs | 70 Pre-service TESOL teachers from 24 American institutions | Online surveys, focus groups, curriculum analysis |
| Kaur (2014) | Attitudes | Attitudes towards ELF | 72 pre-service teachers in a public university from Malaysia | Questionnaires |
| Young (2014) | Attitudes | Attitudes towards the plurilingualism | 46 head teachers from a variety of schools in the Strasbourg area, north-east France | Interviews |
| Boonsuk (2015) | Perceptions | Perceptions towards the construction of nativeness and its relationship to the teaching effectiveness of English teachers | 16 students, 7 NETs, 8 NNETs, and 4 English program administrators from Thailand | Questionnaires, Interviews |
| Fang (2015) | Attitudes | Chinese university students' and teachers' attitudes towards their own and other English accents in the ELF framework | 9 students and 12 teachers from a Chinese university | Questionnaires, interviews, focus groups |
| SoruÇ (2015) | Attitudes | Attitudes towards ELF | 45 NNETs from five expanding circle countries | Questionnaires, interviews |
| Sougari and Faltzi (2015) | Beliefs | Beliefs about ELF-related issues | Pre-service teachers (6 male and 80 female) from Greece | Questionnaires |

Table 3 Previous studies on teachers' cognition in relation to GE issues (Continued)

| Source | Focus | | Context | Method |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Cognitive construct used | GE issue | | |
| Weekly (2015) | Attitudes, beliefs | Attitudes towards English language varieties and the impact on their teaching beliefs | Multilingual South Asian English language teachers | Interviews, focus groups, email interviews |
| Lim (2016) | Attitudes | Attitudes towards ASEAN English Varieties in the Classroom | Pre-service teachers (1 male and 2 female) from Cambodia | Interviews, observations |
| Liu (2016) | Perceptions | Perceptions of GE's concepts, GE in communication, and GE in ELT | 25 teachers in a public school in China | Questionnaire, interview, observation |
| Takahashi (2016) | Attitudes | Attitudes towards ELF-oriented materials | 452 learners and 28 teachers from Japan | Questionnaire survey |
| Curran and Chern (2017) | Attitudes | Attitudes towards ELF | Pre-service English teachers (36 English majors students, 8 students minoring in English, 11 graduate students, and 4 interns) | Questionnaires |
| Luo (2017) | Perceptions | Perceptions of ELF in relation to ELT in classrooms | 7 Taiwanese English teachers | Interviews, questionnaires |
| Monfared and Khatib (2018) | Attitudes | Attitudes towards their own variant English in ESL/EFL teaching Contexts | 260 English teachers from India and Iran | Questionnaires |
| Wong (2018) | Perceptions | Accent perceptions | 21 pre-service teachers in Hong Kong | Questionnaires, listening task, focus groups |

The researcher agrees with Sung (2010) who claimed that Jenkins's attitudinal studies, in particular Jenkins (2007), were a valuable and timely addition to the ever-growing fields of ELF and WEs (i.e. World Englishes). This is because she not only made a contribution to the existing literature on ELF, but also added to the expanding body of literature on language attitudes, language ideology, as well as identity and ELT (ibid, 2010, p.148). For example, many later studies adopted Jenkins's perspective about attitudes towards ELF and methods (i.e. questionnaires) to identify attitudes of teachers of English language in different contexts (Litzenberg, 2013, Kaur, 2014, Fang, 2015, Young and Walsh, 2010, Young, 2014, Weekly, 2015).

To illustrate, by adopting Jenkins's (2007) questionnaires to discover attitudes towards ELF of 72 pre-service teachers in Malaysia, the results provided Kaur (2014) with the finding that the Malaysian teachers viewed the NESs' accents as being better and described them in more positive categories than the NNESs' accents. Kaur, thus, concluded the study in agreement with Jenkins (2007) that there is still a bias towards NESs' accents as being more correct and proper as opposed to

NNESs. Similarly, Fang (2015) used questionnaires adapted from different researchers including Jenkins (2007) to study attitudes towards their own English and ELF of NNETs in China, but Fang included a number of students and employed another research method (i.e. interviews) to gain greater details in his study. For this reason, the results of Fang could also provide another perspective of teachers' attitudes. That is, both quantitative and qualitative data suggested that both teacher and student participants held complex and uncertain attitudes. For instance, some teachers believed the global spread of English as essential for their own identities when using the language, while others still aimed to conform to the NESs as they needed to serve as professional pronunciation role models to students. The students expressed their dissatisfaction with their own English and aimed to refine themselves to be like NESs, yet they did not expect others to sound native-like. With these results, Fang summarised that, although being rooted in the NESs ideology, both students and teachers expressed the necessity of exposure to different accents.

It has to be noted that, apart from Jenkins (2005a, 2007), Kaur (2014), and Fang (2015), there are many other studies that have examined teachers' attitudes to GE issues (although many of them did not follow Jenkins's approach of attitudes towards ELF and questionnaire design) and their findings systematically advocated that many NNETs still place more emphasis on the NESs' than the NNESs' models of English (Sifakis and Sougari, 2005, Litzenberg, 2013, Young, 2014, SoruÇ, 2015, Weekly, 2015, Lim, 2016, Monfared and Khatib, 2018, Curran and Chern, 2017, Takahashi, 2016). More importantly, many of these studies suggested pedagogical implications based on their empirical findings. For instance, Monfared and Khatib (2018) proposed that, together with encouraging and valuing different varieties of English, it is essential to acknowledge and promote methods to raise awareness of teachers and learners towards the global spread of English. In addition, Curran and Chern (2017) advised teacher training institutions to look for new models of teacher training that embrace an ELF perspective, as it seems to be important among pre-service teachers in expanding circle countries to have a good understanding of this issue for the benefit of their further teaching.

Furthermore, as mentioned earlier, among the previous studies that integrated the field of teachers' cognition and the GE perspective, many also employed other terms rather than 'attitudes'. They included teachers' views (Ranta, 2010), teachers' beliefs (Sougari and Faltzi, 2015, Young and Walsh, 2010), and teachers' perceptions (Boonsuk, 2015, Liu, 2016, Wong, 2018, Luo, 2017). Despite using

different cognitive terms, the researcher found that these studies often referred to Jenkins's (2005a, 2007) attitudinal studies related to ELF. Hence, their working cognitive terms may not only have some relationship, but also sometimes were used interchangeably with the term teachers' attitudes; for instance, Ranta (2010) used the terms 'teachers' views' and 'teachers' attitudes' interchangeably in her study. From this fact, the researcher assumed that such interchangeable uses of cognitive terms with 'attitudes' may be similar to Jenkins's (2007) foundational study, as she also used 'attitudes' as a blanket term for other terms like 'beliefs' and 'opinions'.

In examining the results of the studies that used different cognitive terms with GE issues, the researcher discovered some similarities. One was related to their results, which presented inconsistencies and contradictions between what teachers thought and what teachers did in classrooms. For example, Ranta (2010) stated that although her teacher participants' 'views' about English teaching target involved an awareness of the lingua franca role of English in the real world and language diversity, their teaching practices still, to some extent, conformed to the standard models. Sougari and Faltzi (2015) also highlighted, in a study of Greek teachers' 'beliefs' about ELF-related issues, that the majority of Greek pre-service teachers of English fully realised the current role of English and the importance of this language in communication exchanges with both NESs and NNESs. In particular, those who had more intercultural experiences were more open to the possibility of using English, not only with NESs, but also with NNESs. However, in classroom practices, these Greek pre-service teachers fell back on familiar patterns stressing the need to focus on form, which means grammatical and content errors were primarily important. In addition, Liu (2016) found some contradictions in her Chinese teacher participants' 'perceptions' about GE concepts. For example, the teachers perceived the enhancement of Standard English grammar as not very helpful in terms of practical communication, yet they firmly rejected GE issues in their classroom and continued their intensive grammar teaching, as well as forced students to practise Standard English grammar rules to improve language accuracy through repeated practice and exercises. What is more, these teachers expressed the view that language learning would be more effective if students could learn naturally through practice; nonetheless, they kept reminding students to take notes and emphasised the importance of rote language learning.

Finally, based on the above examination of previous studies related to teachers' cognition and GE issues, it can be summarised that those studies were well

developed and established. The majority of them were developed based on Jenkins's (2005a, 2007) early studies of teachers' attitudes towards ELF; therefore, the term 'attitudes' was employed frequently among them. In addition, other studies related to the field of teachers' cognition and GE did not use the term attitudes, but rather other cognitive terms (e.g. views, beliefs, perceptions). However, the examination of their results (both those that used the terms attitudes or other terms) disclosed similarities with Jenkins (2005a, 2007). Many NNETs in expanding circle countries still perceived the NESs' ELT models (e.g. accents and pronunciation) as more appropriate than other ELT models (e.g. GE). What is more interesting, some of these studies found that although some NNETs showed a positive way of thinking (e.g. beliefs) towards GE issues, their teaching practices were often inconsistent with what they thought.

For the present study, the examination of these previous studies confirmed the importance of the studies on teachers' cognition in relation to GE issues in English language education. In addition, it provided a better understanding of how the fields of teachers' cognition and GE were integrated as well as some theoretical and methodological implications which are useful for this study. For example, the results presenting the teaching practices still conformed to the NESs' models (although they expressed some positive thoughts towards GE issues) can be used to support the aim to study factors behind contradictions between teachers' beliefs and teaching practices in this study.

More importantly, the examination of previous studies has provided some gaps that the researcher could address in the present study. For instance, firstly, the researcher aimed to focus on teachers of English in the Thai context, given that the examination results presented a limited number of GE studies in relation to teachers' cognition in this country. As can be seen in Table 2, Boonsuk (2015) was found to be the only current study focusing on Thai teachers in the Thai context while many GE studies chose to study teachers in other Asian countries or in other contexts. The researcher perceived that Thai teachers, similar to teachers in other Asian countries, have to deal with the increase in use of ELF in the English communication among NNESs (e.g. Thai people use ELF in AEC community). Given this reason, it seems important to investigate if Thai teachers are aware of the effect of the spread of English and ELF communication in their teaching practices. Second, the researcher found that many GE studies, including Boonsuk (2015) (which was conducted in Thailand), employed only one or two research instruments to investigate the relationship between what teachers think and what teachers do

in classrooms. This can be one of their limitations because, with their limited number of instruments used, they may fail to understand the whole image of teachers' beliefs in relation to classroom practices. To illustrate, it seems insufficient when some of them (e.g. Liu, 2016, Lim, 2016) used classroom observation as only one method to explore teachers' practices and measure if such practices were consistent with the data of teacher received from other instruments (e.g. interviews or focus groups). This is because, in fact, teachers can perform other types of teaching practices which can be different from what they do in classroom (e.g. document practices). Thus, to fulfil this gap, the researcher attempted to employ different research instruments (i.e. surveys, interviews, focus groups, observations, and document analysis) to explore the belief system of Thai teachers and to see if there is any relationship between their beliefs about ELT and their practices as well as their awareness of GE (see also Chapter 4).

## 2.5   A summary of the chapter

In summary, this chapter aimed to explain the theoretical basis of teachers' beliefs. The early sections attempted to conceptualise what is meant by beliefs and teachers' beliefs about ELT in this study. This attempt has led to two approaches of teachers' belief conceptualisation: descriptive and constructional perspectives. The descriptive perspective referred to when the researcher summarised the descriptions of beliefs given by previous studies and generated the description for the beliefs in this study accordingly. On the contrary, the constructional perspective meant when different constructional dimensions (e.g. stability and explicitness) were brought to explain beliefs. Then, the chapter moved on to discuss different kinds of factors that are influential on teachers' belief formation and implementation. Such factors included internal factors or things residing in the teachers' mind (e.g. personality, knowledgem and other kinds of beliefs) and external factors which meant things residing out the teachers' head including contextual factors like people and workplace regulations. In addition, the chapter demonstrated two possible patterns of relationship among beliefs about ELT, awareness of GE, and teaching practices. The patterns included when beliefs affect awareness of GE and teaching practices and, conversely, when practices influence beliefs and awareness of GE of teachers. Finally, an examination of previous studies related to the field of teachers' cognition and GE was addressed. In this section, the researcher explained how previous studies combined the theory of teachers' cognition (although they used different terms such as attitudes, perceptions, views,

and beliefs) with the perspective of GE. By doing so, the researcher could also regenerate some gaps concerning contextual and methodological issues.

# Chapter 3 Awareness of Global Englishes

The main aims of this chapter are to conceptualise the awareness of Global Englishes (GE) and to examine its importance for English language teaching (ELT) in Thailand, the target context of this study. Early sections of the chapter, thus, briefly introduce the general background and rationale of this framework. Then, it is linked with situations of English in Asia. In this section, the chapter examines English in both general and educational settings, which contributes to a proposal for their ELT based on the GE perspective. The chapter ends with a discussion of Thailand's English language including English in education, problems of Thai ELT, and the Thai government's language management policy, to search for gaps to apply the GE-oriented ELT models.

## 3.1 Background information about Global Englishes

### 3.1.1 The global spread and use of English language

In recent years, it has become apparent that English is almost everywhere in the world. Even in countries where it has no official status including in the 'expanding circle' (Kachru, 1985, Kachru, 1992), this language is increasingly being used internally and has permeated into the daily lives of people (Galloway, 2013). Also, English serves an official or co-official language in one-third of the world's countries and connects different aspects of society, such as culture, economy, politics, spirituality, and language (McIntyre, 2008, McArthur, 2003). Moreover, Galloway and Rose (2015) indicated that English is more potent than other lingua francas (e.g. Arabic, Greek, Latin, and Sanskrit), given that it not only fulfils the need to connect the world linguistically, but also functions diversely in many countries (e.g. as a first language, a second language, and a foreign language). All of these benefits mean that English fulfils the definition of a truly global language, which means "a language that has come into contact with a range of other languages and cultures like no other language before it" (ibid, 2015, p.12).

The phenomenal spread of English has also made different changes to the way people speak the language (e.g. groups of target speakers and varieties of English). This includes an increase of different English varieties around the world. For example, Crystal (2012) stated that English is currently used in more than seventy-five territories around the world and, among these territories, there appears to be

a variety of English spoken as either pidgin or creole (e.g. the Bahamas, British Virgin Islands, Guyana) (ibid, 2012, p.62–65). Additionally, there are a growing number of people using English as a lingua franca (ELF) in international settings (Boyle, 2011, Dewey, 2007, House, 2003), which has affected the emergence of distinctive patterns in using English among non-native English speakers (NNESs) (see also 3.1.2.2). These phenomena have resulted in many changes to the use of English worldwide and, more importantly, they have brought questions about the traditional constructs of English including the native speaker, ownership of language, standard language, and target language (Galloway and Rose, 2015, Nero, 2012).

### 3.1.2    Awareness of Global Englishes (GE)

To deal with changes in the use and status of English affected by its global spread, a field of study called Global Englishes (GE) has emerged. According to Jenkins et al. (2011), GE is a field of study that recognises the diversity of worldwide English speakers and does not use native English speakers (NESs) as a yardstick of competence (p. 283–284). In other words, GE examines the global consequences of the use of English as a global language and incorporates many peripheral issues such as globalisation, linguistic imperialism, education, and language policy and planning (Galloway and Rose, 2015).

In fact, GE is not a completely new field of English studies, but the field has emerged from the previous paradigm called World Englishes (WEs) which focuses on nation-bound varieties of English language (Sung, 2015, Jenkins, 2014) (see 3.1.2.1). Based on Jenkins (2014), one of the reasons for this emergence of GE is related to the limitation of WEs to capture all the immense developments of English in the current period, in particular when English is increasingly used as a lingua franca (ELF) among people from different nations and first languages. This means GE also includes ELF in its conceptualisation and studies ELF together with WEs. Therefore, theoretically, GE includes both WEs and ELF that share a common perspective on the current diversity associated with the global spread of English language (Cogo and Dewey, 2012, Galloway, 2013, Galloway and Rose, 2015, Seidlhofer, 2009) (see more about WEs and ELF below).

However, studies by some GE researchers have also included the term called English as an international language (EIL) as part of their GE conceptualisation and extensively used it in their research, although they do show their awareness of the terms' overlaps (e.g. ELF and EIL). For example, some have claimed EIL to be a

variety of English (Tomlinson, 2003) while others viewed it as the function or use of English in international contexts (Matsuda and Friedrich, 2012). This is in contrast with Jenkins (2015) who claimed EIL as only a synonym of ELF, explaining that EIL is simply the term that ELF researchers used originally until ELF became better known (p.53). This implies that to use the term EIL in the GE framework can cause confusion, as explained in many studies (D'Angelo, 2017, Maley, 2010) (see more about ELF and EIL in 3.1.2.2).

For the present study, although the researcher also agreed with Jenkins (2015b) who argued to use ELF instead of EIL (although they are similar) to reduce confusions, the term EIL may not be completely disregarded. For one reason, given that EIL has long been used and established among ELT practitioners (see ELF1 in 3.1.2.2.1), this term may be more familiar among the teacher participants in this study than the term ELF, which is a relatively new field of study (Galloway and Rose, 2015, Jenkins, 2014). In particular, in Thailand where Baker (2015b), Baker (2012a) claimed that ELF models have not yet had a noticeable influence on Thai ELT, the Thai people may not be aware (or well aware) of its existence. With this reason, in this study, EIL may still be referred to but in the same sense with ELF. This is particular in Chapter 5 where the researcher presented the participants' beliefs about English language which were related to EIL (i.e. they stated that English is currently an international language) (see 5.2.2.1). Hence, in this case when EIL is referred to, the researcher followed Jenkins (2002) who explained EIL as the English that is used and learnt for international communication rather than for communication with its NESs. Speakers of EIL, thus, are not foreign speakers of the language but international speakers. The EIL target community is no longer an NES British (or any other NESs) one: it is an international community in which all participants have equal claim to membership (p.85).

### 3.1.2.1    World Englishes (WEs)

As mentioned, the framework of GE consists of WEs, a field of study that concerns varieties of English language used in diverse sociolinguistic contexts. In addition, WEs has promoted a paradigm shift in research, teaching, and the application of sociolinguistic realities to the forms and functions of English (McArthur, 1998). Furthermore, it was pointed out that 'pluralism' is an integral part of WEs, as it examines theoretical and methodological frameworks, which are based on the monotheistic ethos of linguistic science, and replaces them with frameworks that are faithful to multilingualism and language variation (e.g. Bamgbose et al., 1995, Bhatt, 2001, Mesthire, 1992). That is to say, WEs rejects the dichotomy in which

the NESs are seen as superior to NNESs, and emphasises WE-ness instead (Bhatt, 2001, p.527-528).

To conceptualise the awareness of WEs, the researcher perceived a summary of the scope of WEs studies by Kachru (2005) to be practical. This is because Kachru neatly summarised and covered all significant aspects of WEs. Adapted from her summary, the researcher perceived the awareness of WEs as the awareness of:

a) Forms and features of English both in different varieties (e.g. British English versus Singaporean English) and in different versions (e.g. hybrid English and code-switching English);

b) Intelligibility of English both across varieties (e.g. Indian English versus Malaysian English) and within indigenised varieties in their local settings (e.g. London English versus Liverpool English);

c) Functions of English in different contexts (e.g. classroom, institution, society, and international setting) and in different disciplines (e.g. literary study and business study);

d) Impacts of English on local languages (i.e. Englishisation) and the impacts of local languages on English (i.e. Nativisation); and

e) Types of English speakers (e.g. monolingual, bilingual, and multilingual) and backgrounds of English speakers (e.g. L1, culture, identity).

However, it should be noted that these contents of the awareness of WEs may have some links with the awareness of ELF (e.g. features of English) (see next section). This is because, as mentioned, WEs and ELF share some similar focuses concerning the global use of English in the current period. Thus, to clarify, although some concepts of ELF are contradicted by WEs, such as the use of ELF does not fit into any circle of Kachru's (1992) model and ELF users do not conform to the norms of the NESs (ENL) in their English communication, ELF can still serve a companion and complement for WEs.

### 3.1.2.2    English as a lingua franca (ELF)

Another framework that belongs to the perspective of GE is English as a lingua franca or ELF. It is a new field of study that has grown in intensity and also has a focus on exploring the global usage of English language (Galloway and Rose, 2015, Jenkins, 2014). By its given definition, ELF means "any use of English among speakers of different first languages for whom English is the communicative medium of choice, and often the only option" (Seidlhofer, 2011, p.7). For example,

in the Association of South-East Asian Nations (ASEAN) Economic Community (henceforth AEC), English serves as a lingua franca used for communication among ten member nations who do not share a common mother-tongue language (Kirkpatrick, 2010c). Without English, which is learned and used across Asian countries (Kachru, 1998), the communication among the people in AEC would be difficult and unsuccessful (see more about ASEAN in 3.2.1).

To define 'ELF awareness', the present study conforms to some recent ELF studies that aimed to raise the awareness of ELF in ELT. For example, Sifakis et al. (2018) explained the awareness of ELF as the process of "becoming aware of the observations and principles that emerge from understanding how ELF works" (p.157). In addition, in terms of ELF-aware teaching, Sifakis and Bayyurt (2017) defined it as "the process of engaging with ELF research and developing one's own understanding of the ways in which it can be integrated in one's classroom context, through a continuous process of critical reflection, design, implementation and evaluation of instructional activities that reflect and localise one's interpretation of the ELF construct" (p.459).

Reflecting on these definitions, it seems that the knowledge of ELF and ELF research is an important part of the awareness of ELF. This was particularly evident when Sifakis and Bayyurt (2017) explained that to become ELF-aware teachers, the teachers need to engage with ELF issues (e.g. by either reading the literature or the ELF corpora) and to refer to such issues within their own contexts, as well as to develop instructional activities that integrate their own understanding of ELF. Given this fact, the researcher sees the importance of examining the development of ELF research, which is essential for drawing the scope of ELF knowledge for this study (see next section). In addition, this examination explains this study's theoretical stance about the awareness of ELF which, as seen in the next section, consists of three phases (e.g. ELF1, ELF2, and ELF3).

### 3.1.2.2.1 Development of ELF research

According to Jenkins (2015b), ELF research has developed during three phases (i.e. ELF1, ELF2 and ELF3) and these phases each had a different focus. The first phase (ELF1) focused on and envisaged the possibility of identifying and maybe codifying ELF varieties (i.e. focus on forms). For example, the Lingua Franca Core (LFC) of Jenkins (2000) was aimed at identifying features related to pronunciation and lexicogrammar among NNESs' communication to be used as a reference for pronunciation repertoire features. It has to be noted that, according to Jenkins

(2015b), due to the limited amount of ELF research in this phase, ELF studies frequently relied on WEs studies leading to some overlap among ELF and WEs focuses. In addition, it was in this phase that the term EIL was more commonly employed than ELF, thus making EIL well established (Jenkins, 1996, Jenkins, 2015). This supports the researcher's decision to keep EIL as a blanket term for ELF in this study, at least for the cases where the participants refer to EIL due to their familiarity with the term.

In the second phase (ELF2), when quantities of empirical data were made available such as Lingua Franca Core (LFC) of Jenkins (2000), Vienna Oxford International Corpus of English (VOICE) of Seidlhofer (2011), and the Corpus of English as a Lingua Franca in Academic Settings (ELFA) of Mauranen (2012), the focus shifted to ELF's variability. In this phase, based on the perspective that ELF use transcends boundaries (Seidlhofer, 2008), the quest for ELF varieties was rejected, contradicting the notion of varieties. That is to say, the focus of ELF research in this phase was placed on the process underlying ELF speakers' variable use of forms. Given this, in ELF2, the concept of 'Communities of Practice' was therefore a more appropriate way to approach ELF than the traditional variety-based speech community or WEs-based paradigm (Jenkins, 2015b). However, despite the fact that the conceptualisation of ELF moved away from WEs (i.e. ELF is fluid while WEs is nation-bounded), Jenkins (2015b) explained that the ideology of ELF scholars still remained in agreement with WEs researchers, especially their ideology that Englishes in Outer and Expanding Circles should not conform to the Inner Circle.

With regard to ELF3, Jenkins (2015b) suggested to move the focus away from ELF as the framework to ELF within a framework of multilingualism. That is to say, in this phase, English was conceived as a language or a resource among many other languages, which means it does not need to be selected when there are also other languages available in multilingual communication (p.77). For example, Bahasa Indonesia and Putonghua may be other two languages used in communication among South-East Asian people (Kirkpatrick, 2011) who also know how to speak English. For this proposal, Jenkins (2015b) provided some reasons, such as to reduce the size of 'English' in ELF and focus more on the multilingualism of most ELF users. By this, she meant that "multilingualism rather than English is the 'superordinate', … without which there would be no ELF" (p. 63).

In summary, there were three phases of ELF research development. The first phase (ELF1) focused on identification and, maybe, codification of ELF varieties. The second phase (ELF2) recognised ELF variation, which means it attempted to move

away from the first phase or the traditional nation-bounded perspective and emphasised the fluidity of ELF. For ELF3, the emphasis was on multilingualism when English was perceived as a choice of language among many other languages, and multilingual speakers may or may not select English for their communication although they can use it. For the present study, the scope of ELF awareness includes all of the three phases of ELF (i.e. forms, variations, and multilingualism) although the contents of ELF1 overlap with WEs and the focus of ELF3 (i.e. multilingualism) tends not to be greatly observed in Thailand. This is because, as Baker (2015b) claimed, the ELT in Thailand has not seen (much) influence from ELF and multilingual models due to the pervasive influence of NESs' norms.

### 3.1.2.3    A summary of the awareness of GE

In summary, the awareness of GE in this study includes two sub-categories of awareness: WEs and ELF. WEs focuses on the nation-bounded English use, while ELF concerns the use of English among people from different nations and L1s. It has to note that, although this study chose to use ELF instead of EIL in order to reduce confusions based on Jenkins (2015b), the term EIL may be apparent in some sections (e.g. in analysis chapters where EIL was referred to by some participants). Regarding WEs and ELF, although having a different focus, they share some similarities. For example, they reject the prescriptivism and monocentric model in which L1 English speakers' varieties become the only point of reference. In addition, they support the endonormative models (i.e. the model from a local context) and recognise the L2 varieties as legitimate varieties (Cogo, 2008, McKay, 2011). They also promote a pluricentric model, accept language changes to adapt to new environments, as well as concern various discourse strategies employed by L2 speakers of English (Adityarini, 2016, Pakir, 2009). With regard to these characterisations of WEs and ELF, the present study sees their practicality and their possibility for capturing the use of English in Thailand (the target context), which is increasingly complex because of the spread of English as well as the need to use this language for different purposes such as in the Association of South-East Asian Nations (ASEAN) (see following sections).

## 3.2    English in Asia

English is a language that has a long history in Asia. It has been associated with many aspects of societies and has been used for both in intranational and international communication by Asian people (McArthur, 2003, Kachru, 1982).

Historically, the language was first introduced to certain parts of Asia (e.g. India and China) in the early seventeenth century by the British government and traders, and was mainly used as a working language for business and a lingua franca for communities that had no other mutual intelligible language (e.g. Chaudhuri, 2006, Jenkins, 2003, 2014, Kachru, 1986). Later, in the early twentieth century, English became more widespread with globalisation, as countries across the world became interconnected for trading and cultural exchange (Held, 1999, Mufwene, 2010). English has connected Asian countries with the rest of the world in order to grow and develop their resources (e.g. population and economy), and this language has consequently become an integral part of their lives up to the present decade (Galloway and Rose, 2015, Ives, 2006, Mukherjee and Gries, 2009).

Greater focus on modes of use has confirmed that English currently appears in almost all communication channels of Asian societies. For instance, in the English as a second language (ESL) countries such as India, English has become the language of administration, politics, education, and academia (Faust and Nagar, 2001, Tollefson, 2002). Also, in the countries where English serves as a foreign language (EFL), such as Laos and Thailand, English plays a vital role as the first foreign language learned in schools and has been introduced in the early levels of elementary schools (Foley, 2005, Kam, 2002, Kirkpatrick, 2012b). In particular, in Thailand, English has become an essential language for many Thais and has become a de facto working language in some fields (Baker, 2009b, Baker, 2015b). In addition, there is currently a more extensive use of English as a lingua franca (ELF) within this region among people from different linguistic backgrounds (e.g. ELF in ASEAN) (Jenkins, 2006, Kirkpatrick, 2010b, 2011, Seidlhofer, 2004). With these different forms of English use in Asia, it is logical to summarise that the role of English in Asia is rich and complex and, to link to the purpose of this study, the framework of the awareness of GE is seen as practical for this context (see also 3.2.3).

### 3.2.1    English in ASEAN

The abbreviation ASEAN refers to the Association of South-East Asian Nations. It is a community that includes ten Asian countries (i.e. Singapore, Brunei, Thailand, Myanmar, Laos, the Philippines, Cambodia, Indonesia, Malaysia, and Vietnam) that joined together to promote intergovernmental cooperation and facilitate economic integration amongst the members (Crocco and Bunwirat, 2014; Jenkins, 2014). Given that English is a familiar language and is learned and used fundamentally in

all Asian countries, ASEAN has announced that English will be used as the default language to facilitate the participants' mutual understanding (Kirkpatrick, 2010a, Schneider, 2014). At the conference organised by the Ministry of Education (MoE) of Thailand, H.E. Le Luong Min, the Secretary-General of ASEAN noted in his speech that:

> With the diversity in ASEAN reflected in our diverse histories, races, cultures and belief systems, English is an important and indispensable tool to bring our Community closer together … used as the working language of ASEAN, English enables us to interact with other ASEAN colleagues in our formal meetings as well as day-to-day communications. From these interactions, we are able to get to know better our regional neighbours, their interests, their concerns, as well as their dreams and aspirations. Through English, we are raising our awareness of the ASEAN region and, with the many characteristics we share and hold dear, further strengthening our sense of an ASEAN Community (ASEAN Secretariat news, 2013, para.1).

Given the importance of ELF in this community, all the ASEAN countries have prepared their populations to use English to communicate with their fellow communities, including the ASEAN plus 3 countries (i.e. China, Japan, and Korea) (Deerajviset, 2014, Dudzik and Nguyen, 2015, Kanoksilapatham, 2013, Sanonguthai, 2013, Steelyana, 2012). Before the establishment of AEC in 2015, ASEAN governments placed much emphasis on the use of English in governmental, educational, and business activities (Stroupe and Kimura, 2015). This includes Thailand, where the population is more interested in learning English to prepare for the AEC's policy called the 'free flow of skilled labour', according to the government's aim to encourage Thai people to compete with other AEC members and prepare for the broader global markets in the near future (Deerajviset, 2014, Lavankura, 2013)

### 3.2.2 English language teaching in Asia

The considerable increase in the use of English in the current period has made English the first important foreign language in the field of foreign language teaching in Asia. Given that this language has a high impact on educational policies and practices in the Asia-Pacific region, it is generally included as a compulsory subject in the educational curriculum of all Asian countries (Nunan, 2003), and it has primarily been emphasised in all levels of education. Baker (2009b) pointed out that the current emphasis on English has made the field of English language

teaching (ELT) a significant feature of education. Hence, both public and commercial sectors often emphasise this field. In addition, ELT is seen as a critical issue of concern in the government education policies and practices through state schooling, private sector bilingual and multilingual schools, and commercial language schools (ibid, 2009, p.21).

By examining the contents of ELT practices in Asia throughout the past decades, it was found that most of the ELT professionals in this region have embraced the paradigm of teaching developed in Western countries (Mahboob and Tilakaratna, 2012, Wang and Hill, 2011). This has become increasingly and profoundly entrenched in all Asian countries' ELT systems. For example, Kirkpatrick (2006) pointed out some reasons for Asian countries to conform to the exonormative native speaker models. The first reason is that these models have prestige and legitimacy. They have a history and have been codified, and this means that grammars and dictionaries are available for reference for teachers and learners. The second reason is that the ELT materials based on such models are readily available, in particular as many ELT publishers are constantly commissioning new courses and reprinting successful old ones. The third reason relates to the intention of the ministries of education (MoE) around the world who are keen to be seen as providers of the 'best' for their people. By insisting on a native speaker model, they can claim to be upholding standards and providing students with an internationally recognised and intelligible variety of English (ibid, 2006, p.5).

Recently, however, a concern has been raised about the continual use of the NESs' models in Asian countries. Some ELT scholars have claimed that these models are unlikely to be practical and appropriate to the Asian uses of English language. For example, they viewed this kind of language education as associated with 'missionisation' and 'modernisation' that has little understanding of the complexities of local language ecologies (Baker, 2008, Zare-ee, 2013). To a certain extent, the education in this sense often serves as a vehicle for the knowledge flow from Western developed countries to the rest of the world, and it leads to the ignorance of the real needs of the population or local patterns of socialisation (Mühlhäusler, 2002). Wang and Hill (2011) also explained, given that the varieties and the uses of English differ from place to place, that the assumption of applying one country's model to another country seems to be unreliable and impractical. This is particularly apparent when language teaching is influenced by many factors ranging from the macro political and cultural environments of a country or region to the micro perceptions and practices of individual learners and teachers (ibid,

p.206). All these considerations have led to a challenge to the legitimacy of the Western paradigm of English language teaching in the Asian region.

### 3.2.3 ELT models from the GE perspective for Asian ELT

Prior to demonstrating different aspects of the ELT model based on the GE perspective, it may be important to note some similarities and differences between GE and communicative language teaching (CLT), which is widely employed in Asian ELT practices (Nunan, 2003, Baker, 2009b). In terms of similarities, CLT and GE give priority to meanings and rules of use rather than to grammar and rules of structures. Wang (2011) described that CLT was established to deal with problems of traditional mothods of teaching which mainly emphasise on grammatical rules in teaching and learning (e.g. grammar-translation method). In the same manner, according to D'Angelo (2011), the GE perspective (e.g. World Englishes: WEs) looks at the sociolinguistic reality of English based on descriptive rather than prescriptive linguistics/grammar. Additionally, based what explained above, the CLT and GE approaches thus motivate students to improve their ability of using language by themselves since they emphasise more on fluency than on accuracy. In other words, they facilitate students to develop a broader fluency and ability to talk on a range of educated topics important in a globalized world, rather than be overly concerned with accuracy (Widdowson, 2014)

Focusing on their differences, for instance, although CLT and GE are claimed to be open to accepting non-standard forms produced by ESL/EFL students, the CLT is very much oriented to NESs' norms and models (Baker, 2009a, Nunan, 2003). This means, while the GE approach supports students' opportunity to present their local and cultural knowledge through their use of language (D'Angelo, 2011, 2016), the CLT approach generally disregards any benefit for students of transferring knowledge from their L1 to the L2 (Bax, 2003, Llurda, 2017, Kumaravadivelu, 2003). More precisely, some approaches of the CLT, such as task-based learning for beginners (one form of CLT) which "DON'T ban mother tongue use but encourage attempts to use the target language" (Willis, 1996, p.130), may indirectly discourage any presence in the class of the students' L1 and culture, given that the CLT class is intended to reproduce a monolingual native speaker environment (Bax, 2003, Wu, 2008). For instance, Wu (2008) pointed out that, in teaching English based on the CLT approach, the CLT practitioners often think that the less the L1 is used in the classroom means the better the teaching (p.51). Moreover, although the CLT concerns students' need to communicate in English which means

grammatical rules are not of great concern (Nunan, 2001), it still has implicit or 'hidden' goals of introducing language tests based on ideologies of NESs. This means the NESs' phonological and lexical rules are counted rather than on realities of language use (Shohamy, 2017). This is in contrast to some approaches of GE (e.g. ELF) which are claimed to be beyond the so-called standard varieties and friendly to non-native English learners. This is because their focus on language assessment is on the ways in which English is used for different purposes in different kinds of multilingual settings rather than on the reproduction of monolingual English native speaker norms and practices (Jenkins and Leung, 2017).

According to the above information concerning the complexity and diversity of English in Asia, as well as the drawbacks of CLT, which is still pervasive in the Asian ELT practices, this study aims to introduce the ELT models based on the GE perspective. This is because this perspective views English as a language that has gone beyond the general description of post-colonial and institutionalised varieties, and is being defined according to the linguistic diversity realised by the global users (Ates et al., 2015, Kubota and Ward, 2000, Kachru and Nelson, 2006). To a certain extent, the GE perspective is supportive of teaching and learning English in parallel with the current situations of English use in relation to both local and global contexts. In the following sections, different aspects of ELT from the GE perspective are presented, including pedagogical practices, teaching materials, testing and assessment, and teacher education.

### 3.2.3.1 Pedagogical practices from the GE perspective

#### 3.2.3.1.1 ELT models concerning ELF, EIL, WEs

Recently, a large number of empirical studies have been conducted to support and suggest the pedagogical implications of GE for current ELT practices. Many of such studies have advocated following the GE perspective to make the ELT practices suited to the current profile of English as a global language. For instance, Baker (2015a), Bowles (2016), and Cogo (2016) suggested focusing on ELF in ELT practices. According to Baker (2015a), ELF is a field of research that challenges the traditional (including national and state) representations of culture. In his study, ELF users who participate in intercultural communicative contexts can draw on, construct, and move between global, national, and local orientations towards cultural characterisations. This implies that the ELT practices may also necessarily include focusing on teaching culture for preparation of complexity in the current period of ELF communication. In the same vein, Bowles (2016) suggested focusing

on various aspects that are relevant to ELF-oriented pedagogy in the current ELT practices. Such aspects include pragmatics, intelligibility, and cultural sensitivity. Bowles claimed that these aspects are essential for raising students' awareness of the complicated communicative process involved in English cross-cultural exchanges (ibid, 2016). Also, Cogo (2016) highlighted that, in the international contexts where English is used as a lingua franca, it is essential to promote a shift from monolithic orientation to a multifaceted perspective that comprises linguistic variation and a more localised approach depending on the teaching context (ibid, 2016, p.10).

As mentioned earlier, the term EIL is still extensively used among some GE scholars, therefore, apart from the ELF-informed pedagogical models presented above, some ELT models concerning EIL practices have been explored. For instance, Giri and Foo (2014) advocated the necessity for a locally-developed pedagogic model which would better suit learners' needs. They supported their argument by examining the effects of the exonormative model in a Japanese context and illustrated several crucial issues connected to teaching EIL in this country. Honna and Takeshita (2014) also regarded the importance of teaching EIL and called for a paradigm shift in ELT due to the global spread of English in Japan. They focused on the linguistic and cultural issues that they found to be practical to encourage students to use English for international communication, according to the results of their research projects (i.e. an Extremely Short Story Competition and an Email Exchange Project).

Regarding the ELT models related to the WEs perspective, Vettorel (2013) proposed the need to include both the WEs- and EFL-informative approaches in English teaching and learning. Her proposal suggested the concept of intercultural awareness in teachers' ELT practices. For example, ELT coursebooks, materials, and classroom activities need to be fruitfully implemented with internationally-oriented educational projects that can prepare students to become effective intercultural communicators in English. Furthermore, Vettorel (2014) outlined the complexity of the multilingual and multicultural reality of English. In this proposal, a number of characteristics of communication in ELF contexts and evidence from studies on the linguistic landscape and communication strategies in the EFL classrooms were used to support teaching practices in accordance with WEs- and ELF-informed pedagogy.

### 3.2.3.1.2   ELT models concerning Asian Englishes

More specifically, an ELT model has been proposed to deal with the complexity of the English in the Asian region. This was the model called 'the Multilingual Model

of ELT' developed in association with ASEAN by Kirkpatrick (2011). Principally, this model aims to raise awareness of the dynamicity of ASEAN Englishes and the use of ELF in multilingual settings in Asia. Kirkpatrick claimed that adopting this multilingual model also implies there are appropriate cultural contents. That is, rather than focusing on American or British culture, this model has included ASEAN cultures through English language (ibid, 2011, p.14).

Also, Kirkpatrick (2011) pointed out that another implication of using the multilingual model is the view that the successful multilingual user of English not only offers a role model for students, but also provides the 'LINGUISTIC model' (original upper case letters) (ibid, p. 221). This means multilingual English teachers (METs) can replace native English teachers (NETs) as the source of linguistic norms for the students. More importantly, based on this model, the use of Asian English by users should not be measured against the NESs but the bilingual or multilingual speakers of English. This is relevant to Thailand, where Baker (2012a) argued that Thai people's use of English language should be measured based on the multilingual perspective rather than the monolingual model of the NESs (see also 3.3.2).

### 3.2.3.2    Teaching material practices from GE perspective

In recent decades, there have been an increasing number of GE studies that aimed to examine whether teachers' teaching materials included the knowledge of GE for students (Caleffi, 2016, Cavalheiro, 2013, Siqueira, 2015, Syrbe and Rose, 2016, Xu, 2013, Yu, 2015). Many of them have reported negative results, which means they found limited teaching materials that attempted to raise the awareness of GE in students (Caleffi, 2016; Siqueira, 2015; Syrbe and Rose, 2016). Given this fact, some implications and suggestions for the further design and publication of ELT materials have been proposed. This includes Cavalheiro (2013) who suggested including references to the current sociolinguistic reality of ELF and Englishes as to speakers, contexts, cultures, and cultural awareness. Furthermore, Yu (2015) claimed that, in order to encourage foreign language teachers to choose a more flexible and multifaceted approach for ELT practices, it may be necessary to scrutinise how and why the ELF perspective is not well integrated into classroom practices. This may shed light on ELF and its role in international communication.

Additionally, recently, Sifakis et al. (2018) listed some of the practical ways to integrate ELF-aware materials or activities into EFL lessons. Such methods include using different websites and apps that allow, among other aspects, text-to-speech

or voice recordings, or collaboration and communication between users. For example, the teachers may ask their students to record their voices and/or create avatars that can speak with different English accents and then share these recordings online among the students in the classroom. Apart from audio-only recording, there are some mobile applications that can be used in the same way (e.g. Audacity, Audioboo, Voice Recorder, or Vocaroo). Sifakis et al. explained that instead of only following textbook listening exercises, these examples facilitate students to access various English varieties/accents as well as gives them the chance to express themselves. This may contribute to a greater linguistic awareness while simultaneously stimulating linguistic production (ibid, p.188).

### 3.2.3.3     Teacher education and teachers' beliefs

To effectively raise the awareness of GE in classrooms, many GE scholars often primarily focused on teachers of English language (Monfared and Khatib, 2018, Llurda et al., 2018, Vettorel and Lopriore, 2017). This may be because, as explained in 1.2.2, teachers are an important group of people who have the power to control classrooms and to interact with students and students' learning outcomes (which can mean their awareness of GE). In addition, previous studies that combined GE issues with the teachers' cognition (e.g. ELF and teachers' awareness) commonly claimed that what the teachers believed in relation to subject matters (in ELT this means English language) would affect their teaching and students' learning. For example, Llurda et al. (2018) explained that teachers' beliefs and convictions about the role and centrality of Standard English in their practice and the orientation of 'error' would to some extent impact the centrality of students' performance. This information tends to confirm the importance of studying teachers and their beliefs on teachers' awareness of GE.

Focusing on how previous GE studies attempted to raise the teachers' awareness of GE, Bayyurt and Sifakis (2015a), for instance, have developed a comprehensive proposal called 'ELF-TEd' (i.e. ELF-aware teacher education) for in-service teacher education to offer a valuable approach to ELF and its pedagogical implications. The preliminary results of their project during 2012–2013 were that their trainee teachers showed awareness of ELF in their group discussions and particularly in their selected teaching lessons that were part of the project. More recently, Bayyurt and Sifakis (2015b) combined the ELF-TEd project with the framework called 'the transformative approach' to raise awareness of ELF in Turkish and Greek pre- and in-service trainee teachers. This project also provided a positive result indicating

that trainee teachers perceived the importance of ELF and aimed to create activities connected to the ELF perspective.

Most recently, as partially discussed in 3.1.2.2, Sifakis and Bayyurt (2017) offered a model called 'The three phases of ELF-aware teacher education' to raise the teachers' awareness of ELF. In this model, the teachers are required to 'expose' (Phase A) themselves to the complexity of today's English-medium communication. In addition, they are required to engage with ELF, EIL, and WEs to gain an insight into the heterogeneous nature of English in order to consider the strengths, weaknesses, and challenges. Then, in Phase B, the teachers have to refer what they have learned from Phase A to their personal-immediate teaching context to engage in a critical way with their own deeper convictions about both the global spread of English (internal critical awareness) and the implications for teaching, learning, assessing, etc. (external critical awareness). Finally, in Phase C, the teachers are prompted to develop instructional activities that combine their understanding of ELF (and EIL and WEs) with the needs and idiosyncrasies of their learners.

### 3.2.3.4    Testing and assessment from GE perspective

Testing and assessment are other aspects on which research from a GE perspective has placed great emphasis. Chopin (2015), for example, discussed two issues concerning English language testing including the 'norms' on which tests are based and the 'factors' that are taken into account when testing language proficiency. In particular, with regard to the testing of English in tertiary study, Chopin suggested moving away from the emphasis on native-based structural form (and accuracy) towards communication and placing more focus on intelligibility and comprehensibility factors as well as accommodation and meaning negotiation (ibid, 2015). Hall (2014) also advocated that, in the current period of English as a global language, there is a necessity to take varieties of English other than NESs' English into consideration as legitimate spoken variations. Furthermore, he called for a change in perspective from testing which emphasises 'Englishing' to one that places more emphasis on what people can do with language rather than on how the language is used. In the same vein, McNamara and Shohamy (2016) claimed that the current form of testing English language proficiency might need to take some issues relating to ELF communication into account. Such issues include ELF and translanguaging, bi- and multilingual/multimodal communication, their manifestations as to competencies, ELF and the overt use of comprehension and communication strategies, as well as the actual impact these issues and ELF can have on testing practices. More recently, Jenkins and Leung (2017) noted that the

assessment of English language in different world locations should pay close attention to the ways in which English is used for different purposes in different kinds of multilingual settings. In other words, the design and development of assessment criteria, procedures, and tasks should take account of local practices and embrace a variety of assessment formats, activities, and reporting instruments that can help sample and reflect learner performance adequately (p.115).

### 3.2.3.5    A summary of the ELT models from GE perspectives

By drawing together all aspects related to the GE-oriented ELT models above, the present study perceives some common themes that tend to be practical and sensible for using and learning English in Asia. For example, all of the aspects place great emphasis on the linguistic and cultural sensitivity in ELF communication that is occurring in the Asian region. Placing this emphasis on the Asian ELT practices may enhance learners' awareness of ELF, which will benefit their further communication opportunities in the region (e.g. ELF communication in ASEAN) or in other situations (e.g. international encounters that include both NESs and NNESs). In addition, the ELT models from the GE perspective often highlight the concept of bilingualism and multilingualism (e.g. Kirkpatrick, 2011, Vettorel, 2014). This is particular to Kirkpatrick's (2011) Multilingual Model for ELT that also emphasises teachers' bilingualism and multilingualism (i.e. multilingual English teachers; METs). To be more precise, the METs model can bring benefit to Asian teachers of English language given that they can replace native English teachers (NETs) as a role model in using English for Asian learners. More importantly, the researcher observes there is a link between this model and the present study, which also aims to highlight the importance of Thai teachers of English whose beliefs about ELT are seen to be essential for Thailand's English language education.

## 3.3    English in Thailand

This section turns its focus to the use of English in Thailand, the target context of the present study. In fact, some infornation related to this section was partially presented in 1.1.1 in order to make a link between research context and research background. More in this section,  according to Baker (2015a), Thailand is different from other ASEAN countries (e.g. Malaysia and Singapore) in the sense that it has never been colonised, thus English in this country has never had an official role (p. 206). Even though the plan to promote English as an official second language has not been successful (Kirkpatrick, 2012d, Draper, 2012), this language is often

regarded as the principal or de facto second language used for some purposes in Thailand. For example, it is frequently used as a compulsory subject in school and in higher education; a medium of instruction in international education programmes; the language of international organisations and conferences (including in ASEAN and ASEAN+3); the language for international business transactions, tourism, the internet, global advertising, science and technology transfer, media (including imported films and music), international safety and international law (Baker, 2015a, Baker, 2009b).

Given the widespread use of English in Thailand, there have been discussions among scholars regarding whether the use of English in this country can be considered a variety of English language. For example, Lim and Gisborne (2011) argued that Thai English could be called a "very much newer" variety, only it has not yet been widely recognised due to its recent emergence as well as lack of exposure and research (p. 7). Also, Hickey (2005) pointed out that Thai English is one of the Asian English varieties that has developed through the formal education realm and the tourism industry. What is interesting about Thai English is that there are matching notions of correct English with Standard English in their speakers' attitudes. This is similar to other Englishes in South-East Asia which emphasise "their closeness to the standard form of English from Britain to the United States" (ibid, 2005, p. 506).

Nevertheless, some researchers argued that the use of English in Thailand is unlikely to be developed as a variety of English. For instance, Butler (2005) mentioned that there is not yet an identifiable variety of Thai English, given that Thailand has been classified as a norm dependent who receives norms of English from other countries. Watkhaolarm (2005) explained that there was little chance of developing English as a variety in Thailand, since Thai people often perceive it to be unnecessary to make English their own in the same way that colonised countries have done. For them, English has always been viewed as the language of outsiders or others. This is in accord with Baker (2015a) who claimed that Thai people have little desire to develop their own standard local version of 'Thai English'. Instead, English may be best characterised as a lingua franca that Thai people use to connect economically, culturally, and politically with the rest of the region and world (ibid, p.207). From Baker's (2015a) perspective, the use and study of the English of Thai people may need to be reconsidered (see more in 3.3.2).

### 3.3.1 English language education in Thailand

English language education in Thailand is as intensive as in other Asian countries. According to Thailand's educational policy, Thai students who graduate from university will have studied English for as many as 15 years (Hayes, 2016) or since Grade 1 of their primary studies (Baker, 2009; Wongsothorn et al., 2002). More precisely, in secondary school, Thai students have to obtain a number of credits of English subjects and have to pass their university entrance exams before the tertiary level of education. In addition to this, in higher level education, Thai students have to enrol for at least 12 credits of English subjects that include 6 credits for general English and 6 credits for academic English or English for specific purposes (Wiriyachitra, 2002). This information confirms that the Thai government and the Ministry of Education (MoE) has placed significant importance on students' English language. Thus, during the last few decades, the policy for Thai ELT has included and changed its focus to equip students with the best practices in English language learning.

### 3.3.1.1 Problems of English language education in Thailand

Despite the increase of emphasis on and investment in ELT in Thailand, this has not resulted in increased language proficiency of Thai students (Hayes, 2016). To illustrate, as assessed by the National Institute of Education Testing and by the scores of the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), the English proficiency of Thai students ranked below regional neighbours (e.g. Indonesia and Malaysia), as well as other economic competitors in Asia (e.g. the Philippines and South Korea) (Hayes, 2016, Trakulphadetkrai, 2011). This situation has led to some concerns regarding the appropriateness of the current ELT paradigm employed for Thai students' English language education. For example, some ELT scholars have focused on the appropriateness of teachers and teaching practices (e.g. Noom-ura, 2013, Wiriyachitra, 2002) while others have examined students and their learning (e.g. Khaidzir and Ehsan, 2015, Pawapatcharaudom, 2007).

More importantly, amongst the topics related to Thai ELT's problems, the contents of the English language policy is one of the most common. Many studies focused on this topic have highlighted that Thai ELT has overly conformed to the model of NESs, and has neglected the current profile of English around the world, as well as the use of English in the home country (Baker, 2015a, Buripakdi, 2012, Jindapitak and Teo, 2013b, Snodin and Young, 2015). For example, Snodin and Young (2015) reported that the Thai MoE has mainly emphasised the NESs' model. This may be

because they view NESs as the role models who can both enhance Thai students' English language ability and cultural knowledge. Jindapitak (2013) also suggested that Thai ELT relies too much upon the obsolete prototypical or traditional pedagogy of EFL that primarily trains learners to act in accordance with native speakers (p.194). Baker's (2015b) empirical study of English in Thailand has additionally confirmed that the NESs' model has influenced the Thai ELT, as it showed that Thai people perceive the NESs' model as the most prestigious model of English and the NESs have greater authority in terms of using and teaching language than local teachers (ibid, 2015b, p.208).

### 3.3.1.2   Negative influences of Thai education policy

As illustrated, the contents of the English language policy in Thailand seems to be overly concerned about the NESs' model. This makes teaching and learning English in this country overlook the reality of English outside the classroom context. In other words, it influences the incongruence of the English practices between inside and outside the classroom (e.g. Baker, 2008, Fitzpatrick, 2011, Hayes, 2010, Kirkpatrick, 2012c).

More importantly, it is logical to state that the Thai MoE's English language policy influences the English language ideology of Thai people. As Thai users of English have long been taught English in accordance with the NESs' model, the different forms of their English exposure reflect the Standard English language ideology (Boriboon, 2011, Jindapitak, 2013). For instance, as presented in Chapter 1, Kaewmala (2011, 2012) found that Thai users of social media have criticised the English mistakes of the former Prime Minister Yingluck and have compared her with the more English-fluent Prime Minister Abhisit (see 1.1.2). Jindapitak and Teo (2013a) also found that their student participants preferred NESs' accents rather than NNESs' accents. Furthermore, from her analysis of 387 responses regarding preferred pronunciation models, Kanoksilapatham (2013b) reported that a large number of her student participants held more favourable attitudes towards the model of native speakers. Specifically, she perceived that students' views differed from the expectations of teachers and academics; thus, she concluded that ELT educators might need to consider these views when making decisions related to national educational plans for English (ibid, p.124-125).

### 3.3.1.3   The MoE's language management for Thai higher education

According to Spolsky (2009), language management means "the explicit and observable effort by someone or some group that has or claims authority over the

participants in the domain to modify their practices or beliefs" (p.4). Linking this with previous sections, this study interprets language management as the action of providing the language education policy of Thailand's MoE, which has an influence (either positively or negatively) on the English language education in most Thai educational institutions. In particular, the Thai higher educational institutions, which is an area of specific interest to this study, have gone through many changes and focuses in accordance with the MoE's language management policy.

For example, the revised English Curriculum released in 1999 has informed the higher education institutes to revise their English curriculum and include the requirement that university students take a minimum of 12 credits (i.e. six credits in general English and the other six credits in English for academic [EAP] or specific purposes [ESP]) (Foley, 2005). Also, in 2002, the government required the universities to use the English language scores from the English Proficiency Test designed by the Ministry of University Affairs as a method to consider students entering the university and to classify them into appropriate levels for English language study (Wiriyachitra, 2002). Furthermore, according to this curriculum, it was perceived that every university student would have to take a National English Proficiency Test before leaving the university (ibid, 2002, p.4).

In terms of English syllabi, for general university students, these were mixed between content-based programmes (e.g. English for Economics and English for Engineering) and more general programmes where no single subject formed the course content (which were often for students who take English language as a major or minor part of their degree programme) (Baker, 2009, p.27). As for English-major students, their English department would decide whether they should take the same compulsory language courses in the general education curriculum as students from other faculties. However, it was a requirement that they must take at least four compulsory English courses, including two foundation courses that focused on integrated language skills and study skills, and another two courses that may be EAP or ESP to develop other English language skills (Wiriyachitra, 2002).

In addition, the government has developed English-medium international programmes for higher education to enhance Thai students' academic and administrative ability to compete in international situations (Baker, 2009b). Given that the country needs to become internationally competitive for an increasingly intercultural global era, the subsequent English curriculum reform in higher education has placed more emphasis on a learner-centred approach to enhance

students' foreign language skills for social and business situations (Hengsadeekul et al., 2010). This action links with the National Education Act (NEA) (1999), which mentioned that Thai students should have global literacy and they should know English and understand cultures of other countries to be qualified as world citizens (Hengsadeekul et al., 2010, NEA, 1999). This action has consequently led to a growing number of universities offering international programmes using English as a medium of instruction (EMI) in the country (Baker, 2009b, Lavankura, 2013, ONEC, 1998). Moreover, the number of EMI programmes is more likely to increase after the participation of Thailand in AEC in 2015, in which English was officially announced as a lingua franca (ELF) among the community participants.

### 3.3.1.4 The discrepancy between the language management policy and ELT practices in Thailand

Unfortunately, the language management policy of the Thai MoE has often gained an unwelcome reputation, particularly for the ineffective implementation of language policy on schools and teachers (Darasawang and Watson Todd, 2012, Darasawang, 2007, Watson Todd, 2005). Watson Todd (2005) claimed that one example of ineffectiveness might be seen when many teachers were reluctant to adopt the policy aims into their practices, although they have demonstrated their awareness and agreement with such policies (see also 1.2.2). Fitzpatrick (2011) extended this issue and linked it with the employment of the 'top-down' policy in Thailand's English language education, as he explained that the English language policy in Thailand is very much top-down in nature and is mainly centralised to the MoE. That is to say, although the MoE aims for the policy to be viewed as one containing a consistent set of ideas and values, such policies are still impractical for the teachers who have to deal with them and, in particular, to do so in a variety of ways that reflect their own beliefs and local context (ibid, 2011, p.51).

In Thai higher education, taking the changes in the English curriculum presented in section 3.3.1.3 as an example, such English language policy may generate some difficulties for English teaching and learning at this level of education. This includes the policy that suggested using the scores of the English tests (e.g. English proficiency test and national English proficiency test) designed by the MoE in selecting, classifying, and testing students' proficiency both before and after their graduation (Wiriyachitra, 2002). For the present study, this action does not seem to be suitable for all universities in the country for a number of reasons, such as the different teaching and learning methods of previous education and expectations of the university where the students wish to study.

In addition to this, some elements emphasised in the MoE's English language policy are seen as impractical. This is particularly the contents relating to the standard forms of the NESs' models which have long been embedded in teaching and learning in Thailand (Boriboon, 2011, Jindapitak, 2013). To a certain extent, this study agrees with previous studies that claimed the use of English in Thailand fits better with the ELF approach, and suggested taking this approach into account for teaching and learning in Thailand (Canagarajah, 2005, Baker and Jarunthawatchai, 2017, Hayes, 2010, Teng and Sinwongsuwat, 2015, Jindapitak and Teo, 2013b). In addition, some researchers have connected the importance of this alternative approach to the issue of the wider opportunity to use ELF in the Asian region and the divergence between the efforts of the Thai MoE and the unfortunate results of the English proficiency of Thai students (Kaur et al., 2016, Yilmaz, 2010). To support the latter issue, Baker (2012a) claimed that the ELF paradigm might be more supportive and appropriate for Thai education. That is because, from the ELF perspective, Thai users of English may be seen as proficient multilingual communicators with their own repertoire of linguistic and communicative resources, rather than being viewed as users of English as an L2 and deficient in comparison to the NESs (ibid, 2012a, p.22). Note that the proposal to employ the perspective of ELF as well as other aspects of GE for Thai ELT is explained in next section.

### 3.3.2    GE-oriented models of English for Thai ELT

The above examination of the English language in general use and in education, as well as in the language policy of Thailand, led this section to examine the ELT models from the GE perspective. As discussed in section 3.2.3, there are four possible aspects of ELT that can take the GE perspective into account in practice. The first aspect involves taking the GE knowledge into contents, approaches, or models for classroom teaching. The suggested contents include teaching various aspects that are important for the current situations using English language. For example, in preparing students for the complexity of ELF communication, teachers may need to emphasise the culture of ELF speakers (Baker, 2015a, Baker, 2015b, Baker, 2012b), pragmatics, intelligibility and cultural sensitivity (Bowles, 2016), and linguistic variation (Cogo, 2016). More importantly, to raise the awareness of Englishes in the Asian region for Thai students, the ELT model called the 'Multilingual Model of ELT' of Kirkpatrick (2011) appears to be appropriate, as this model explicitly relates to the dynamicity of ASEAN Englishes and the use of ELF in multilingual settings.

The second aspect refers to ELT teaching materials. According to recent literature in the field of GE, the current ELT coursebooks should contain the current sociolinguistic reality of ELF and Englishes, as well as types of speakers, contexts, cultures, and culture awareness (Cavalheiro, 2013). The third aspect of ELT that can reflect the knowledge of GE relates to testing and assessment. Previous empirical studies confirmed that testing of the students' language proficiency based on the GE perspective can be done by taking the intelligibility and comprehensibility factors as well as accommodation and meaning negotiation into account. More precisely, testing students of English at the present time should not mainly conform to NESs' norms (Chopin, 2015, Jenkins and Leung, 2017, Shohamy, 2017, McNamara and Shohamy, 2016). In addition, based on the GE perspective, the core content of language assessment should not emphasise how the language is used but rather what people can do with language (i.e. Englishing) (Hall, 2014). This conforms to Baker (2012a) who claimed that rather than assessing and viewing the English use of Thai people as deficient in comparison to the NESs, their English might be better seen as the English of proficient multilingual communicators with their own repertoire of linguistic and communicative resources.

Another method to absorb the knowledge of GE into Thai ELT can be done through teacher education. Punthumasen (2007) claimed that teacher education is vital for upgrading English teachers' use of the language and teaching methods. To train Thai teachers of English to become more aware of GE in their teaching practices, the methods explained in section 3.2.3.3 are practical and suitable. For instance, many recent studies have been conducted to raise teacher trainees' awareness of WEs and ELF, and many of their results have provided positive effects on teachers' awareness of GE, which means that teacher trainees aim to apply the knowledge of GE in their teaching practices after their training (i.e. ELF-TEd and the Three Phases of ELF-Aware Teacher Education) (Sifakis et al., 2018, Llurda et al., 2018, Sifakis, 2017, Sifakis and Bayyurt, 2017).

## 3.4 A summary of literature review chapters

This final section aims to summarise the entire account of the literature review. Firstly, this study perceives a gap between the uses of English in general and in the educational context of Thai society. In general contexts, the use of English by Thai people is more likely to follow the approach of ELF, as they use English more often with other NNESs (i.e. both with other regional NNESs and with people from other non-English speaking countries) than with NESs (Kaur et al., 2016, Yilmaz, 2010).

Chapter 3

However, in the educational context, the focus of the English education of Thai people is often placed on learning English based on the NESs, which mainly concerns NESs' standards or correct forms of language use (Jindapitak and Teo, 2013b, Snodin and Young, 2015). Hence, the present study aims to gain more insights into the situation of ELT in Thailand and to find solutions for the gap mentioned.

Chapter 1 of this study presented essential information related to the negative results of the NESs model in Thai ELT. It portrayed the standard language ideology found among a group of Thai speakers of English language in Thai social media and linked this issue with the government's language policy that has overly conformed to the NESs model. Also, this chapter pointed out the importance of the study of teachers of English language, with the perception that these people are an essential agent of the educational system who connect the ideals of the language policy and the practical teaching and learning practices. Chapter 2 further explained and conceptualised teachers' beliefs which are perceived to be important for teachers' teaching practices and teachers' awareness of GE. Thus, the literature reviewed in this chapter was relevant to the characterisations of teachers' beliefs, factors influencing beliefs, types of beliefs, the relationship among teachers' beliefs, teaching practices and teachers' awareness of GE, and previous studies on teachers' cognition and GE issues.

Chapter 3, which is the present chapter, aimed to describe the conceptualisation of the awareness of Global Englishes (GE). It began with brief background information about the concept of GE that contributed to outlining its rationale and aims. Then, it presented details relating to the scope of the awareness of GE, which consist of World Englishes (WEs) and English as a Lingua Franca (ELF). Furthermore, it discussed English in the general and educational context of Asia and, in particular, Thailand, the target research setting where it is perceived to be practical to follow the framework of GE. In this section, the researcher presented in-depth details about English in Thailand and showed how the awareness of GE is relevant and practical for the situation of English use in this country, as well as proposed models for ELT from different empirical GE studies and perspectives.

In summary, by drawing together all of the information from all of the chapters, the researcher perceived this study has been worthwhile for several reasons. Firstly, this study serves well the purposes and perspectives of research both in the field of teachers' cognition and Global Englishes. For the field of teachers' beliefs, this study maintains that the purpose of understanding teachers' beliefs is to improve

teaching practices. Meanwhile, it also provides information that is important for the field of teacher education and education policy (from the teachers' perspective). Also, it is believed that the results of this study can serve the field of Global Englishes that is in need of more empirical and descriptive works relating to GE perspectives and ELT. For example, Seidlhofer (2004) claimed that research into ELF needs more representative works from different contexts of use including lingua franca settings (p.215).

Secondly, although there were a number of previous research studies that have included the study of teachers' cognition (i.e. beliefs, attitudes, perspectives) in relation to GE issues (i.e. ELF and WEs) (e.g. Jenkins, 2007, Sougari and Faltzi, 2015, Young and Walsh, 2010, SoruÇ, 2015, Chiorean, 2016), only a small number of them have addressed this research topic deeply, in detail. Many studies mainly employed questionnaires as the core method and used the data from this instrument to explain teachers and their teaching. This study considers this to be impractical and insufficient to draw conclusions on the issue of teachers' cognition in association with their practices. Thus, to bridge the gap of previous studies, this study aims to employ different research instruments (e.g. interviews, focus groups, and observations) to study teacher participants' given information (i.e. teachers' beliefs) and to connect this to what actually occurs in their classroom (i.e. teaching practices). This is examined in Chapter 4.

# Chapter 4  Research methodology

Previous chapters provided specific information that was essential for the development of the theoretical framework for this study. Chapter 2 reviewed theories of teachers' beliefs, explaining the theoretical basis including contents and constructs of beliefs, factors influencing beliefs, as well as impacts of teachers' beliefs on English language teaching (ELT) practices. Chapter 3 highlighted the importance of the awareness of Global Englishes (GE), discussing the change of status and use of English, both in general and in education, in Asia and Thailand, and suggesting implementation of the framework of GE into their ELT practices. This chapter moves on to the research design of the present study. It firstly summarises the aims and research questions. Then, the overall methodology is discussed. Finally, it ends with a brief outline of the limitations of the study.

## 4.1    Research aims and questions

This study had three research aims. First, it aimed to explore the beliefs about ELT of Thai university teachers of English language to understand what they meant by English language, as well as teaching English, both in general and specifically. Second, it sought to investigate the awareness of GE of the same group of teachers to understand to what extent they were aware of the global phenomenon of English language use. Finally, it investigated the relationship among teachers' beliefs, teachers' practices, and awareness of GE to investigate whether they were influential on each other in ELT classrooms. The following research questions guided the present study:

1. What are the beliefs of Thai teachers of English language about ELT?

    1.1 What are the beliefs about English language?

    1.2 What are the beliefs about English language teaching in relation to the NESs' norms?

    1.3 What are the beliefs about English language teaching in relation to the GE perspective?

    1.4 What are the factors influencing teachers' beliefs about ELT?

2. What is/are the relationship(s) among teachers' practices, their beliefs about ELT, and awareness of GE?

    2.1 What are the patterns of teachers' teaching practices ?

2.2 How can teachers' beliefs about ELT, awareness of GE, and teaching practices influence each other?

## 4.2    Qualitative research method

This study employed the qualitative research method for a number of reasons. Firstly, in comparison with the quantitative research method, this method is better able to deal with complex issues (e.g. individual beliefs, behaviours, and awareness) and the relationship among such issues. For example, Snape and Spencer (2003) claimed that the use of the quantitative research instrument (e.g. surveys) might provide a broad view of general teachers' attitudes, but to understand them it is necessary to uncover how those opinions and attitudes developed in the subjects. In this respect, qualitative data is beneficial for examining the 'what' and 'how' of a participant's attitude (ibid, 2003). Linking with the present study, which also used the survey as one of the research methods, data from this instrument would only provide background information about the teacher participants and a surface understanding of their beliefs and awareness of GE (see more in 5.1). Therefore, to gain greater insight, the researcher had to employ qualitative research instruments (i.e. interview, observation, focus-group interview, and document analysis).

Secondly, the qualitative research method enabled the present study to examine the world as it currently exists (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005, Weekly, 2015). Hence, with its naturalistic and interpretative nature, the researcher was able to explore and to understand the meaning which people attach to phenomena (i.e. beliefs, awareness, practices) within their social world (Snape and Spencer, 2003). This was particularly relevant as the primary aim of the present study was to study teachers' beliefs and their awareness of GE within their working practices and social lives.

Furthermore, the exploratory nature of this research method was useful for the present study. Denscombe (2014) claimed that qualitative researchers could keep an open mind and treat the research process as a voyage of discovery. This openness was reflected in many aspects of the present study, including the research questions as well as the data that was produced and the themes that emerged from the data. For example, in each of the individual interview sessions and focus groups, the researcher was open to new themes that emerged from the participants' responses. Also, similar to Weekly (2015), the qualitative research

method allowed the present study to discover more about the participants, although the researcher had some ideas about his teacher participants' background information from his working experience in the same department. However, there were a number of issues for which the researcher had to discover more about his participants, for example, their education and life experiences, which seemed to be essential for their teaching belief formation and implementation.

## 4.3 Research setting

As also explained in 1.1, there were a number of reasons to select Thailand as the target context for the study. Firstly, it was one of the countries that could provide a setting typical of increasing numbers of expanding circle countries, where English was spoken widely within the context (Wongsothorn et al., 2002, Baker, 2013). This included when Thai people use English both as an EFL for their communication with NESs and as an ELF with other NNESs within the context (see also 1.1.1 and 3.3). Secondly, given this fact, the present study perceived a need for Thailand to take this issue into account when teaching and learning English, in order to prepare Thai students for the complexity and diversity of the English language for the benefit of their future careers. Particularly for students in higher education, Ploywattanawong and Trakulkasemsuk (2014) suggested Thai education sectors consider the fact that Thailand is moving towards a more complex community where ELF is a crucial component (e.g. Association of Southeast Asian Nations; ASEAN). This is to say, the emphasis on native Standard English skills should be shifted to the essential skill of non-native Standard English adjustability (ibid, 2014, p. 154).

### 4.3.1 The setting for the fieldwork

The fieldwork of this study took place at a university in northern Thailand during mid-January and mid-June 2017. It was a public university containing over 20,000 students within 13 schools. Moreover, recently, when Thailand participated in the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC), this university provided the opportunity for students from other member countries to go to study there in a student-exchange project. Therefore, at present, a significant number of students of this university include those from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds (The Government Public Relations, 2014, Khamyang, 2016).

In addition, this university was chosen with the aim of reflecting different points of view of research on teachers' beliefs and GE in Thailand, which have mostly been

undertaken in the large urban provinces, such as Bangkok and its perimeters (e.g. Baker, 2009b, Punthumasen, 2007, Tayjasanant and Barnard, 2010), or in other contexts that were not close to the target context of the present study (e.g. Fitzpatrick, 2011, Hayes, 2008, 2016, Jindapitak and Teo, 2013a). Another reason to select this university was related to the researcher's previous position as a teacher in the department of English language, which made it possible to obtain permission to conduct the research and to gain convenient access to the participants and insider perspectives and understandings. It was believed that using only this university made it possible to explore the situation in depth through different research instruments over an extended period, which best met the aims of this study (see more below).

## 4.4 Data collection procedure

### 4.4.1 Research participants and selection procedures

The target participants of this study were 10 Thai university teachers of English language. They were selected from the total number of 33 teachers who were teaching in the academic year 2016–2017 at the target university. This study focused on teachers rather than students because teachers play a front-line role in the educational system. Thus, they are influential on designing curricula, teaching materials, and policy (see also 1.2.2). Randall (2013) pointed out that teachers are a central agent in any education system and play a vital role in educational development and reform. Thus, it is essential to increase research relating to teacher education to prepare and educate teachers for further educational development.

Before selecting the target participants from the whole potential population, the researcher had asked all of the 33 teachers to complete a survey to obtain their background information and attitudes towards ELT and GE (see more in 4.4.3.1). Once this information was provided, the 10 teachers were selected by the use of the purposive sampling method. That is, their responses given to the survey mentioned above were used as the criteria to select them as the leading research participants. For example, the teachers who had provided information that reflected knowledge of GE were purposively selected to narrate their experiences, problems, and thoughts about teaching the English language in the Thai university. It is also important to note that the 10 participants were separated into two groups (i.e. senior and junior teachers) according to their seniority and teaching

experiences as this was convenient for the conduct of the focus-group interview (see 4.4.3.3), which was another research instrument of the present study (see the participants' information in Appendix B).

With regard to the purposive sampling method, Patton (2015) explained that the logic and power of this sampling lies in its selection of information-rich cases for in-depth study. To be more explicit, information-rich cases are those from which one can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the inquiry, and this information can yield insights and in-depth understanding. Patton further specified that the purposive sampling method is usually applied to qualitative research to accurately select the cases (ibid, 2015, p. 264–265).

## 4.4.2    The researcher's role

As discussed, one of the reasons to select this research setting was the researcher's familiarity with it. He had been in contact with this university for almost 13 years (i.e. 6 years for BA and MA studies and 5 years for teaching experience). This indicated a level of background knowledge about the setting and the participants, which provided convenient access to relevant information about the research setting. Also, a further benefit of the researcher's familiarity with the research setting was that it provided an insider's perspective to the present study, as the researcher's membership of the group or area studied could be argued to be direct and intimate for both the process of data collection and analysis (Dwyer and Buckle, 2009). Dwyer and Buckle also posited that the insider role status frequently allows researchers more rapid and complete acceptance by their participants. Therefore, the participants are typically more open to researchers and there may be a greater depth to the data gathered (ibid, 2009, p.58).

However, it has to be noted that the researcher's familiarity with the participants and the context may cause some disadvantages. Firstly, given some of the participants were former teachers of the researcher (i.e. both in BA and MA classrooms), the process of asking questions and discussing some issues with them may be affected. For instance, as Baker (2008, 2009) pointed out about the Thai culture's norm of seniority, the researcher who took on a corresponding 'junior' role would probably not feel comfortable (e.g. to be shy or reticent) to ask some questions his 'senior' colleagues. As this issue would affect how the data was collected, before leaving for the fieldwork, the researcher had sufficiently excercised his data collection skills including asking, discussing, and moderating for interviews and focus-groups. In addition, he had carefully checked for the

sensitivity, possibility, and clarification of topics and questions. This includes conducting pilot studies with PhD peers, to consult the thesis supervisors and advisors, and to gain approval from the Ethics Committee.

Secondly, the researcher's familiarity with the participants may cause the issue of bias in analysing and interpreting data. To avoid this issue, this study concerned the approach called 'trustworthiness' (Miles et al., 2014, Lincoln and Guba, 1985) when transcribing, analysing, and interpreting the data (see more in 4.5). For instance, the researcher meticulously recorded the research process to demonstrate a clear decision trail and ensured the consistent and transparent interpretation of the data gathered (i.e. dependability). Furthermore, the researcher sent back the transcriptions back to the participants to ensure, as far as possible, that the work's findings were the result of the experiences and ideas of the informants, rather than the characteristics and preferences of the researcher (i.e. confirmability). Lastly, the researcher gave the results to external readers (e.g. supervisors and PhD peers) to gain different perspectives when interpreting data.

### 4.4.3    Research instruments

Five instruments were used to gather data for this study. They included surveys of teachers' background information and attitudes toward ELT and GE, semi-structured interviews, observations, focus groups, and document analysis. These instruments provided different sources of data that were useful for explaining the complex phenomena of teachers' beliefs, awareness of GE, and ELT practices.

### 4.4.3.1    Surveys of teachers' background and attitudes towards ELT and GE

According to Dörnyei and Csizér (2012), the survey is a useful method to collect data from individuals. The basic idea behind this research method is the recognition that the characteristics, opinions, attitudes, and intended behaviours of a large population can be described and analysed by questioning only a fraction of the particular population. For example, the survey of teachers' backgrounds and attitudes towards ELT and GE in this study could inform the researcher about teachers' attitudes towards specific issues in ELT and GE (e.g. different varieties of English) and various background information and biodata from teachers (e.g. facts about their language learning history). In addition, there were other aims for the use of this survey in the present study including to help select the participants based on their given information, and to use this information as a prompt for the interviews, as well as other research instruments.

In developing the survey, the researcher followed the aims of the survey presented above. For instance, as seen in Appendix C, the first part of the survey mainly related to the "teachers' background information" (i.e. educational and professional backgrounds), given that this information helped to select the participants and to answer some research questions (i.e. factors influencing beliefs). This supports literature in the field of teacher education and behavioural studies which confirmed that teachers' backgrounds are essential for teachers' beliefs and teaching practices (e.g. Fives and Buehl, 2012, 2015, Palardy and Rumberger, 2008, Taylor et al., 2003). In addition, as the researcher aimed to use information concerning teachers' attitudes as a prompt for semi-structured interviews and to triangulate data of other instruments, the second and third parts of the survey were devoted to seek for "teachers' attitudes towards ELT and GE". To be more precise, these parts of the surveys were designed to be more specific and relevant to the issue of teachers' beliefs about ELT, ELT teaching practices, and awareness of GE that were core concepts of the present study.

Notably, before using this survey in the main study, the researcher had performed a pilot study and gained feedback from the thesis's supervisor and pilot participants. Their feedbacks systematically helped to shape and change some parts of the survey. For instance, the pilot participants suggested to reduce numbers of questions as they tended to take too much time to complete. In addition, the supervisor suggested to revise some questions because they were quite repetitive and unclear. With these suggestions, the final version of the survey thus contained a total of 15 items (which required only 10 to 15 minutes to complete) and each question had a clear focus and requirement. More importantly, with these suggestions received, it can confirm that the survey had been tested for its potential and sensitivity to be used in this study.

#### 4.4.3.1.1 Survey data collection and analysis

In the first two weeks of the data collection period (16th-27th January 2017), the surveys were given to all 33 Thai teachers of English language who were teaching in the second semester of academic year 2016/17. The research aims as well as the surveys' purposes and their confidentiality were explained to them. In addition, the researcher allowed them to ask for an explanation if they found the survey questions unclear, to reduce issues concerning misinterpretation and misunderstanding.

Regarding the surveys' return rate, the researcher received 28 of all 33 distributed surveys (over 85%) back from the participants. This response rate was perceived to be highly acceptable according to Cohen et al. (2013) and Fogelman (2002). However, the researcher noted that, among the 28 responses, there were only 8 participants who were able to participate in this study. The rest stated at the end of the survey that they were unavailable to provide information for other research instruments including interviews, observations, focus groups, and document analysis. Therefore, the researcher perceived the employment of various research instruments as one of the limitations (see also 8.4) given its influence on the participants' rejection of participation in this study.

Given the limitation above, the researcher had to change from purposive sampling to the convenient sampling procedure, as the target population did not meet certain practical criteria such as easy accessibility, geographical proximity, availability at a given time, or willingness to volunteer (Dörnyei, 2007a). However, in order to achieve the target of 10 participants for the benefit of data sufficiency and data collection convenience (e.g. to conduct focus-groups), the researcher followed-up the teachers who had not sent back their responses and asked if they were still able to participate in the study. The result was that two of them were willing to participate in this study (although they did not send back the surveys), making the final number of the participants ten.

In the survey data analysis, the researcher separated the responses into two parts: teachers' backgrounds (questions 1-6) and teachers' attitudes towards ELT and GE (questions 7 – 14) (see 5.1.2.1 and 5.1.2.2 respectively in chapter 5). Data of these two parts was analysed for numbers and then converted into percentages (Dörnyei, 2007b). In addition, given that the surveys also contained open-ended questions (e.g. teachers' attitudes towards ELT), the data presented thus included qualitative data (see Appendix D). It has to note that, in analysing such qualitative data, the researcher employed the approach of content analysis (Savin-Baden and Major, 2013, Silverman, 2015, Schreier, 2012) and summarised common answers that could be linked with the research focus (i.e. teachers' beliefs about ELT and awareness of GE) (see more about content analysis and coding in interview data analysis below).

### 4.4.3.2    Semi-structured interviews

The interview is one of the most common instruments in qualitative research. The purpose of using this instrument relies on its ability to explore the views,

experiences, beliefs and/or motivations of individuals on specific matters (Rubin and Rubin, 2011, Kvale, 2008). Also, according to Gill et al. (2008), qualitative research that employed interview as a research method are perceived to provide a 'deeper' understanding of social phenomena than would be obtained from purely quantitative methods such as questionnaires or surveys. For example, without using the interview as the main research instrument, it would not have been possible for this study to gather fruitful data relating to teachers' beliefs about ELT and their awareness of GE from other instruments like surveys, observations, focus groups, and document analysis.

To a certain extent, in line with previous studies focusing on teacher cognition (i.e. beliefs, attitudes, perceptions) and teaching practices (e.g. Phipps and Borg, 2009, Gabillon, 2007, Lim, 2016, Kuzborska, 2011, Al-Hasnawi, 2016), interviews were perceived as a suitable data elicitation tool providing a high degree of interaction between the researcher and the participants. Hence, with its nature of 'everyday interaction' that requires researchers to 'seek the particular' (Richards, 2003, p.53), the interview could facilitate qualitative researchers to learn about people's experiences, beliefs, perceptions, and motivations (Richards, 2009, p.196). This fitted well with the focus of the present study, which aimed to understand teachers' beliefs in order to link these with other concepts in their teaching profession including teaching practices and awareness of GE. However, Al-Hasnawi (2016) made a point that, to gain sufficient data from the interviews, the interviewer has to have collaborative skills to encourage the interviewee to provide the richest and fullest account of knowledge about a particular lived experience. This argument stemmed from the fact that good interview data should consist of rich details (e.g. attitudes and beliefs) of the participants who have passed different life events and norms (ibid, 2016, p.63).

In the present study, a type of interview called a semi-structured interview was employed. In comparison with other types of qualitative interviews (e.g. structured and unstructured interview), this type was better able to help the researcher to achieve the research aims. In other words, with its flexible nature, the semi-structured interview allowed different aspects of the same topic to emerge through a sequence of different interview questions (Richards, 2009), and this generated a natural flow for the specific purposes of the present study. Also, by using the semi-structured interview, the data received enabled the present study to understand teachers' beliefs and their awareness through their verbalisation and to what extent these cognitive constructs were influential on each other, as well as on their

instructional practices in classrooms (see questions for semi-structured interviews in Appendix E).

### 4.4.3.2.1    The development of interview guide and pilot study

In the development of the interviews for this study, the researcher adapted the framework for qualitative interviews of Seidman (2006), Seidman (2013) who suggested that, to collect effective interview data, qualitative researchers may have to conduct at least three rounds of interviews as one or two may not be sufficient to explore in-depth data, especially the beliefs and attitudes towards particular topics. In addition, each round of interviews should last no longer than 90 minutes and have a clear and different focus. For example, according to Seidman (2013), the focus of the first interview should be placed on the participants' 'life history', in order to elicit as much biographical information as possible via questions about 'what happened' and 'how'. Thus, the first interview session of this study included the topics that related to the participants' previous teaching experiences. In addition, there were some predetermined questions that were asked to obtain data about ELT belief, which was one of the focuses of this study.

For the second round of interviews, the emphasis was on the 'details of experiences' of the participants. These were concrete details about their current activities and experiences. For this study, this procedure was adapted with the approach of 'problem-centred interviewing' (Scheibelhofer, 2008). The participants were asked to provide information about their current teaching story, which included their subjects and students, before they were asked the questions that related to the topics of 'problems and solutions of ELT in Thailand'. Furthermore, the researcher added some prepared questions involving the current profiles of English in order to investigate their awareness of GE, as well as questions developed from the data received from the first round interviews and the first round of classroom observations. In the third session of the interview, the focus was on the participants' 'reflection on meaning'. To achieve this, the interview was based on the past and present events and activities produced by the participants in the first two interviews (and the first two observations). At this stage, the researcher played a greater role to ask the participants to reflect and clarify their data as well as to provide opinions and evaluations on what happened in the past and what is happening in the present.

It is notable that each of the interviews were aimed to last no longer than 90 minutes, as suggested by Seidman (2013) above, and each was audio-recorded for

the benefit of data analysis and interpretation (Richards, 2009, Rubin and Rubin, 2011). In addition, the language used in the interview was mainly central Thai in order to facilitate the participants' ease at giving information and to reduce misunderstandings between the researcher and the participants (Rubin and Rubin, 2011). Furthermore, prior to conducting the first interview, the researcher had conducted some pilot interviews with PhD peers who were diverse in terms of educational and professional backgrounds to check for the possibility and sensitivity of the interview questions (Gill et al., 2008). Note that the interview data collection (i.e. dates and times) can also be seen in next section and in Appendix B.

### 4.4.3.2.2  Interview data collection

The first round of interviews was conducted during weeks 4 and 5 (6th–17th February 2017) of the 16-week fieldwork. This interview session aimed to gather bibliographical information from each participant via questions related to their English language learning as well as teaching and professional experiences, and to ask follow-up questions arising from the survey of teachers' background and attitudes toward ELT and GE (see 5.1). Also, this session facilitated the researcher to establish a rapport with the participants, as he had a chance to describe details of what was expected from the participants and to allow them to find out more about this study.

The second round of interviews took place during weeks 10 and 11 (20th–31st March 2017). This session was conducted to gain deeper details about teachers' beliefs related to ELT and their perspectives towards GE. Thus, the discussion was more focused on issues concerning English as a foreign language (EFL) in Thailand, English as a subject in Thai education, teaching English to Thai learners, and teaching English in the current globalising world. In addition, some questions for this session were developed from the first interview session described above and from the first classroom observation conducted in weeks 5 and 6 (13th–25th February 2017) in order to connect the participants' ideas, to check for clarification, and to contribute to the RQ2 by asking about the relationship among teachers' practices, their ELT beliefs, and awareness of GE.

The third round of interviews took place during weeks 12 and 14 (3rd–21st April 2017) with the aim to encourage the participants to reflect on their meanings or what they response in the first and second sessions. Therefore, the questions asked in this session were based on the past and present events and activities indicated

by the participants in the first two rounds of interviews, and some were relevant to the data derived from the researcher's first and second classroom observations. Moreover, this session allowed the participants to provide opinions and evaluations of what happened in the past and what is going on in the present, as well as to provide feedback on the research process. Note that the full schedule for the data collection is presented in Appendix B, and examples of questions for each round of interviews are given in Appendix E.

### 4.4.3.2.3 Interview analysis

This study consisted of a total of 30 interviews, or 3 interviews with each of the 10 participants. Each of the interviews was audio recorded, and the average interview length was 45 minutes, or 22 hours and 15 minutes in total. The analytical framework known as Qualitative Content Analysis (QCA) of Schreier (2012) was utilised to analyse the data. The reason for using this framework relied on its ability to deal with textual information gained from different qualitative research instruments (Savin-Baden and Major, 2013, Silverman, 2015, Schreier, 2012), such as transcriptions from the interviews and focus groups. Silverman (2015) regarded QCA as the research method of textual investigation as, under this framework, researchers establish a set of categories and then count the number of instances that fall into each theme. The crucial requirement of QCA is that the themes need to be sufficiently precise to enable different coders to arrive at the same results, or when the same body of material is examined. By doing so, qualitative researchers can increase the 'reliability' of their measures (by ensuring that different researchers use them in the same way) and the 'validity' of their findings (through accurate counts of word use) (ibid, 2015, p. 116–117) (see more about QCA in 4.4.3.2.3.2).

### 4.4.3.2.3.1 The transcribing and translating process for interviews

The first step of the interview analysis was to transcribe the recorded data verbatim. Notably, in the transcriptions, the verbal tics (e.g. ah, um) including the speakers' tone, pacing, timing, and pauses were not transcribed, as the present study placed greater focus on what the participants said, not on the way in which words were said (Bailey, 2008, Savin-Baden and Major, 2013). In fact, this transcription process began immediately after each of the interview sessions. As mentioned in the previous section, the researcher aimed to connect and clarify the participants' ideas in their later interview sessions. By doing so, the researcher was also able to

generate reliability for the data, as the participants had an opportunity to elucidate their ideas and to sum up the points they had made (Creswell and Creswell, 2017).

Another reason to start transcribing at once was to link the transcriptions with the initial notes, which were also made during the interviews. Such notes were not always formal, but they contained some important information from the interviews (e.g. impressions and environmental contexts), so they to some extent helped in reminding the researcher of situational factors that may be important during data analysis. In addition, in the transcriptions, as the focus of the research was on the content of the participants' responses rather than the manner of delivery in the interviews, the researcher decided not to include transcription of prosodic features. Although prosody may affect the interpretation of content, these were not seen to be a significant feature of the data analysis undertaken (Edwards, 1992).

With regard to the translation process, the researcher chose to translate only those parts of the data that were perceived to be relevant to the themes that occurred. Moreover, during this process, the framework called back-translation was applied (Bracken and Barona, 1991, Jones et al., 2001), in which the researcher translated the transcripts from Thai to English and then asked three translators to convert them back to Thai. Then, the researcher compared the translators' Thai versions with his Thai version to check if their meanings were similar or different. It should be noted that two of the translators were the researcher's PhD peers at the University of Southampton and another was a researcher working in Thailand. They were genuinely bilingual, well-knowledgeable about both Thai and English languages, and were familiar with ELT, GE, ELF, and WEs.

### 4.4.3.2.3.2   The coding process for interviews

When the transcription process was complete, the transcriptions were transferred to NVivo 11, a computer software that allowed the researcher to store and to manage the interview data. More importantly, it facilitated the coding process or the process of putting together extracts (across documents) that were related to each other into basins called 'nodes' (Richards, 2014). In addition, in producing codes, the researcher employed two approaches called 'deductive' and 'inductive' coding, or alternatively 'top-down' and 'bottom-up', respectively (Baker, 2009b, Miles et al., 2014). The deductive codes were derived directly from priori theory or literature, while the inductive codes were based on the data (as with grounded theory) (Savin-Baden and Major, 2013).

Regarding the coding framework, as discussed earlier, the researcher applied Schreier's (2012) framework called Qualitative Content Analysis (QCA). The first stage of this framework was 'to select' which material (or interview transcript) to start with. As this study consisted of 30 interview transcripts in total, it seemed difficult for the researcher to analyse them as one group. Therefore, the 30 interview transcripts were separated into 10 sets (i.e. a set consisted of 3 transcripts from each of the 10 participants) and each set was analysed individually to observe the development of each participant's beliefs as well as their connection and contradiction clearly.

Then, the second stage was 'to decide' the main themes for describing the data and for generating sub-themes for each theme. It was in this stage that the concept of deductive codes was applied. These were the codes preconceived by the researcher from the research questions, theory, and literature (Hammersley and Atkinson, 2007, Richards, 2003). The deductive codes were primarily used to help the researcher to avoid a state of confusion caused by overwhelming data. In other words, instead of trying to keep track of everything occurring simultaneously and becoming confused in the process, the researcher selected a set of main themes from RQ1 and RQ2, which included: (1) teachers' beliefs about ELT; (2) factors influencing teachers about ELT; and (3) teachers' awareness of GE. In addition, within the theme of teachers' beliefs about ELT, there were three sub-themes: beliefs about English language, beliefs about ELT in relation to the NESs' norms, and beliefs about ELT in relation to the GE perspective, which were drawn from the RQ1 sub-research questions (see 4.1). However, during the coding process, the researcher was also open to the emergence of codes or themes from the data, based on the inductive coding approach (Miles et al., 2014, Bryman, 2015). By doing so, the researcher could explore a number of unexpected themes and sub-themes which were also significant for this study (see Appendix G). This also helped to ensure that he was not overly occupied by the theoretical framework established before data collection (Hoque et al., 2017).

After the second stage, the researcher had acquired deductive and inductive themes and sub-themes from the transcripts. Next, the third stage was 'to define' what exactly was meant by such themes and sub-themes. This stage aided the researcher to be aware of definitions assigned to each of the themes while coding the data since, if he was not explicit about the definitions, he himself may not remember and may use a theme name incorrectly. This stage also helped to generate reliability for this study because making the meaning of the themes

explicit ensured consistency for the process of data analysis (Schreier, 2012, p.95). The coding book, which consists of names and definitions of each theme and sub-theme, is provided in Appendix G.

The final stage of the QCA framework included 'to revise and expand' the coding frame. Revision meant that the researcher went over the main themes and the sub-themes that were created in structural terms and checked whether there were any substantial overlaps among them. In cases where, for instance, two sub-themes were quite similar, the researcher amalgamated them into one sub-theme. In terms of expanding, this refers to when the researcher expanded the coding frame to include themes and sub-themes emerging from the previous set of transcripts to fit with another set. As the study consisted of 10 sets of interview transcripts, each set comprising three transcripts, the researcher had to repeat each of the QCA steps with all 10 sets. Once the researcher had gone through the final set of transcripts from the last participant's interviews, the first version of the coding frame was complete. At this stage, it was important for the researcher to combine the 10 sets of transcripts together, in order to revise each main theme and sub-theme or to check for any 'loose ends' (Schreier, 2012, p.104-105), and to compile the final version for the benefit of presenting the findings. Note that the final themes and sub-themes are presented in 5.2, and Figure 3 shows steps of this study's coding process based on the QCA framework.

Figure 3  The coding process based on the QCA framework
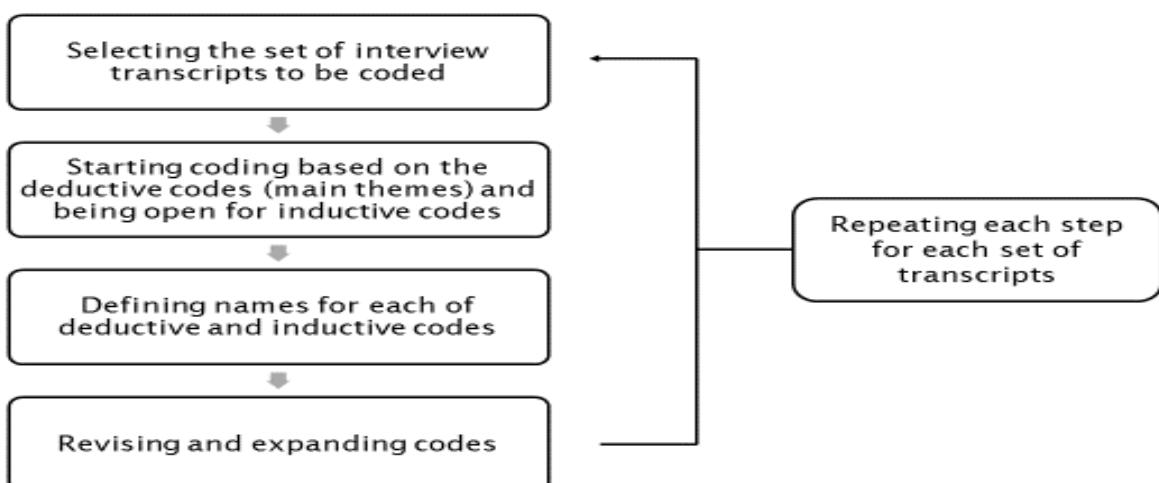
## 4.4.3.3    Focus groups

Another critical research instrument of the present study was the focus-group interview. Although this instrument shares some features with semi-structured interviews, it involves more than merely collecting similar data from many participants at once. The focus-group interview refers to a group discussion on a particular topic organised for research purposes. Generally, it is guided, monitored, and recorded by the researcher who is frequently the moderator or facilitator in the group (Gill et al., 2008, Morgan et al., 1998).

There were a number of reasons to use focus groups as a method for data collection in this study. This included its use as a method to clarify, extend, qualify, or challenge data collected through other methods (e.g. surveys and interviews), and to feedback results to research participants (Bloor et al., 2001). In addition, based on their dynamic nature, focus groups generally require the participants to discuss different topics, which means they would not talk in depth about each prompt; therefore, their discussion would be genuine and substantial (Vaughn et al., 1996). Also, the nature of focus groups not only encourages the participants to express their opinions, but also gives them an opportunity to listen, share, and formulate their ideas (ibid, 1996).

In this study, there were two sessions of focus groups. As explained in 4.4.1, the ten participants were divided into two groups of five participants (senior and junior teachers) based on their teaching experiences and ages. The researcher separated them in this way both for the convenience of data analysis and for the participants' comfort and ease of expressing their opinions with people who shared similar backgrounds (Barbour, 2008; Bloor et al., 2001; Morgan, 1996). This is because, for example, some junior teachers may feel uncomfortable discussing some topics with older teachers due to the issue of seniority, which is one of the Thai culture's norms pointed out by Baker (2008, 2009). In addition, similar to semi-structured interviews, the main language used to communicate between the researcher and participants was central Thai and each focus group was audio-recorded. Also, the focus-group questions (as seen in Appendix H) were checked by the thesis's supervisor and Ethics Committee, as well as tested in pilot sessions with PhD peers (who came from different research fields of English language at the University of Southampton), to check for sensitivity and possibility.

4.4.3.3.1  **Focus-group and group interview data collection**

As mentioned above, the researcher aimed to conduct two sessions of focus groups in this study; one session with a group of five senior teachers and another session with a group of five junior teachers. However, when the two sessions took place, while the group of junior teachers consisted of five participants (T6 – T10), the senior group had only two available participants (T2 and T4) (see Table 3). This made the researcher concerned that 'group interview' would be a more appropriate term for the senior group of teachers which had a limited number of participants (i.e. less than three participants) (Kitzinger and Barbour, 1999, Bloor et al., 2001, Barbour, 2008).

Table 4  List of participants with the date and length of focus group and group interview

| Groups of participants | Participants Attended | Dates of focus groups | Lengths of focus groups |
|---|---|---|---|
| Senior participants | T2, T4 | 24/05/2017 | 34:24 |
| Junior participants | T6, T7, T8, T9, T10 | 01/06/2017 | 56:17 |

In fact, the issue regarding the participants' numbers was not considered to be significant. This is because the researcher's interest in conducting focus groups was not relevant to the numbers, but in their meanings and how perspectives were socially constructed (Barbour, 2008). For example, although the senior group consisted of only two participants which made it limited to receive a broad set data as in the junior group, the researcher could still obtain significant (in-depth) data from their discussion and negotiation. This implied that fewer participants does not mean lower quality of data was received, as reflected by Barbour (2008), who noted that there is no magic number for focus groups and more is not necessarily better (p.59). Additionally, in many early debates to distinguish focus groups and group interviews, the number and size of the focus groups were not significant criteria. Preferably, such discussions had focused more on other elements such as purposes of conducting focus groups, interaction patterns among participants, and the role of the researcher (e.g. Morgan, 1996a, Kitzinger and Barbour, 1999, Barbour, 2008). More importantly, this study followed Morgan (1996a, 1996b) who

claimed most forms of group interviews to be variants of focus groups and defined them as similar methods of collecting data through group discussion or communication on a topic determined by the researcher. Nonetheless, as shown in Table 3, the researcher determined that, given the difference in numbers of the participants attending, the data received from the group interview was, thus, different from the data of the focus group. This means the difference was regarding quantity (i.e. the breadth of data) not quality (i.e. the depth of data).

### 4.4.3.3.2 Focus-group and group interview data analysis

During the transcribing process, similar to the semi-structured interviews, the researcher transcribed all of the data both from the focus group and group interview. By doing so, the researcher not only had the opportunity to learn what the participants expressed thoroughly in detail, but also reduced the risk of missing some significant points (see a transcription of each session in Appendix I). However, for the translation process, the researcher chose to translate only some parts of the data that were perceived to be relevant to themes that occurred (see 6.2.2). In addition, the framework known as 'back-translation' was applied (Bracken and Barona, 1991, Jones et al., 2001), when the researcher's English transcripts were translated back to Thai by external translators. Then, the researcher compared his Thai transcripts with the translators' Thai translation to check for similarity and difference.

Once the transcription process was completed, the transcriptions were transferred to NVivo 11 software to facilitate the coding process. As with the interview data, the adoption of Qualitative Content Analysis (QCA) was useful as it allowed the researcher to stay focused on selected aspects (deductive codes) and, at the same time, to explore and interpret the rich data (inductive codes) (Schreier, 2012) (see more about QCA in 4.4.3.2.2). While coding, some codes emerged but were later categorised together. They were then revised and given definitions to develop the overall coding scheme or so-called coding book, as seen in Appendix J. Finally, the codes explored in the focus group and group interview were compared with the codes found in the interview data, in order to find similar keys and salient topics and to summarise the final themes for the focus group data analysis. It is notable that, given the focus group and group interview did not include questions seeking factors influencing teachers' beliefs (e.g. questions asking about former learning experiences), this was probably why the results disclosed only one central theme about teachers' beliefs about ELT, as seen in 6.2.1 of Chapter 6.

### 4.4.3.4    Classroom observations

Classroom observation also played an essential role in this study. Given its ability to capture classroom events and situations (Barócsi, 2007, Devos, 2014, Creswell, 2013, Hoffman, 2003), classroom observation was perceived to be able to reflect the reality of teachers' teaching practices, which was one of the focuses of this study. Also, the data gained from observations would support other research instruments. For instance, in examining teachers' awareness of GE via semi-structured interviews and focus groups, it was possible for the participants to give answers that they expected the researcher wanted from them and this could generate unreliability for the research. However, in their teaching practices, as the language lessons are often "dynamic and, to some extent, unpredictable … [and] they involve many different participants, and often several different things are happening simultaneously" (Richards and Farrell, 2005, p.85), it seemed difficult for the teacher participants to remain conscious of this issue and to provide expected data to the researcher while being observed. This concurs with Richards and Farrell (2005) who suggested the use of observation for narrowing the gap between one's imagined view of teaching and what actually occurs in the classroom.

For the present study, the framework called 'observation for understanding' of Devos (2014) was employed. In this framework, the classroom observation is mainly used to understand the classroom's dynamics from a non-participant observer's perspective. Devos (2014) pinpointed that this type of observation is often used in the field of second language acquisition (SLA), in particular in action-based research when classroom observation helps researchers to see things that are before their eyes in ways they have not consciously noticed before in the classroom (ibid, 2014). Due to this benefit, this framework was seen as more appropriate than other kinds of observation (e.g. teachers' performance observation). Thus, it helped the researcher to gather information in the classrooms for an understanding of the relationship among teachers' beliefs and other constructs in their classrooms (i.e. teachers' awareness of GE and teachers' teaching practices).

In terms of the focus of observation, the present study used field notes (Fossey et al., 2002, Emerson et al., 2011) to capture classroom discourses that were made by teachers, such as their lesson structures, types of teaching activities, teaching strategies, uses of materials, and uses of language (Richards and Farrell, 2011). All of these focuses informed the researcher about different sources of data that were

used to support other research instruments in the study (see examples of field notes in Appendix K). Also, it is important to note that, in recording classroom observations, this study followed the concept of "real-time observation" of Wallace (2006), meaning that the lessons were "observed and analysed as the teaching/learning actually happens without using any electronic means of recalling the data" (p.106).

### 4.4.3.4.1 Classroom observation data collection

In this study, a total of 30 classroom observations or three observations for each of the 10 participants were conducted. The three observations were held in different periods (i.e. pre-midterm, post-midterm, and pre-final examination) (see schedule in Appendix B). This followed the agenda of the semi-structured interviews, which also consisted of 30 sessions, and each interview session was conducted a week ahead of the observations (see 4.4.3.2.2). The reason for observing only one module of each participant was due to their preference for convenience regarding managing themselves as well as their classroom and students. More importantly, given the limited numbers of students in each of their classes, they suggested observing the class which had largest number.

During the observation process, as explained earlier, the framework called observation for understanding of Devos (2014) was adapted. The structure for this observations focused on the 3P framework (i.e. predicate, perceived party, and participants). To a certain extent, to predicate meant the activity of observing and documenting the classrooms. To observe referred to when the researcher took part in the classrooms without involvement in any activities (i.e. non-participant observation) (Canagarajah, 2006, Cohen et al., 2013, Cohen et al., 2007) and to document dealt with the activity of using field notes to record the classroom situations (see examples of field notes in Appendix K). Regarding the perceived party, this directly involved the participants' classroom discourses or teaching practices, which included their uses of materials, uses of language, teaching strategies, types of teaching activity, as well as their interactions with students (Richards and Farrell, 2011). Thus, these practices of the teachers were the observation scheme for this study. Finally, the participants for the observations refers to the 10 main participants of this study who were observed to examine the relationship among their beliefs about ELT, awareness of GE, and teaching practices.

In addition, it has to be noted that before conducting the main observations the researcher had conducted some pilot observations with two teachers of English language. Given that these two teachers shared some similarities with the main participants (e.g. nationality, age, gender, and workplace), the results received from observing their classrooms could be a reliable indicator to check the observation instruments for the main study (i.e. focuses of observation and field notes). Moreover, as also explained in above section, the researcher did not use any recording methods but the writing of field notes to record observations (i.e. real-time observation). This is because the researcher did not want to reduce the naturalness of the classroom situations as video or other means of recording may do if the researchers who use them are not well-prepared (Dufon, 2002). Thus, the field notes were the main source of data for classroom observation data analysis.

### 4.4.3.4.2   Classroom observation data analysis

Before analysing the field notes, as with the interview and focus group transcripts, the researcher printed out and read and re-read them to familiarise himself with the data. Then, the field notes were transferred into NVivo 11 software and were coded based on the QCA framework (Krippendorff, 2012, Schreier, 2012). This allowed the researcher to code both deductively and inductively. For the deductive coding, the researcher acquired codes from the research questions and theoretical framework related to beliefs about ELT, awareness of GE, and teaching practices. Also, he applied the codes or themes explored in the interview data into his deductive coding. This was because, by doing so, he was not only able to get through the data quicker, but also was able to answer the research question 2 (RQ2), which aimed to examine the relationship among teaching practices, beliefs about ELT, and awareness of GE of each participant. In the inductive coding, the researcher was also open for codes emerging from the observation data, because this inductive data could also help to understand if what teachers discussed in their interviews was related to what they did and believed, as well as to explain differences in alignment that occurred between beliefs and practices (Roehrig et al., 2009).

### 4.4.3.5   Document analysis

The analysis of teachers' documents provided different sources of information for this study. Some researchers have confirmed that teachers' mental constructs including beliefs, perceptions, and attitudes can be explored through the documentary practices in their teaching (e.g. Bateman, 2014, Lauridsen, 2003,

Ferreira, 2014). Bowen (2009) claimed that document analysis is a systematic procedure for reviewing or evaluating documents both printed and electronic materials including computer-based and internet-transmitted versions. In a similar way to other analytical methods in qualitative research, document analysis requires that data be examined and interpreted to elicit meaning, to gain understanding, and to develop empirical knowledge (Rapley, 2007).

In fact, there were some more reasons for analysing teachers' documents in this study. Firstly, given that this research instrument is less time-consuming and less costly than other research methods (Bowen, 2009), it was convenient to collect this type of data. Also, because the heart of document analysis is that it requires data 'selection' instead of data 'collection', it is often the method of choice when the collection of new data is not feasible (ibid, 2009). This was particularly relevant as the researcher aimed to use the data from this instrument to support other research instruments. Another advantage of using document analysis was its lack of obtrusiveness and reactivity. Hence, it was unaffected by the research process, and was thus able to counter the concerns that relate to reflexivity (or the lack of it) inherent in other qualitative research methods.

### 4.4.3.5.1  Data collection for document analysis

The teaching materials selected for analysis involved three curricula related to an English language programme, syllabuses of six English courses, and two online English courses of a Thai MOOC (i.e. Massive Open Online Course) called 'Explorative English' and 'Ready English'. These documents were produced (or partly produced) and used in teaching practices by many of the participants of this study. For example, some of the participants (e.g. T1, T3, T4, and T8) were curriculum directors who designed and approved the curriculum for different degrees (including BA, MA, and PhD in English) of the department of English language. Also, many of them had composed syllabuses for different courses that are currently being used in teaching students both from English and non-English majors as well as students from different levels of study. Regarding the two online courses in the Thai MOOC, some junior participants (T6 - T10) mentioned that they were assigned by their university to create online courses to support the current trend of electronic learning (E-learning). These courses were available not only for students in their university, but also for general people who want to improve their English language via accessing the websites of Thai MOOC and YouTube. It should be noted that these teachers' documents were in an English version, so it was not necessary to translate them. Examples of the documents are given in Appendix M.

There were some significant reasons to pick these teaching documents to study. First, as stated above, these documents were designed, composed, approved, and used by the participants, which means their contents could to some extent present teachers' beliefs about ELT. Second, studying these documents helped to gain different viewpoints about the teaching practices of the participants. In other words, as also explained earlier, the data from these documents could support the observation data which illustrated only one side of the participants' teaching practices (i.e. the observation of only one module of the participants). Thus, analysing these documents helped to reduce the possibility of losing some significant data. It can also explain the relationship among beliefs, practices, and awareness of GE. For instance, the researcher had questioned why T4, who frequently presented the awareness of GE in her interview responses, did not present this kind of awareness in her ESP classroom. This led to the discovery, after the analysis of T4's documents, that her teaching practices were also congruent with her beliefs about ELT. However, in some circumstances, the implementation of her beliefs in classrooms was influenced by some factors including types of courses, students' disciplines, and language proficiency. The case of T4 can be seen in more detail in 6.3.1. The issue concerning factors influencing belief implementation is discussed in the discussion chapter.

### 4.4.3.5.2    The analysis of teachers' documents

To analyse the curricula and course syllabuses, similar to textual data received from other qualitative research instruments (e.g. interviews and focus groups), the researcher initially transferred them into NVivo 11 and coded them according to the QCA framework (Schreier, 2012, Krippendorff, 2012). During the coding process, the deductive codes gained from the research questions and theoretical framework were employed to code the data from these documents, while at the same time the inductive codes were allowed to emerge. This process was similar to the observation data coding (see 4.4.3.4.2) when the deductive codes helped the researcher to examine whether the interview results were confirmed or challenged by the teaching document data, and the inductive codes explained differences in alignment that occurred between beliefs and practices (Roehrig et al., 2009).

With regard to the two online courses in the Thai MOOC, the researcher chose to analyse only some units which were designed and presented on the YouTube website by the participants of this study (e.g. T7, T9 and T10). To examine the YouTube videos, the researcher separated them into segments, repeatedly watched them, and took essential notes that related to the participants' beliefs about ELT

and awareness of GE. The analytical procedure of the video segments was also the QCA, as Knoblauch et al. (2014) claimed this framework could be applied to code each video segment according to the deductive and inductive coding process.

After the coding process was completed, the final codes which were revised and re-categorised had illustrated two themes; one was beliefs about ELT and another was factors influencing their beliefs. These themes were similar to the themes explored in the interview data, which indicated that the results from the document analysis could be used for the process of triangulation. Also, within these two central themes, a number of sub-themes emerged (see more in 6.4 and in Appendix N).

## 4.5    Reliability and trustworthiness

Joppe (2000) defined the term reliability as " … the extent to which results are consistent over time and an accurate representation of the total population under study … and if the results of a study can be reproduced under a similar methodology, then the research instrument is considered to be reliable" (p.1). From this definition, the researcher perceived reliability as a concept used for testing or evaluating the methodology and results of the research. In addition, Stenbacka (2001) argued that, in fact, the concept of reliability has nothing to do with qualitative research because its concern seems to rely on the measurement and judgement of research quality in the quantitative approach. She added that if a qualitative study is discussed with reliability as a criterion, the consequence is rather that the study is "no good" (p. 552). However, Patton (2002) viewed reliability as one of the factors that qualitative researchers should also be concerned with while conducting their studies, since research quality can confirm to the audience that the research findings are worth their attention.

One of the ways to ensure reliability for the present study was to establish the notion of 'trustworthiness', which basically consisted of four components: credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability (Lincoln and Guba, 1985, 2000). According to Gasson (2004, p.93-98), credibility referred to the idea of internal consistency where the core issue is "how we ensure rigour in the research process and how we communicate to others that we have done so". Transferability referred to the extent to which the reader is able to generalise the findings of a study to his or her own context and addresses the core issue of "how far a researcher may make claims for a general application of their theory". Dependability dealt with the core issue that "the way in which a study is conducted

should be consistent across time, researchers, and analysis techniques". Thus, the process through which findings are derived should be explicit and repeatable as much as possible. Confirmability relied on a degree of neutrality or the extent to which the findings of a study are shaped by the respondents and not researcher's bias, motivation, or interest. Thus, the focus of neutrality shifts from the researcher to the data. In addition, Lincoln and Guba (1985) explained that credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability could replace internal validity, external validity, reliability, and objectivity (p.300).

In addition, to achieve these components, Gasson (2004) suggested some techniques. For example, credibility could be achieved by prolonged engagement with participants and persistent observation in the field. Transferability may be gained when the researcher provided sufficient information about the self (the researcher as the instrument) and the research context, processes, participants, and researcher-participant relationships to enable the reader to decide how the findings may transfer. Dependability may be accomplished through carefully tracking the emerging research design and through keeping an audit trail, that is, a detailed chronology of research activities and processes; influences on the data collection and analysis; emerging themes, categories, or models; and analytic memos. Lastly, confirmability could be achieved when researchers adequately tied together the data, analytical processes, and findings in such a way that the reader is able to confirm the adequacy of the findings.

In addition to the above methods, the present study employed the concept called 'triangulation' to enhance the research's credibility. Galloway (2011) argued that triangulation is not merely achieved by using multiple research methods (e.g. surveys and interviews). This means researchers need to ensure that each method is employed correctly (e.g. to use interviews to extend the surveys' data). Also, the research's credibility could be increased through the use of triangulation of different data sources. This does not mean establishing a more 'accurate' description, but as a strategy that adds rigour, breadth, complexity, richness, and depth to any inquiry (Baker, 2015a, Denzin and Lincoln, 2005).

## 4.6    Risks and limitations

Before leaving for the fieldwork, the researcher submitted documents related to data collection (e.g. research instruments and research protocol) to the Humanities Ethics Committee, and all the documents were approved for their sensitivity and

potential to be used in this study. In addition to the ethical approval issue, to ensure the security and comfort of all the participants who took part in this study, they were all given the opportunity to withdraw their participation in any research activities at any time. Also, as mentioned earlier, their identity was protected by anonymity and confidentiality. In presenting their given data throughout the study, pseudonyms were employed (e.g. Teacher1 = T1 and Teacher 2 = T2).

Regarding the limitations of this study, the issue of generalisability was a concern, as this study employed only a single research setting and a small number of participants. Given this reason, its results were unlikely to be applied or generalised to other contexts and populations. However, it could be confirmed that the results of this study would be useful for further studies through transferability in the field of teachers' beliefs and GE. This means that the results could provide in-depth data of these topics from different points of view through the use of different research instruments.

Another limitation was related to the issue of the researcher-participant relationship. As partially explained in section 4.4.2 and 4.4.2 , the researcher was quite familiar with the setting and especially the participants. This may have caused a problem of bias when interpreting data, although the researcher aimed to employ the concept of external reliability to gain the outsider's perspective towards data interpretation. Also, given that some participants of this study were the researcher's former teachers in BA and MA classrooms, it was possible that the researcher may have had problems asking questions and discussing some specific topics with these participants, both in the individual and focus-group interviews. Nonetheless, the researcher had dealt with this issue by practising his data collection skills (e.g. asking, discussing, and moderating) and had carefully examined the sensitivity and possibility of the topics and questions before the fieldwork with his PhD supervisors and peers as well as with the Ethics Committee (see more about limitations of this study in 8.4).

## 4.7    A summary of the chapter

This chapter discussed all of the information related to the research methodology of the present study. Early sections presented the research aims and questions, which mainly sought to study teachers' beliefs about ELT including factors influencing their belief formation; examine teachers' awareness of Global Englishes and factors related; investigate the relationship among teachers' beliefs, awareness

of Global Englishes, and teaching practices. Then, this chapter presented the rationale for qualitative research and illustrated the research setting which was in Thailand. In this section, the rationale explaining why the present study aimed to collect the data in this context and with this group of participants was also discussed. In the next sections, the researcher presented information related to the data collection procedure, beginning with the research participants, the selection procedures, and the researcher's role. Next, this chapter explained the instruments that were used to gather data (i.e. survey, interview, focus group, observation, and document analysis) and illustrated each instrument's data collection and analysis. In the final section, research reliability and trustworthiness, as well as risks and limitations of the study were described.

# Chapter 5   Findings from surveys and interviews

This chapter aims to illustrate the research findings acquired from two research instruments: surveys of teachers' backgrounds and attitudes towards English language teaching (ELT) and Global Englishes (GE) and semi-structured interviews. The first section of the chapter begins with a presentation of the survey results, which consists of two parts: teachers' background information and teachers' attitudes.  Then, the second section reports the findings from the semi-structured interviews, which was the main research instrument of this study. In this section, there are two parts comprising teachers' beliefs about ELT and factors influencing teachers' beliefs.

## 5.1   Findings from surveys

As described in the methodology chapter (4.4.3.1), this study administered a survey relating to teachers' backgrounds and attitudes toward ELT and GE as the first stage of the research process. The results from this survey had two primary functions. The first was to aid the researcher to select 10 main participants from the total number of 33 Thai teachers of English language teaching in the semester 2/2016-2017 at the target university. The researcher aimed to use the information provided both in terms of backgrounds and attitudes as criteria for the purposive sampling procedure (Patton, 2015). A secondary function was to generate a prompt, based on their responses, for the semi-structured interviews (see 5.2). The following sections illustrate the surveys' results regarding teachers' background information and teachers' attitudes to wards ELT and GE.

### 5.1.1     Teachers' background information (Questions 1–6)

As can be seen in Table 4 below, the results presented different background information of the 28 participants who sent back their survey responses. For example, female respondents outnumbered male teachers with proportions of 64.3% and 35.7%, respectively. Most fell in the age groups 36–40 years (46.4%) and 31–35 years old (28.6%). The survey results also illustrated that over 75% of them held master's degrees and only 25% had doctoral degrees. In addition, the majority of them had 6–10 years of teaching experience (53.6%), followed by 1–5 years (25%), 10–15 years (17.8%), and over 16 years (3.6%). Finally, among these 28 participants, almost half of them (46.5%) had experience in English-speaking

countries, either in English as a second language (ESL) countries or English as a native (ENL) countries (e.g. master and doctoral studies, or short-term visiting). It is notable that this information was essential, as the researcher discovered its relationship with the participants' expressions of their attitudes towards ELT and GE in the next session and their beliefs in the interview results (see 5.2). For example, many of them linked their beliefs about ELT with their master's and doctoral study experiences both in the surveys and interviews.

Table 5  Results of teachers' background information

| Background information | | Number (N = 28) | Percentage (%) |
|---|---|---|---|
| Gender | Male | 10 | 35.7 |
| | Female | 18 | 64.3 |
| Age (years) | 25 - 30 | 2 | 7.1 |
| | 31 - 35 | 8 | 28.6 |
| | 36 - 40 | 13 | 46.4 |
| | 41 - 45 | 4 | 14.3 |
| | 50 + | 1 | 3.6 |
| Level of education | Master degree | 21 | 75 |
| | Doctoral degree | 7 | 25 |
| Teaching experience (years) | 1 - 5 | 7 | 25 |
| | 6 - 10 | 15 | 53.6 |
| | 11 - 15 | 5 | 17.8 |
| | 16 + | 1 | 3.6 |
| Experience in English speaking country | Yes | 13 | 46.4 |
| | No | 15 | 53.6 |
| | 11 - 15 | 5 | 17.8 |
| | 16 + | 1 | 3.6 |
| Experience in English speaking country | Yes | 13 | 46.4 |
| | No | 15 | 53.6 |

Chapter 5

## 5.1.2 Teachers' attitudes towards ELT and GE (Questions 7-14)

The results concerning teachers' attitudes towards ELT and GE of the 28 participants were complicated. This is because they all expressed attitudes that were contradictory and inconsistent, as similarly found in previous attitudinal studies related to GE (e.g. Liu, 2016, Fang, 2015, Jenkins, 2005a) (see 2.4). For example, when the surveys asked about "what should be focused on in teaching English to Thai students?" (see Appendix D, question 7), the results presented that 'grammar' and 'accuracy' were rated to be highly important in teaching English to Thai students (90% and 82.1% respectively). However, at the same time, it was explored that aspects like 'fluency' and 'communicative competence' were also considered to be highly essential in the Thai classrooms (81.4% and 79.2% respectively). This result seemed contradictory given that, based on the perspective of GE, to emphasise the fluency and communicative competence more effectively in classrooms, the importance of grammatical rules and accuracy may need to be reduced (Doiz et al., 2011, Canagarajah, 2007, House, 2003).

In addition, the contradiction in the teachers' attitudes was found when the participants discussed teachers of English language and teaching materials (see questions 8 and 9 in Appendix D). For instance, when they were asked whether they agree with the statement saying "native English teachers (NETs) can better improve Thai students' English ability", more than half of them (53.6%) selected 'both' which meant they both agreed and disagreed with the statement. Some of them explained that to study with NETs, Thai students may acquire correct/standard pronunciations and accents; however, non-native English teachers (NNETs) including Thai teachers may be more able to explain some contents of English (e.g. in Thai language) when students ask for explanation in details. Moreover, when the participants answered the question asking about "where should teaching and learning materials come from (either native countries or non-native countries of English)?", the result was similar because over a half of them (57.1%) selected 'both' which meant teaching materials should come from both contexts. Interestingly enough, to this result, one of the participants argued that teaching English to Thai students should integrate both standardised and localised approach of English language in order to facilitate students' communication in the current period.

Similarly to above data, the results concerning teachers' attitudes towards GE also showed some contradictions, in particular their attitudes towards accents and varieties of English or World English (WEs) (see questions 10 and 11). For instance,

when they expressed their attitudes towards the Thai accent in English language, many of them (68.9%) claimed this accent to be both 'acceptable' and 'unacceptable'. To illustrate, although they viewed the Thai accent as 'unique' and 'easy' to understand, they argued it as 'unpleasant' and thus suggested that Thai people should improve their accent to be like native English speakers (NESs). In terms of attitudes towards WEs, despite seeing WEs as a cause of learners' confusion (i.e. which English should be followed), they simultaneously claimed WEs to be an idea that would make their learners more confident and motivated to use English, because they do not have to be too concerned about accent or pronunciation based on the NESs' norms.

With regard to the teachers' attitudes towards English as a lingua franca (ELF), however, the results were different (see questions 12 and 13). Given the limited number of participants who had a good understanding of ELF (i.e. only 11 of all 28 participants or 39.3%), the results did not provide sufficient details of, or contradictions in, attitudes as was apparent in their attitudes towards ELT and WEs presented above. Furthermore, some of them expressed misunderstandings about ELF, explaining that this concept relies heavily on NESs and this group of English speakers needs to be consulted to promote the concept of ELF effectively in Thai classrooms. With this result presenting a lack of ELF awareness in Thai ELT, it seems therefore logical to support Baker (2015b) who pointed out that Thai ELT has not seen much influence from ELF and multilingual models due to the pervasive influence of NESs' norms (see also 3.1.2).

Finally, it has to be noted that, although the teachers' attitudes towards ELT and GE received from the 28 participants were quite contradictory and inconsistent, the researcher did discover some levels of awareness of GE. For example, in their attitudes towards ELT, they pointed out that the Thai ELT should focus more on aspects like fluency, communicative competence, and intercultural awareness, given that they are essential for the current period when there are more varieties than NESs' English outside the classroom. In addition, in discussing English language teachers and teaching materials, some participants suggested looking at the objectives of teaching and learning English (i.e. subjects and skills) rather than focusing on where the teachers and materials should come from. This means that not all NESs could effectively teach English language and the materials designed by these speakers were not always practical for the Thai context. Furthermore, as can be seen in questions 12 and 13 discussing the the participants' attitudes towards ELF, those who expressed their knowledge of ELF presented how to apply ELF in

Thai classrooms. Lastly, in the final question of the survey (question 14), some of the participants pointed out the importance of raising Thai students' awareness of the use of English in ASEAN, where ELF is used as a contact language, and other countries that have different ways of speaking English.

To summarise, this study administered the surveys of teachers' backgrounds and attitudes towards ELT and GE before collecting data from other research instruments. The purpose of this survey was to facilitate the selection of 10 participants out of a population of 33, although only 28 participants returned their survey, and to generate prompts for semi-structured interviews based on the information supplied. The survey results presented diverse backgrounds and attitudes of the 28 participants, which could be used for both sampling and the interview process. For example, their backgrounds showed that the 28 participants were diverse both in terms of interests and experiences (e.g. education and teaching); however, only 8 out of the 28 participants were available to participate in the main study. Hence, the researcher had to seek two more participants from among those who did not return their surveys to achieve the final target of 10 participants. With regard to the attitudes towards ELT and GE, despite discovering many contradictions in their attitudes, the researcher found that many participants had an awareness of GE, including those who were able to take part in the main study. Therefore, it could be confirmed that the participants who joined the main study were good representatives of the whole population, both in terms of their backgrounds and attitudes towards ELT and GE. Note that more background information of the 10 participants can be seen in Appendix A. Furthermore, Teacher 1 and teacher 2 (henceforth T1 and T2) were the two participants who did not send back their survey, but were still willing to participate, and T3–T10 were the eight participants who returned their surveys.

## 5.2    Findings from semi-structured interviews

As described in the methodology chapter (4.4.3.2), an interview is a type of qualitative research instrument that has the ability to explore beliefs, views, as well as experiences of individuals on specific matters (Rubin and Rubin, 2011, Kvale, 2008). This serves this study's first and second research questions (henceforth RQ1 and RQ2) which asked for teachers' beliefs about ELT, teaching practices, and awareness of GE (see 1.2). The benefit of the interview in terms of exploring the construction and negotiation of meanings in a natural setting (Cohen et al., 2013) would provide a detailed account of their behaviours and beliefs within the contexts

in which they occur and provide data for these RQs. Therefore, in comparison with the surveys of teachers' background information and attitudes toward ELT and GE (see 5.1), the data derived from the interview was seen to be richer and more specific, as the interview allowed the researcher to investigate the participants' beliefs in greater depth and a more natural setting (Cohen et al., 2013, Kvale, 2003).

This section aims to present the interview results in relation to the coding themes and overall established patterns (see the coding process in 4.4.3.2.3.2). Hence, the examples taken from the interviews are used to support the presentation as well as to illustrate the coding patterns and critical incidents, which offer insights into participants' beliefs towards and experiences of teaching the English language. Followings are the final deductive and inductive themes received from the interview data analysis. It should be noted that, at the beginning of coding, the number of codes were expanded under these themes, but they were grouped and reduced later due to apparent overlaps. Also, the researcher removed some irrelevant codes to eliminate the complexity of the data (see also Appendix G).

1. **Teachers' beliefs about ELT** = all teachers' beliefs that relate to teaching English language.
   1.1 **Beliefs about English language** (BEL/ENGL) = teachers' beliefs that relate to the subject matter, which directly means to English language (e.g. ownership, status, function).
   1.2 **Beliefs about ELT in relation to the NESs' norms** (BEL/NESs) = teachers' beliefs about teaching English that conform to the norms of NESs such as to teach pronunciation and accent based on the NESs.
   1.3 **Beliefs about ELT in relation to the GE perspective** (BEL/GE) = teachers' beliefs about teaching English that concern the current profile of English such as language variation and fluidity.

2. **Factors influencing teachers' beliefs about ELT** = all factors that have an influential role in the formation and implementation of teachers' beliefs about ELT.
   2.1 **Internal factors** (FACT/INT) = factors that reside in the teachers' minds, such as other types of teachers' beliefs.
   2.2 **External factors** (FACT/EXT) = factors that reside outside the teachers' minds, or contextual factors like students, contexts, subjects.

Chapter 5

## 5.2.1    Teachers' beliefs about ELT

This theme presents the particpants' beliefs about ELT. With regard to the data collected, as explained above, what the participants believed about ELT could be divided into three sub-themes involving beliefs about English language, beliefs about ELT in relation to the NESs' norms, and beliefs about ELT in relation to the GE perspective. In addition, some codes emerged under these three sub-themes. The following section gives details of each sub-theme, codes, and sub-codes of each theme and examples retrieved from the interview data.

### 5.2.1.1    Beliefs about English language

This sub-theme refers to what the participants in this study believed about the English language, as Hall et al. (2013) regarded the teachers' beliefs about English language as having fundamental implications for the theory and practices of learning and teaching (p.16). With regard to the data received, how the participants constructed their beliefs about English language in this study could be grouped into three groups of codes including:

1. **English language ownership** (BEL/ENGL = OWN) = beliefs about English language that relate to who can own this language.
2. **English language modification and change** (BEL/ENGL = MO) = beliefs about English language that relate to whether English can be modified or changed.
3. **English language status** (BEL/ENGL = STA) = beliefs about English language that relate to the current status of English language.

Concerning the beliefs about English language in relation to language ownership (BEL/ENGL = OWN), the results suggested that when the participants expressed their beliefs about this issue they frequently linked to one of two groups of language speakers whom they thought had the right to own English language including native English speakers (BEL/ENGL = OWN/NESs) or any people who can use or speak English (BEL/ENGL = OWN/ANY). As illustrated in example 5.1 (Chapter 5, example 1), T2 claimed English as the language of NESs because these people are more 'fluent' and have more 'vocabulary knowledge' about English language. In addition to T2, T4 expressed, in example 5.2, that the owners of English should be born with this language, should be proficient in using this language, and should have what T4 called 'genes or genetics' of NESs. This means the person who wants to have language ownership needs to have these qualities.

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Note that the interview excerpts presented below consist of some abbreviations (e.g. T2 = Teacher 2, R = Researcher).

### Example 5.1 (Teacher 2, Interview 1)

**T2:** *... so I think that English is the language of native speakers ... because native speakers have the fluency which makes their spoken language natural. They can also play with English words better than non-native speakers like us.*

### Example 5.2 (Teacher 4, Interview 1)

**R**: *So if they learn the language until they are experts do you think they can claim language ownership?*

**T4**: *This is still debatable. I mean, if they are born with the language or are mixed and have ever lived in the native-speaking countries and they can use the language proficiently like the native speakers or if they have the language heredity we should call them the language owner, because they have the gene in that way of native speakers ...*

On the other hand, there was one participant (T3) who thought that English can belong to anyone who can speak or use it (BEL/ENGL = OWN/ANY). This can be seen in example 5.3 when T3 demonstrated her belief about English language linked with English teaching and researching by NNESs.

### Example 5.3 (Teacher 3, Interview 1)

**R**: *So with the increase in the number of non-native speakers who already outnumber native speakers do you think this will affect the ownership of this language?*

**T3**: *We may need to reconsider this. I think native speakers may no longer be the sole owners of this language because English is used in many different contexts with different status, so anyone who can speak it can take ownership of it. Like, in Thailand, although we are non-native speakers we can even teach this language, so I think it is not what it once was. The world has changed very much. This includes when we solve the problems of English use. It is not only British or Americans who want to conduct research to solve speaking and writing problems, but also those*

*who are non-native speakers. This indicates that English is not the language of a specific group of people.*

Apart from the issue about language ownership, the interview data illustrated that the participants' beliefs about English language have a significant connection with the issue of language modification and change (BEL/ENGL = MO). Apparently, many participants thought that to modify or to change the language to suit communicative purposes are possible and acceptable in current times. These types of beliefs can be seen in example 5.4 by T3 below.

**Example 5.4 (Teacher 3, Interview 1)**

**T3**: *... at present we are not speaking English with only British or Americans, so I think that changes in language should not be called broken language, as a language can be changed if its speakers want to make their communication successful.*

However, when the researcher tried to ask about who can take action to modify the language, the responses of the participants referred back to one of the two groups of English speakers. This is to say, they felt there were two groups of English speakers who could modify the language: NESs and any users of English (BEL/ENGL = MO/NESs and MO/ANY). For example, among the 10 participants, there were many who thought that English language could be modified by any users of English including NNESs (BEL/ENGL = MO/ANY). This included T5, who stated in example 5.5 that any speakers including NNESs could modify the language if they wanted to facilitate convenient communication. Yet, T5 explained that, if they were NNESs, they could modify only some parts of the language (e.g. vocabulary) not the whole structure. This was different from T2, who claimed NESs were the only group of English speakers who can change or modify the language (BEL/ENGL = MO/NESs). T2 also described that although some rules defined by the NESs look impractical, we (as NNESs) have no right to change them and we can only accept them. The example of T2's views can be seen in example 5.6.

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**Example 5.5 (Teacher 5, Interview 1)**

**R**: *I mean who can change or modify the language in your opinion?*

**T5**: *Well, like I said, when the owners of the language can be changed I think that any users can modify the language if they want to, but if they are NNESs they can do so with only some parts of the language; for example, they can create words or mix words, which they can use and understand among their groups, such words may be created to facilitate communication convenience, but in terms of the language structures like subjects, verbs or objects, which were formally defined they cannot change it.*

**Example 5.6 (Teacher 2, Interview 1)**

**T2**: *I think native speakers should be responsible for that and we cannot change the rules defined by them, for example, 'I shall' or 'we shall' that we are always confused about and may find impractical. This includes some other grammatical rules that are defined and used oddly by native speakers like when they count 'are four' but sometimes they use 'is four'. For me, it is still acceptable and we have to accept that we cannot define or change those rules ourselves.*

In addition, from the data analysed, how the participants expressed their beliefs about English language was also relevant to the current status of English language (BEL/ENGL = STA). For instance, T1 was concerned that English is already an international language or EIL (BEL/ENGL = STA/EIL), so different aspects of English (i.e. rules) are different from the past and NESs need to accept this truth. This result links back to the researcher's note in Chapter 3 (see 3.1.2), explaining why this study uses the term EIL as a blanket term of ELF, although the researcher agrees with Jenkins's (2015) claim that EIL is synonymous with ELF. This is because, as also found in this study (see example 5.7 below), EIL is still used among researchers although ELF is more well-known nowadays.

**Example 5.7 (Teacher 1, Interview 1)**

**T1**: *Now English is already an international language, so I think native speakers should adjust themselves and should be aware of this change. It is true that they are the*

> *owners of language but they need to adapt themselves to suit the status of English as an international language.*

**R**: *So, is it time for them to adapt to other groups and accept that English has already changed?*

**T1**: *Yes, they need to accept that it is not pure English. It is the English for communicative purposes; everyone can use it for communication.*

The belief related to the status of English language can also be seen in example 5.8, when T8 claimed English to be used currently not only among or with NESs, but also as a language spoken among NNESs. T8 supported this belief by linking with the uses of English in the AEC (i.e. ASEAN Economic Community) (BEL/ENGL = STA/AEC) and predicted that this use of English in the AEC might establish a new language shortly.

**Example 5.8 (Teacher 8, Interview 1)**

**T8**: *... English has changed. It is increasingly used in any group of people's communication like in the AEC. I think the AEC English may be well established and written. I think in the near future, maybe within 10 years, there may be something new happening especially if English in AEC has new structures or rules.*

### 5.2.1.2    Beliefs about ELT in relation to the NESs' norms

This sub-theme is a group of codes that were most extensive in the interview data. It illustrates a number of the participants' beliefs in relation to the ways the NESs use the language. According to the data, three codes emerged in this sub-theme:

1. **NESs' standard** (BEL/NESs = STAND) = beliefs that concern the NESs' uses of English as a standard for other groups of English speakers, such as the NESs' pronunciation and accent.
2. **NESs' grammar** (BEL/NESs = GRAM) = beliefs that connect grammatical rules defined by NESs with their ways of teaching English to Thai students.
3. **NESs' reliability** (BEL/NESs = RELIA) = beliefs that concern NESs as a group of English speakers that are more reliable in using English than other

groups. Teachers linked this belief to their teaching beliefs as well as beliefs towards native and non-native English teachers.

The first code of this sub-theme referred to when the participants connected their ELT beliefs with the NESs' standard (BEL/NESs = STAND). This includes the standard in terms of language uses like pronunciation and accent. As seen in example 5.9, concerning English language proficiency testing (e.g. IELTS: International English Language Test System) for NNESs who want to migrate to native English-speaking countries, T3 claimed that examiners for such tests should mainly include the NESs, or they should be part of the 'white team' (see bolded text in Example 5.9), because these people live in the context where the language is used and, more importantly, they speak the standard language. T3 also referred to this point and stated that if Thailand had a standard Thai test, native Thai speakers should also be used to test those who want to test their proficiency of the Thai language because the purpose of learning the language is to use it with local people.

**Example 5.9 (Teacher 3, Interview 3)**

**T3**: *Because we are testing English for use in their context, if we use examiners who are not native speakers, or who are not in **the white team**, this may cause problems so we should primarily use native speakers because they live there and they speak the language which is standard there. You may refer to this when our country has a standard Thai test. We may primarily have to use native Thai speakers to test the ability of those test takers … we may have to accept that we have to communicate with people who don't have the same background as us when we go to foreign countries, so our foreign language has to have a standard which the native speakers of such countries understand.*

In addition to T3, T2 claimed in example 5.10 that Thai teachers in the primary and secondary school levels should teach speaking skills to their students based on the NESs' standard, as if their students later reach the university level and speak non-standard English, it can be a problem for their future English communication.

**Example 5.10 (Teacher 2, Interview 1)**

**T2**: *Speaking is one of the common problems when Thai primary and secondary school teachers don't teach standard English based on native speakers or based on the NESs' dictionary. For example, they have to raise their students' awareness of omitting and stressing sounds because we don't have these rules in our language. Teachers, thus, don't focus on these rules and this is what I found ... this problem has long been happenning in English classrooms in Thai education and it has made many students speak non-standard English. I want to see that Thai students who come to the university have spoken correct English since their former schools.*

Moreover, there was one participant (T8) who perceived the NESs' accents as more standard than accents of other groups of English speakers. This, therefore, made him biased against the English accents of those NNETs (including the Filipino teachers teaching in the target university). Hence, T8 claimed that Thai students should be aware of these NNETs' accents and should not follow them, because such accents are not as good as the accents of the NETs. This belief can be seen example 5.11 below.

**Example 5.11 (Teacher 8, Interview 3)**

**T8**: *And if I know that they are not native speakers I will be a bit censorious as they may not be as good as native speakers. I mean they have a potential to be as good as native speakers but if their accents are still interfered with by their first language I don't think we can use their accents as examples for our students. I think that although they are fluent, what we should focus on in teaching and learning is the communication. Do you really think that we should follow their accent? No, I don't think so.*

Another code that emerged in this sub-theme of beliefs related to the NESs' norms was the beliefs that conformed to the NESs' grammatical rules (BEL/NESs = GRAM). The data from the interviews showed that grammar is one of the teaching focuses that many participants wanted to bring to their classrooms to teach their students. This is particularly when they teach writing skills. For instance, in example 5.13 T8 stated that without grammar Thai learners would not write in English properly. However, in speaking classes, the importance of grammar should be reduced to

facilitate students' communication skills. For the researcher, this result seemed to be similar to the results received from the surveys in terms of contradictions in teachers' belief system (see section 5.1).

**Example 5.12 (Teacher 8, Interview 2)**

**R**:    *So, you mean that teachers may not focus on grammar when teaching students?*

**T8**:    *No, some skills such as writing still need grammar. If we don't follow grammatical rules then we cannot write properly, but for speaking the grammar rules may be ignored. I mean we may let our students speak freely about what they want before giving them feedback, which may include grammatical mistakes. Sometimes I don't mind if they mispronounce words, like when they cannot pronounce final sounds such as /-ed/.*

In addition, it was found that some participants constructed their ELT beliefs in relation to the NESs' reliability (BEL/NESs = RELIA). This means they perceived NESs to be more reliable in using and teaching English than NNESs. Therefore, in some events involving English language including international conferences (see T7 in example 5.13) and some English language classrooms (see T9 in example 5.14), they preferred to have native English teachers (NETs) rather than non-native English teachers (NNETs). For instance, in example 5.14, T9 stated that NESs are more reliable because they are born with the English language, which means they have more knowledge about English culture than NNESs. She also argued that although NNESs may have lived in an English-speaking country for an extended period, they still do not have the same appropriate cultural knowledge as the NESs.

**Example 5.13 (Teacher 7, Interview 2)**

**T7**:    *It is my feeling that in researching or teaching English native speakers are more reliable. I mean they can make what is basic more interesting, which is different from when non-native speakers give a presentation as it has less weight. For instance, in a conference if they have key speakers who are native speakers the conference will seem more attractive and reliable than those who invite non-native scholars.*

**Example 5.14 (Teacher 9, Interview 1)**

**T9**: *… and culture I would like to teach this topic of English but I am only a non-native speaker, so I have limited knowledge compared to native teachers. I have a view that the modules relating to English culture need to be taught by the native teachers. They may be unsuccessful if conducted by non-native teachers although they may have stayed for a long time in native English-speaking countries, because they may not know all about this topic.*

### 5.2.1.3    Beliefs about ELT in relation to the GE perspective

This sub-theme aims to present the participants' beliefs related to the GE perspective. In fact, some of the beliefs that emerged in this sub-theme were partially illustrated in the above two sub-themes of beliefs, in order to compare with the beliefs related to the NESs' norms more clearly. This included the beliefs related to the ownership of language (see example 5.3), beliefs about language modification (see examples 5.4 to 5.6), and beliefs about the current status of English (see examples 5.7 and 5.8). However, this section consists of a further number of beliefs that conformed to the GE perspective, and such beliefs could be divided into two codes involving:

1. **Beliefs in relation to World Englishes** (BEL/GE = Wes) = beliefs about ELT that relate to issues of varieties of English.
2. **Beliefs in relation to English as a lingua franca** (BEL/GE = ELF) = beliefs about ELT that relate to ELF issues.

It should be noted that, in some cases, the beliefs in these two themes can overlap since, based on the GE perspective, the concepts of WEs and ELF shared several similarities (see 3.1.2.).

The first code of this theme refers to the teachers' beliefs in relation to World Englishes or WEs (BEL/GE = WEs), or the beliefs towards different varieties of English language. The findings suggested that all the 10 participants' beliefs systems consisted of the beliefs related to WEs either in positive or negative ways (BEL/GE = WEs+/-). In fact, this result may be related to the survey results, in particular when the participants expressed contradictory attitudes towards WEs, such as WEs may either make Thai students confident or confused in using English (see 5.1.2.2). For example, in the case of positive beliefs towards WEs (BEL/GE = WEs+), some participants thought that varieties of English could provide some benefits to the

English language. This included T7 who claimed in example 5.15 that the varieties of English make the language more beautiful (e.g. words from different varieties). T7 also stated that he had a problem listening to British English because his former teachers and teaching methods had forced him to learn only American English since he was young. So, when he became a teacher, he said he tried not to force his students to follow any particular English variety.

**Example 5.15 (Teacher 7, Interview 2)**

**T7**: *If I say that we should follow any particular variety the language won't be that beautiful because it won't have a variation. I think that a beautiful language should have different choices of words from any varieties, or more like what we called synonyms, so if we have to use the language based on a norm or a variety it won't be beautiful and it is a kind of language deprivation. I find it difficult for me to listen to British English or British accents nowadays rather than American accents, because in the past we were forced to use American English in lessons and idioms, but no one protested our language rights at that time. So, I won't force my students to follow any particular variety.*

Another positive belief related to WEs can be seen in examples 5.16 and 5.17 by T6 and T8 when they perceived varieties of English in Asia to be as comprehensive as the native speakers' varieties, although they said that some Asian varieties are somehow strange and difficult to understand. This result is also similar to the results from the surveys, in particular, in example 5.17, when the participants stated that Asian accents of English including the Thai accent are easy to understand but sometimes unpleasant (see 5.1.2.2).

**Example 5.16 (Teacher 6, Interview 2)**

**T6**: *I also think that in Asia, Singaporean, Malaysian, Filipino, and Indian English are also as comprehensive as native speakers' varieties, although their pronunciations are quite odd; for example, the Filipinos and Indians will pronounce some sounds differently from native speakers and Thai speakers of English, such as the sound /P/ because we pronounce it as /Ph/ but the Indians and the Filipinos pronounce /P/.*

**Example 5.17** (Teacher 8, Interview 2)

**T8**: *For other varieties of English in Asia, as I know they are quite good, like my Singaporean friends. They speak very well and are very fluent, although thir accent is sometimes difficult to pick up. I think if we can speak like them it would be good, but our Thai accent is still acceptable. I think it is an acceptable type of English because it is communicable, so other Asian varieties are fine because they can be used in real situations; for example, Indians can speak with native speakers very well although their accent is a bit strange.*

Moreover, the results disclosed that some participants intended to include WEs in their classrooms or aimed to raise their students' awareness of this issue. As illustrated in examples 5.18, 5.19, and 5.20 below by T4, T5, and T7, these participants stated that giving knowledge about varieties of English to students is very important and they aimed to do/had already done so in their classrooms in order to ensure that their students were aware of this issue before they encounter varieties of English outside the classrooms. From this, it may be claimed that these participants' beliefs about WEs are explicit as, according to Leung (2009), when teachers bring cognitive sources (e.g. beliefs about teaching) to the level of awareness, they will become engaged in the reflexive examination of their own beliefs and actions.

**Example 5.18** (Teacher 4, Interview 2)

**R**: *What do you want to see as a difference of teaching English between the past and the present?*

**T4**: *Not very much in terms of grammar but for teaching speaking I want to raise my students' awareness of varieties, especially the English varieties in AEC, which is a trend now. We should put the focus on it and in the next 10 years English of the Mediterranean and Caribbean may be more well-known, which means we need to study their accents but all of these may need to rely on contextual economic and political issues …*

**Example 5.19 (Teacher 5, Interview 2)**

**T5**: *... we need to tell our students about differences such as sounds and pronunciations ... such as the Filipino English sounds like this. I mean because we have Filipino teachers here in our department and sometimes students come to me to complain about the unclear pronunciation of these teachers. I told them something like they need to be more open nowadays and try to tune their ears a bit more, if they don't hear clearly just ask the teachers. Moreover, they need to be prepared for other varieties that they may encounter like German and American English.*

**Example 5.20 (Teacher 7, Interview 2)**

**T7**: *I always tried to address this kind of thing about language varieties. Sometimes we don't need to follow the syllabus. I think it is a responsibility for teachers to find something outside the classroom to teach students. This can also provide knowledge for the teachers because they have to do research about what to bring to classrooms. I see the knowledge about language varieties is a duty of the teacher to provide to students. It is necessary. Although such varieties are not standard, I have taught my students about Singaporean English. I told them that this English usually includes 'la' which we don't see in normal English, but it is used in this English and is communicable among their speakers. I think this is another way of presenting varieties of English.*

Regarding negative beliefs towards WEs (BEL/GE = WEs-), as can be observed in examples 5.16 and 5.17 above by T6 and T8, although many Asian varieties of English are seen to be fluent and comprehensive, they are sometimes challenging to be understood, especially when the speakers' Englishes are influenced by their first language (L1). From this result, it seems that the problem regarding the L1 interference in English communication of NNESs is one of the main sources of the participants' negative beliefs towards WEs (BEL/GE = WEs-). In addition to T6 and T8, T2 argued in example 5.21 that Asian Englishes are incorrect, rural, and non-standard because they are influenced by their L1. Moreover, T2 stated that those who use these Englishes should not be allowed to work as an 'out loud' presenter of English, such as English news reporters (see bolded texts in Example 5.21). Similarly, T1 stated in example 5.22 that he has had difficulty understanding other speakers of English who were not NESs because their English contained sounds or accents from their L1.

**Example 5.21 (Teacher 2, Interview 2)**

**R**:   *What is your view towards varieties of English in Asia in terms of pronunciation and accents?*

**T2**:   *They are incorrect and strange because they are much interfered with by their mother tongues. They can only be users who can communicate in English, and if you ask whether their English is standard or not or if you ask can **they report the news on television – no, I think they can't be allowed to as their sounds are non-standard.***

**Example 5.22 (Teacher 1, Interview 3)**

**R**:   *When you were studying there in the UK did you have any problems with different varieties of English?*

**T1**:   *While I was doing my PhD there, apart from native speakers, I often found it difficult to listen to other international students because their English was interfered by their mother tongues, especially Chinese. They are the most difficult group of speakers to understand. Sometimes I didn't know what they talked about because their accent was interfered by their Chinese mother tongue. The Western-country students or those from the Middle East I didn't have quite the same problems, only Chinese and Japanese.*

Apart from WEs, the second code in this sub-theme of the teachers' beliefs related to the GE perspective relates to English as a lingua franca or ELF (BEL/GE = ELF). In other words, they are the beliefs towards the use of English as a communicative tool among speakers of different L1s. According to the data collected, the participants expressed a number of beliefs that were related to ELF issues. One included negative and positive beliefs towards ELF features (BEL/GE= ELF/FEAT+/-) employed by NNESs such as lexicogrammar, pronunciation, and pragmatics.

Regarding negative beliefs towards ELF features (BEL/GE = ELF/FEAT-), for example, T2 claimed problems of Thai people's lexicogrammar and pronunciation in English as unacceptable and non-standard, and suggested Thai teachers teaching English in early levels of education should focus more on standard English when they teach their students (see example 5.23). Nevertheless, in example 5.24, T6 took problems concerning lexicogrammar and pronunciation of Thai students less seriously (BEL/GE = ELF/FEAT+). T6 referred to this problem in an example of some

Thai speakers (e.g. sellers in tourist attractions) who did not acquire English properly but are successful in their English communication with foreigners coming to travel in the country. In addition to T6, T4 stated in example 5.25 that to focus heavily on students' lexicogrammar and pronunciation seems to be impractical to test their language ability. This means teachers may also need to see other criteria including content and message meaning if they want to test the students' language.

### Example 5.23 (Teacher 2, Interview 2)

**T2**: *Teachers need to tell students about their English speaking problems. What I always see is their mispronunciation, for example, many students don't pronounce some important sounds that can have grammatical meaning like voiced and voiceless consonants and some sounds presenting plurality like /s/ and /es/. If teachers don't focus on this then their students won't know about it, because they didn't learn the correct rules from their primary and secondary schools. Their spoken language will be non-standard because their pronunciation is not similar to NESs or their dictionaries.*

### Example 5.24 (Teacher 6, Interview 3)

**T6**: *... this [ELF] should be applied in teaching our students. Many sellers in different tourist attractions like Pattaya and Phuket can communicate with foreigners successfully, although they didn't study English before. Usually they don't pronounce sounds like /s/ /es/ /th/ correctly but the foreigners can understand them. Also, I can see that they misuse the verb to do when they say she don't, he don't, but they can communicate meanings.*

### Example 5.25 (Teacher 4, Interview 2)

**T4**: *Actually, when we test the speaking proficiency of our students we also need to be concerned about accuracy, but it is not the only single criteria. I mean we need to see their fluency too, because we teach them all the rules about speaking. We need to test it. For example, when they cannot pronounce some difficult sounds like /th/ or final sound /s/ they will get low marks for it, but if the contents or meanings of their messages can be conveyed successfully they will get a high mark for that. What we also need to tell them is that when they mispronounce the meanings of the words can change because it relates to grammar, too.*

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In addition to the issue concerning ELF features, the researcher investigated two participants (T1 and T5) who were concerned that their students could obtain benefits from the process of ELF communication (BEL/GE = ELF/PROC). For instance, T1 noted, in example 5.26, that the process of ELF communication (e.g. focus on meaning) may enhance Thai students' confidence to communicate in English and he aimed to apply this knowledge to facilitate his students' English ability in classrooms. On the same basis, in example 5.27, T5 who viewed ELF to be similar to English as a Specific Purpose (ESP), described that the ELF communication process could be important to her students. T5 also aimed to insert cultural knowledge for her students as she perceived its importance in ELF communication. More importantly, she wanted to change her students' attitudes towards the imperfection of English use among NNESs or ELF speakers.

**Example 5.26 (Teacher 1, Interview 2)**

**T1**:  *I think that ELF may benefit our students' communication. It may increase their confidence to speak because they don't have to be too worried about grammar or pronunciation. When it comes to our context, Thai people will feel more relaxed to communicate in English … in my classroom I think I may tell my students not to follow too many native speakers' rules and accuracy, but what they need to do is to find the way to communicate. This is what I want to reflect. I have found that many Thai students want to communicate but they are too aware of mistakes.*

**Example 5.27 (Teacher 5, Interview 2)**

**T5**:  *I think that ELF is like a way of using English which is a bit specific or maybe we can say it is like ESP. I see it as a trend of English use when its speakers aim to facilitate their communication convenience, so I think it links with ASEAN. Workers like doctors and engineers will have more chance to communicate in English. I think it is good for our context, too, and I started to address this knowledge of ELF including the cultural knowledge of ELF speakers in my class to let my students know that the world has changed and they need to adjust themselves, especially their attitudes towards other non-native speakers who can't make perfect use of English. I want them to not expect too much accuracy when communicating in English or listening to others, otherwise they won't be confident to communicate. I tried to tell them "See! they cannot pronounce clearly but why they can communicate and Thai people like us can do like them as well". I think this will increase their confidence because, as*

*you know, there are many Thai people who underestimate others just because of the imperfection of their English language.*

According to these two participants' beliefs about ELF, it is evident that they, to some extent, understand the concept of ELF. As illustrated, T1 explained that ELF is a way of English communication which is not too strict about grammar or pronunciation like the standard English. T5 stated that ELF is a specific way of using English like ESP, and it aims to facilitate communication convenience among groups of people. What is more important is that these participants presented their intention to apply the knowledge of ELF in their classrooms. This is similar to the beliefs towards WEs (BEL/GE = WEs) above, when some of the participants showed their intention to apply WEs in their classrooms according to their favourable view towards and good understanding about WEs.

In addition, the above example (example 5.27) of T5 presenting the teachers' beliefs related to culture in ELF communication can be extended, given that there were some other participants also concerned about this issue, either in negative or positive directions (BEL/GE = ELF/CUL+/-). For example, in example 5.28 below, T8 stated the negativity about culture that is attached in the Thai use of English called 'Tinglish'. He claimed this English to be incorrect and said it should not be used to teach in classrooms, as Thai students would absorb inappropriate ways of using English and finally miscommunicate with foreigners. T8 additionally linked Tinglish with the use of English of some NNETs who are teaching in Thailand, stating that Thai students could have difficulty understanding their English because they also attached their cultural ideas in their language.

**Example 5.28 (Teacher 8, Interview 3)**

T8: *Have you heard about Tinglish? Thai teachers teach this to students and sometimes they take some Thai concepts to teach their students. When their students communicate with native speakers the native speakers will not understand and may think what are the Thai students trying to say? This is called Tinglish. It connects Thai cultures and thoughts with English, which I think is inappropriate for our students. It can be difficult for them as well if they have to learn with other non-native English speakers who attach their cultural ideas in their English.*

On the other hand, there were some participants who held the view that NNESs can attach their cultural ideas in English and such ideas can be communicated to other speakers of English language in English communication. Believing this led them to promote their students' exposure to the diversity of English in current times, which is in accordance with Galloway and Rose (2013) and Hino (2012) who argued that current teachers of English language should raise students' awareness of linguistic and cultural varieties of ELF. For instance, in example 5.29 by T10, she presented that she would be very excited if she had a chance to teach the modules related to English language and intercultural communication. T10 explained that the contents of these modules could be important for her students as she thought that to better communicate in English with other speakers they need to know some of their cultural backgrounds.

**Example 5.29 (Teacher 10, Interview 3)**

**T10**: *Yeah, I will be so excited if I have that chance to teach the modules about English and culture and intercultural communication.*

**R**: *How will it be so exciting and why do you want to teach it?*

**T10**: *I think the contents would be interesting to our students because you know I have learned this in my master's degree and my teacher taught it in a very practical way. I mean what we say in English like 'how are you' 'are you fine' are all related to culture … I want to teach these kinds of things to our students because I think that language and culture cannot be separated. If we want to speak with some foreigners and understand them well we may need to learn their culture, too, and at the same time, when we speak English our Thai culture can be conveyed, too …*

To summarise, the information provided in this section presented the results (the first theme) of the interview data regarding teachers' beliefs about ELT. Such beliefs could be classified into three main themes: beliefs about English language, beliefs about ELT in relation to the NESs' norms and beliefs about ELT in relation to the GE perspective. The next section moves on to illustrate another theme received from the interview data: factors influencing teachers' beliefs about ELT.

## 5.2.2    Factors influencing teachers, beliefs about ELT

This section demonstrates the second theme of the data received from the interviews. It includes a number of significant factors that were influential on the participants' beliefs in relation to ELT. Regarding the data analysed, such factors could be divided into two primary sub-themes: internal factors (FACT/INT), which means the factors or things that reside in the participants' minds and not at all in the external world except via the effects of the latter on the participants' brains (Schwitzgebel, 2015). Whilst the external factors (FACT/EXT) refer to things residing outside the participants' minds and externally influence the participants. All of the factors were related to different kinds of the participants' experiences such as their early-life experience as well as educational and professional experiences.

### 5.2.2.1    Internal factors

Within this sub-theme of internal factors (FACT/INT), the results disclosed two significant factors: teachers' knowledge (or interest) (FACT/INT = KNOW) and other types of teachers' beliefs (FACT/INT = OTHE). The first type can be alternatively called an 'internalised external factor' or the factor referring to when teachers internalised some knowledge or interest from their experiences into their cognitive system, and such factors affected their beliefs (Tavoletti, 2010, Littlewood, 1984, Zheng, 2015) (see more in 2.2.1.2). As illustrated in example 5.30, T10, who received her interests about pragmatics and discourse analysis from her master's degree study, believed these concepts can be important for Thai students of English and aimed to apply them in her future classrooms.

**Example 5.30 (Teacher 10, Interview 3)**

**R**:    *Any other modules you want to teach?*

**T10**: *Well, I am thinking about Pragmatics and Discourse Analysis because I found these subjects interesting when I studied my MA and my MA thesis was quite relevant to Pragmatic strategies. I think these modules can be important for Thai students because they both deal with language meanings, which can help students to have more success in their communication so I want to teach …*

Apart from the case of T10, the researcher also found that, when some participants applied their knowledge or interest that was received from former education in their researching or teaching, they would construct some beliefs towards such knowledge. In this case, such knowledge may be called 'personal practical knowledge' or the knowledge that has been affirmed as true on the basis of objective proof or consensus of opinion (Kagan, 1992a, Pajares, 1992); therefore, it is influential on teachers' beliefs about teaching. For instance, in example 5.31 below, T4 stated that, after teaching the module namely English as an international language (EIL) inspired by her PhD study experience, she had formed a belief towards EIL and native/non-native English speakers. In fact, T4 declared herself that she was unsure whether to call it her own 'belief' or others' 'knowledge', as she explained that this belief may be acquired from her studying and teaching experiences. For the researcher, this case of T4 clearly supports previous studies which pointed out a difficulty separating knowledge from beliefs, especially the teachers' beliefs that are formed through personal and instructional experiences (e.g. Fives and Buehl, 2012, Murphy and Mason, 2006).

**Example 5.31 (Teacher 4, Interview 3)**

**T4**: *In my PhD study I had a chance to sit in the class English as a World Language and found some disadvantages of English. It opened my new view, so I was interested in this concept at that time ... then I started to apply the knowledge from this course and some more from the conferences that I attended, as well as from the research I conducted, to teach master's degree students ...*

**R**: *Right, how about the issues related to native and non-native speakers, what do you think?*

**T4**: *When I talk about native speakers, I am not sure whether what I taught my students was my own belief or knowledge of individuals I received from my experiences. This is quite difficult to separate you know, because I have been living with it, teaching it, and researching it for a while. Actually, we need to separate our belief from what we teach. I mean we need to think a bit sometimes if what we teach is not similar to what we believe but now I can't really separate my own.*

The second factor found in this sub-theme of internal factors is other kinds of teachers' beliefs (FACT/INT = OTHE). This result supports Fives and Buehl (2012) who claimed that an interaction among different kinds of teachers' beliefs can lead to them to have an influence on each other (see 2.1.2.1.2). In this study, how a belief can affect others can be clearly illustrated in the case of T2, who held a strong positive belief towards standard pronunciation of the NESs. This means, other beliefs of this teacher were influenced by his belief conformed to the NESs' standard language, such as his belief towards Asian varieties of English (BEL/GE = WEs-) in example 5.21 and the belief towards Thai people's lexicogrammar and pronunciation (BEL/GE =ELF/FEAT-) in example 5.23. In addition, this case about beliefs influencing other beliefs links with the concept of core and peripheral beliefs (Green, 1971, Pajares, 1992, Richards et al., 2001) as explained in 2.1.2.1.2.1.

### 5.2.2.2    External factors

As explained in 2.2.2, the external factors are those factors that reside outside the teachers' minds and they relate to different interactional experiences of teachers (e.g. teachers' interaction with colleagues and students). From the data received, the external factors explored in this study could be divided into two groups: factors related to people (FACT/EXT = PEO) and factors related to policy (FACT/EXT = POL). The first group refers to when the teachers' beliefs were influenced by their interaction with different people in their life (e.g. parents, teachers, students, colleagues, students' parents, friends, and other people like NESs), while the second group means that their beliefs were affected by some sources related to policy and regulations in their living and working contexts (e.g. English department policy).

Focusing on the external factors related to people, it was found that during teachers' early-life and educational experiences, many of their beliefs were influenced by their parents (FACT/EXT = PEO/PAR). For example, T7 stated in example 5.32 that his parents tried many ways to encourage him to study the English language and to choose to work as a teacher. More importantly, the results tended to suggest that T7's parents are a source of his positive belief towards NESs, given that they had supported T7 to study and follow NESs since he was young.

**Example 5.32 (Teacher 7, Interview 1)**

**T7**: *The reason why I like English language also relates to my parents. They always supported me to learn English when I was young, though they didn't receive proper education. I mean they were interested in this language and thought that whoever can speak English like native speakers or can communicate with native speakers are smart. My father, especially, asked me to listen to English songs, bought English newspapers for me to read, and sent me to schools consisting of native English teachers to acquire English with them.*

In addition, the findings disclosed that the participants' teachers (FACT/EXT = PEO/TEA) and peers (FACT/EXT = PEO/PEER) in their former schooling were two other groups of external factors. Some of the participants stated clearly that they will or will not conduct their classrooms in the same way as their former teachers for a number of reasons. This included T6 who described in example 5.33 that he has always had a negative attitude towards learning English because his former secondary school teacher punished him for his pronunciation mistakes.

**Example 5.33 (Teacher 6, Interview 3)**

**T6**: *No, at that time I didn't really like English because I was always punished by a teacher because of my mistakes.*

**R**: *What kind of mistakes did you make?*

**T6**: *I often forgot about English consonants and vocabularies and you know he used the blackboard rubber to hit my fingers or the dividers used with the blackboard to hit me and that made me afraid of learning English, but I didn't give up until I became a teacher. I said to myself that I won't do things like this to my own students.*

Regarding the participants' peers (FACT/EXT = PEO/PEER), T10 illustrated her experience in a secondary school when she was teased by her peers because she made mistakes in her oral presentation in front of the classroom. T10 also said that this experience had decreased her self-confidence in speaking the English language with others. Hence, she aimed to tell her own students to be open and tolerant when their peers make English mistakes (see example 5.34).

**Example 5.34 (Teacher 10, Interview 1)**

**T10**: *Because I once made oral mistakes in front of a classroom like I pronounced snack as snake and many of my friends laughed at me very loudly … that made me scared and unconfident performing English speaking in front of them. Since that time I have always raised my students' awareness of this issue, especially when we have presentation sessions. I mean I told them to be more open and tolerant with their peers' mistakes.*

There were two more influential groups of people who also had a substantial impact on the participants' beliefs about ELT. These two groups were their colleagues (FACT/EXT = PEO/COL) and students (FACT/EXT = PEO/STU) in their workplace. Based on the data analysed, some kinds of the participants' beliefs were formed based on their experiences with their colleagues. This included the beliefs in relation to Thai teachers of English language that T9 formed when she spent time with her colleagues. For instance, T9 stated clearly in example 5.35 that many Thai teachers of English do not pay much attention or devote enough time to their students. She additionally said that this meant Thai students encountered learning problems and, due to this, Thai students often formed negative attitudes towards English and their teachers.

**Example 5.35 (Teacher 9, Interview 2)**

**T9**:   *As I know, the modules that included hours for practising mean teachers need to give their students chances to practice English but some of them don't do it … I think their lack of attention and time dedication lead to students' disadvantages … some of my students have told me that their teachers often assigned their work without giving any explanation. I think this is not OK, but many Thai teachers do it. They don't know that their students can have negative attitudes towards English and teachers just because of this.*

Concerning the external factors related to the participants' students (FACT/EXT = PEO/STU), a clear example can be seen in example 5.36 when T4 described her viewpoint towards her students' feedback given after their class named ESP finished. It is clear from the example below that a certain belief about teaching ESP and ESP students were influenced by this group of students.

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**Example 5.36 (Teacher 4, Interview 1)**

**T4**: *It was my experience teaching ESP to IT students. You know, most of them were female students and they were quite poor in English, but I had to follow **the department of English's policy about using English as a medium in instruction**. Ahh, I forgot there were Thai major students, too, in another ESP classroom. After both these two classes finished I received a lot of negative comments from them saying I didn't try to understand them, why I did have to use English mostly … I was quite sad at that time. These students changed some beliefs towards teaching ESP and ESP students; they also made me question if I still want to teach this module.*

Extended from the above example (see bolded texts in example 5.36), another type of external factor explored in the interview data was the teachers' interaction with different policies or regulations (FACT/EXT = POL) in their workplace. As discussed in section 2.2.2.2 of Chapter 2, this kind of external factor can also influence Thai teachers' beliefs related to ELT (Fitzpatrick, 2011, Saengboon, 2013). For instance, T9 claimed in example 5.37 that the assessment system of the module English for Business Communication (which was not designed by her) was ineffective in the actual classroom. She argued that this module should focus more on students' real communication, so she decided to use the oral exam instead of the paper-based exam. In addition, she mentioned that some of the ready-made syllabuses of her English department need to be changed or modified to serve with what is happening inside and outside the classrooms.

**Example 5.37 (Teacher 9, Interview 1)**

**T9**: *So, in the course called Business English Communication I changed the testing procedures from paper-based to more practice-based tests, like oral exams. It seems more tiring but worthwhile to do. I don't think the paper-based test will be effective for them. Communication is nothing to do with theories, instead they need to be encouraged to practice. I have a belief that everything in the world needs to be practised and it will be meaningless if we know a lot about theories but we don't practice such knowledge. But, one of the problems is that some subjects we cannot design by ourselves, they were ready-made and I think they are irrelevant to the classroom situation or outside the classrooms where the language is used.*

To summarise this section, there were two main groups of factors found to be influential on the participants' beliefs about ELT in this study. The first were internal factors and the second were external factors. It has to be noted that some of the factors presented above are discussed further in the next chapter (Chapter 6) which aims to present the results of RQ2 that asked about the relationship among teachers' practices, their beliefs about ELT, and awareness of GE. Such factors include factors related to teachers' colleagues, students, and workplace policy, given that, based on the results, they could influence the correspondence between teachers' beliefs and teaching practices in their classrooms. In addition, there may be some other factors that are not presented in this chapter, but will appear in Chapter 6 (e.g. factors about media and events) because such factors were explored in other research instruments involving focus groups and observation rather than in the interview data. However, all of the factors will be discussed together in Chapter 7.

## 5.3 A summary of the chapter

The primary purpose of this chapter was to present findings received from two research instruments: surveys of teachers' backgrounds and attitudes towards ELT and GE, and semi-structured interviews. The surveys were employed before the interviews because the researcher aimed to use the survey data regarding backgrounds and attitudes to select the participants (i.e. 10 participants from a total population of 33) and to generate prompts for the interviews. According to the survey results, the backgrounds and attitudes towards ELT and GE of the 28 participants who returned their surveys were diverse, which were useful for both the sampling process and interview procedure. This was particularly in relation to the teachers' attitudes, which were contradictory and similar to previous attitudinal studies in the field of GE.

With regard to the semi-structured interviews, they were conducted with 10 participants during February to April 2017. Three sessions were conducted with each of the 10 participants. Therefore, the total number of interviews was 30. The transcription process started as soon as each of the interviews finished, as the researcher aimed to link the ideas of the participants with other sections of their interviews, as well as to check for their clarification and to link with the initial notes. Regarding the coding process, the QCA framework of Schreier (2012) was applied. This framework consisted of four steps: selecting materials, coding, defining names, and revising codes.

The interview results consisted of two themes: beliefs about ELT and factors influencing beliefs about ELT. The first theme concerned all of the participants beliefs about ELT, which finally included three sub-themes: beliefs about English language, beliefs about ELT related to the NESs' norms, and beliefs about ELT related to the GE perspective. With regard to the second theme, this consisted of two sub-themes: internal and external factors. The internal factors were factors residing in the teachers' minds, such as their knowledge and other types of beliefs, while the external factors directly referred to the factors appearing outside the participants' cognitive system such as people and the policy of their workplace.

# Chapter 6 Findings from focus groups, classroom observations, and document analysis

## 6.1 Introduction

Having analysed the interview data and the preliminary results in the previous chapter, this chapter presents the data received from the other research instruments including focus groups, observations, and document analysis. As discussed in the methodology chapter, the purpose of employing these instruments was twofold. First, the data obtained were used to triangulate the interview findings or, in other words, to reveal whether the interview data was confirmed or challenged. Second, the data mainly generated from observations of the participants' classrooms and document analysis were also used to answer research question two (henceforth RQ2) that sought to investigate the relationship among teachers' practices, their beliefs about English language teaching (ELT), and awareness of Global Englishes (GE).

The chapter begins with the presentation of each instrument's findings. Then, it moves on to triangulate the data of the interviews with these three instruments as well as the data collected from the survey of teachers' backgrounds and attitudes towards ELT and GE. Finally, based on the triangulated data, a more holistic summary is offered of the overall impressions of the participants' beliefs about ELT, factors that influenced their beliefs, as well as their awareness of GE and teaching practices.

## 6.2 Focus groups

Focus groups were another critical research instrument used in this study. The results obtained from this instrument were expected to qualify the data collected through semi-structured interviews. This is because focus groups were also employed to investigate the participants' beliefs towards ELT and their awareness of GE, although the process of collecting the data was different to that of the interviews. To be more precise, as opposed to individual interviews, focus groups enabled the participants to interact and engage in discussion and to generate new understandings while the researcher joined their conversation and performed as a facilitator (Barbour, 2008, Morgan, 1996b, Morgan et al., 1998). By doing so, the

participants were more able to respond to and build on the views expressed by others in the group (Litosseliti, 2003). Litosseliti (2003) also claimed that researchers investigating beliefs and attitudes could gain benefits from focus groups as this instrument facilitates the acquisition of multiple views and perspectives through complex negotiations in an on-going interaction process among participants (ibid, 2003, p.2).

Followings are themes received from the focus-group data analysis. As noted earlier in 4.4.3.3.2 that questions asked in the focus group and group interview did not include seeking factors influencing teachers' beliefs, the results explored in this instrument thus disclosed only one central theme, which was related to teachers' beliefs, as demonstrated below:

1. **Beliefs about English language teaching** (ELT) = all teachers' beliefs about teaching English language.
   1.1 **Beliefs about ELT related to the NESs' norms** (BEL/NESs) = all teachers' beliefs that conformed or related to the NESs' norms of using English language.
   1.2 **Beliefs about ELT related to the GE perspective** (BEL/GE) = all teachers' beliefs that concerned GE issues.

## 6.2.1 Teachers' beliefs about ELT

As aforementioned, the analysis of data gained from the focus group and group interview provided a significant theme called beliefs about ELT. This theme referred to all beliefs held by the participants that related to teaching the English language. In addition, based on the results, this theme consisted of two sub-themes (i.e. beliefs related to the NESs' norms and beliefs related to the GE perspective) which were similar to the interview results. Given this reason, it may be claimed that the results of the focus group and group interview concurred with the results from the interviews (see more in section 6.5; Data triangulation).

## 6.2.1.1 Beliefs about ELT related to the NESs' norms

A number of codes emerged under this sub-theme (BEL/NESs), and such codes were relevant to the NESs' norms of using English language. The NESs' norms in this sense meant standards or rules defined by NESs who live in the inner circle (Kachru, 1985) or other elements associated with this group of people. For example, many participants in this study claimed teaching and learning English in native English-speaking countries to be better than in non-native countries. For one reason, they

believed that the environment of native countries including the NESs' culture (BEL/NESs = CUL) could more effectively facilitate learners' English learning ability. This can be seen in example 6.1 (Chapter 6, example 1) when junior participants agreed that learning English in native countries provides benefits regarding not only language ability, but also cultural knowledge that they viewed as essential for English language improvement.

To a certain extent, in example 6.1, T8 shared his direct experiences in a native English country with his colleagues and explained that the feeling 'extremely cold' frequently mentioned in commercial books would be far from his imagination if he had not had the chance to visit this country. Apparently, from the same example, other junior participants (T6, T7, and T9) showed their agreement with T8's view about weather and viewed it as a type of NESs' culture. They also linked this issue with the importance of learning English culture (in English speaking countries) for Thai students learning the English language. This kind of belief could be found in previous studies that stressed the importance of foreign culture in foreign language teaching and learning (e.g. Wei, 2005, Wang, 2008, Gao, 2006).

### Example 6.1 (Teachers 6-10, Junior teachers' focus group)

R: *The first issue is about the annual project that sends students and staff to take a short English course in England or Australia. What do you think about it?*

T8: *It is good. I attended this project two years ago and I received some direct experiences. For example, I wouldn't have truly understood about the extreme coldness described in English commercial books like when a man says "Waiting at the bus stop is killing me because it was extremely cold". You know, this was a direct experience that is important to share with our students who won't feel it in our country. So, this project is excellent in my opinion because it encourages the participants to learn the facts about English language in the country where it is really used.*

T6: *I agree with this because when they are there they won't only be able to learn the language, but also ways of living and culture which they can apply to their own lives.*

T7: *I agree that this is a good project because, in teaching English, we can't teach only communication skills like listening, speaking, reading, and writing. We need to insert the cultural knowledge, too. For this, I think teachers who have never been to native countries to gain experience with native speakers won't properly transfer to their students …*

**T9:** *... yes because we often use commercial books which contain contents of native countries. So, our students may not clearly understand from the countries need to explain to them not only about the ways native speakers use the language, but also the culture, weather, ways of living, or architecture.*

In addition to the issue concerning the NESs' culture (BEL/NESs = CUL), the NESs' rules or ways of using English (BEL/NESs = RULE) (e.g. pronunciation and accents) was discussed among the participants. Many of them claimed learning English in native countries to be better than in non-native countries because learners will be able to practice English with those who use more correct English. This was particular to the senior participants who insisted on selecting England or Australia as the target place for the project mentioned in example 6.1, when the researcher asked if this project could change to Asian countries where English also has an important status (e.g. Singapore, Malaysia, and the Philippines). As presented in example 6.2, T2 stated that the project should keep sending the participants to native English countries since he considered the pronunciation of NESs as better and more standard than of non-native English speakers (NNESs) whose English is often interfered with by their first language (L1). Also, in the same example, although another senior participant (T4) did not mention the NESs' pronunciation, she supported when T2 said that the project should take place in native countries as they are better than Asian countries.

**Example 6.2 (Teacher 2 and Teacher 4, Senior teachers' group interview)**

**R:** *... what do you think if we change from a native English speaking country to other countries in Asia like Singapore, Malaysia, or the Philippines where English has official status?*

**T2:** *Actually, when we say English, we should send them to native countries if we want to see more effectiveness. If we send them to non-native countries, it won't be different from learning in our own country. More importantly, English of countries like India, the Philippines, Malaysia, or Singapore is much different from native countries. I mean, although they are fluent, their English is still influenced by their mother tongue, and this will negatively affect the project's participants ...their English is called Englishes and it is non-standard ... So, I think we should send them to the best place because not many of them can go ... maybe New Zealand or Australia if we can't send them to England.*

**T4**: *I have the same opinion. We should send them to the best place if we don't have financial problems. For the Asian countries, if we have spare money we may send them to join only exchange projects like 1-2 days in Singapore.*

Another code of this sub-theme was related to the NESs' reliability (BEL/NESs = RELIA). This code was investigated when the researcher extended the issue about English in Asia to the point of Asian teachers of English who have already had significant roles in Thai education. In example 6.3, the researcher aimed to identify the participants' beliefs towards their university's policy (about hiring other Asian teachers of English) to teach Thai students and to prepare for the Association of South-East Asian Nations (ASEAN) Economic Community (henceforth AEC). The results provided that both of the senior participants (T2 and T4) expressed disagreement with this policy and they showed their preference for native English teachers (NETs) over non-native English teachers (NNETS). This was particular to T2 who considered NETs to be language experts and more reliable in teaching English than NNETs.

**Example 6.3 (Teacher 2 and Teacher 4, Senior teachers' group interview)**

**R**: *What is your opinion towards the university's policy about hiring teachers from other Asian countries to teach students in this university? Can this policy be called a preparation for AEC?*

**T4**: *Well, if we have the budget, I still think that we should seek better choices to make it worthwhile for our students. But, nowadays, when we don't have many choices, we need to hire them. I mean, if we can choose, we will.*

**T2**: *Yes. If we can choose like T4 said, we may need to choose native speakers or those who hold a teaching certificate or language experts. It shouldn't be only language users. No matter how much we need to pay them, I think we should because they are experts in their language and they are more reliable.*

**T4**: *Or if we can't choose, we need to accept that this is the best we have.*

**T2**: *Yes. At least, they can meet the requirements of the university about foreign teachers.*

**T4**: *And, at least, we have other accents for our students.*

**T2**: *Yes. But if we can choose, we need native teachers to make it the best quality, which will be a worthwhile investment for our students.*

### 6.2.1.2     Beliefs about ELT related to the GE perspective

This sub-theme aims to present the beliefs about ELT in relation to the GE perspective of the participants. Based on the results, two codes or topics emerged which underpin the GE paradigm. The first code concerns the beliefs towards NNETs (BEL/GE = NNETs) or the group of teachers of English who do not speak English as L1. The results suggested that the participants perceived these people to be beneficial in the process of learning English by non-native English students (including Thai students) because they have a shared background with those students (e.g. identity and culture) (see example 6.4). With regard to the second code, this refers to issues in the GE perspective, such as WEs (World Englishes) and ELF (English as a lingua franca) (BEL/GE = WEs/ELF), which emphasise language variations and English communication (see example 6.5).

Focusing on the first code (BEL/GE = NNETs), the results disclosed the participants' positive beliefs towards NNETs, although they were to some extent conformed to the NESs' norms. In fact, this contradiction in their beliefs (i.e. conforming to both NESs and GE) was similar to the survey results, which found that although many teachers thought NETs to be better than NNETs, they still viewed NNETs (including Thai teachers) as effective in teaching English in Thailand (see 5.1.2). For instance, as seen in example 6.3 above, T4 attempted to negotiate with T2, who preferred NETs over NNETs, that at least accents of Asian teachers could provide examples of different Englishes for Thai students. In other words, one of the benefits of NNETs perceived by the participants in this study is their varieties of accents.

In addition to the case of T4, the researcher found, in example 6.4 below, that apart from their accents, some qualifications of NNETs were seen by the participants as important for the students' learning process. For instance, T6, T7 and T10 discussed with T8, who preferred NETs over NNETs, that the background of NNETs that is shared with students (e.g identity and culture) can make them better understood in the teaching and learning context, as well as affect students' learning behaviours. This result concurred with some previous studies that pointed out the benefits of NNETs over NETs (e.g. Medgyes, 1994, Medgyes, 2001, Medgyes, 1992, Canagarajah, 1999a, Llurda, 2005, Moussu and Llurda, 2008).

Chapter 6

**Example 6.4 (Teachers 6-10, Junior teachers' focus group)**

**R**: *As you know, our department of English consists of many non-native teachers and some of them are from other Asian countries. What do you think if we see this, I mean hiring Asian teachers, as a way to prepare our students for AEC?*

**T8**: *I don't think so because we don't learn English to be used only in AEC countries. We are using the English that is used worldwide ... It is not quite reasonable to hire them only for AEC preparation. I think to hire native speakers who are the language owners is worthwhile, because their language use is understood worldwide and also can be used in AEC ...*

**T6**: *Actually, I am still thinking about native English speakers who come from native English-speaking countries. But, one day, if we have to choose teachers from these countries, can understand because, excepting their language or accents, these Asian people will understand the contexts of teaching and learning more than native speakers ...*

**T7**: *I agree with T6 that native speakers should be considered first. But, you know, when we are in classrooms and see teachers with blond hair, we will need to be much aware of our use of language because they are the language owner. Differently, when we see teachers with an Asian look, we will feel more relaxed and think that, if we make mistakes, they will be fine with it because they understand us and know the context ...*

**T10**: *I find backgrounds of teachers and students interesting. I mean native teacherswho are good at English may not fully understand students who come from different cultural backgrounds. This is because native teachers are often set in their ways of teaching and learning based on what they learned from their countries and culture. For teachers from AEC countries, I think these people may understand our students better because they share some similar background with us ...*

As mentioned, another code that emerged in this sub-theme is related to issues in the GE perspective, such as WEs and ELF (BEL/GE = WEs/ELF). For example, as seen in example 6.5 when the researcher asked the participants about how to prepare their students for AEC, many of them pointed out different issues related to GE, such as to reduce the importance of grammar and to encourage students to communicate more (T6), to raise the students' awareness of different English uses (e.g. accents and pronunciation in ASEAN countries) and communicative competence (e.g. communicative strategies) (T8 and T10). These expressions were directly related to GE issues like WEs and ELF, which concern language variations

and successful English communication among NNESs (Jenkins, 2000, Jenkins, 2009, Seidlhofer, 2001, Dewey, 2007).

**Example 6.5 (Teachers 6-10, Junior teachers' focus group)**

**R**:   *So, how can we prepare our students for the use of English in ASEAN or AEC that our country is part of?*

**T6**:   *In AEC, how can we prepare? I feel that we stress too much about teaching grammar and our students have to memorise things like active and passive sentences. I think that this is quite boring. What we should focus more should be on communication … So we need to make them able to speak first …*

**T8**:   *Do you mean to prepare our students for their encounters with Asian speakers who are non-native English speakers?*

**R**:   *Yes, that is also what I mean.*

**T8**:   *Well, no matter if we go to their countries or they come to ours, what I am really concerned with is the accent. I think that it is fine if we listen to the Thai accent because we areused to it. How about the Cambodian accent? We don't know how they speak English and I think this will cause communication problems. So, I think we should equip our students with problem-solving skills like teaching them to check for meaning saying 'can you repeat that again?' Something like this …*

**R**:   *Do you mean communicative strategy?*

**T8**:   *Yes, we can call it that …*

**T10**: *Just like last time, when my Cambodian student tried to say 'should' but it sounded like 'sood' and 'people' which was pronounced as 'peepong' – "I think we sood understand peepong" something like this. At that time, I was a bit shocked but later understood that they do this in their context. So, yes, I think our students should be aware of this issue. I want to support T8 that communicative strategy is very important and useful.*

To summarise this section of the focus group and group interview, this study conducted a focus group of five junior participants and a group interview of two senior participants. The data received from these sessions were mainly used to triangulate the interview data. After the transcribing process, the data were coded

using the QCA framework (Schreier, 2012). The final finding illustrated one central theme (i.e. teachers' beliefs about ELT) which consisted of two sub-themes (i.e. the teachers' beliefs related to the NESs' norms and the beliefs related to the GE perspective). To a certain extent, the first sub-theme, which was related to teachers' beliefs in relation to the NESs' norms, saw three codes emerge involving: the belief related to the NESs' culture and environment of native English-speaking countries; the belief about the NESs' rules or ways of using English (e.g. accents and pronunciation); and the belief related to the NESs' reliability. With regard to the second sub-theme concerning the beliefs related to the GE perspective, two codes emerged: the belief about NNETs or nature of NNETs (e.g. identity and culture); and the belief associated with GE issues, such as WEs and ELF. It has to be noted that these results have supported the results from other research instruments (e.g. surveys and interviews) which will be presented later in section 6.5 of data triangulation.

## 6.3 Classroom observations

This section aims to illustrate the classroom observation results. It primarily reveals themes obtained from the observation data analysis to examine whether the results corresponded with the interview results. Then, the section moves on to discuss the results concerning the relationship among the participants' practices, their beliefs about ELT, and awareness of GE, which are essential for answering the RQ2 of the study.

From the data analysis, the researcher could confirm that the results from the observations and the interviews were correspondent. This means the observation results also suggested two central themes related to the teachers' beliefs about ELT, which were explored in the interview data (see more in 6.5). The first theme referred to teachers' beliefs about ELT which consisted of two sub-themes; beliefs related to the NESs' norms (BEL/NESs) and beliefs related to the GE perspective (BEL/GE). The second theme focused on factors affecting the participants' ELT beliefs, and it contained two sub-themes or factors: policy (FACT/POL) and students (FACT/STU) (see the coding book for observations in Appendix L). Examples of these themes and sub-themes are illustrated in the following sections that present the relationship among beliefs about ELT, teaching practices, and awareness of GE.

## 6.3.1    Relationships between beliefs and practices

After analysing the observation data and linking it with the interview data, it was clear that there was a relationship between the beliefs and practices of the participants. Moreover, such relationship could be both in the form of beliefs influenced practices and practices affected beliefs (see below). This result can be seen in many previous studies that confirmed the bi-directional relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices (e.g. Fives and Buehl, 2012, Pajares, 1992, Gates, 2006).

### 6.3.1.1    Beliefs influenced practices

To illustrate how the beliefs influenced practices, the researcher found that the participants who had more stable beliefs tended to apply their beliefs in practices more than those with unstable beliefs. This finding links with the concept of 'core beliefs', which were claimed to be more stable and powerful on teachers' behaviours and practices and, thus, were more obviously observed than 'peripheral beliefs' (Pajares, 1992, Green, 1971) (see also 2.1.2.1.2). For example, as presented below, T2 and T5, who held core beliefs about ELT, were observed to apply their beliefs in their classrooms practices.

For T2, as can be seen in many examples both in chapter 5 and this chapter (see examples 5.6, 5.10, 5.21, 5.23, 6.2, and 6.3), this teacher held a strong belief about ELT that conformed to the NESs' norms of English language. That is, he often mentioned that Thai people and other NNESs, such as other Asian speakers of English, had pronunciation problems and suggested they should follow NESs' ways of pronunciation to improve their English language (e.g. to follow NESs' dictionaries). Therefore, as can be seen in example 6.6 below, the observation results of his classroom named 'Public Speaking and Oral Presentation' showed that when T2 taught and trained students' oral practices he frequently corrected his students and referred to the NESs' pronunciation (BEL/NESs = RULE). He even provided direct feedback to them while they were giving presentations. What is more, from these actions, the researcher observed that many of T2's students were reluctant or unconfident speaking English in front of the classroom in later classes. It is notable that when the researcher asked T2 a question regarding these practices (including his direct feedback and pronunciation correction), he explained that without his feedback and correction, his students' English would be problematic like those 'Englishes', which he meant unacceptable or non-standard English (see

another of T2's comments about Englishes in example 6.2). Note that the full field notes of classroom observation of T2 can be seen in Appendix L.1.

**Example 6.6 (An excerpt of field notes from classroom observation of T2)**

| Predicate | Perceived party | Participant | Note |
|---|---|---|---|
| The teacher introduces new topics to students. | - The teacher suggests students consult NESs' dictionaries in order to pronounce correctly.<br><br>- The teacher mentions how to pronounce strong and weak consonants like 'thank you', 'might have', 'at home'.<br><br>- The teacher mentions that English major students should use varieties of words not simple as 'I think/I believe' but 'I consider/my perspective is'.<br><br>- The teacher gives examples of bad English/pronunciation of students made by some NNESs.<br><br>- The teacher assigns students to present about 'tourist attraction' in next week's class. | Teacher and all students majoring in Public Relations and English language. | - Teacher says he is worried about students' pronunciation.<br><br>- He also says a lot of people speak 'Englishes' today which are non-standard like Filipino English. Besides these Englishes sound unacceptable. If his students want to be better in pronouncing English, they need to consult NESs or their dictionaries which are standard.<br><br>- This teacher repeatedly mentions standard English as the best and perfect English.<br><br>- Teacher always corrects students' pronunciation and refers to NESs' pronunciations.<br><br>- When students get feedback, they tend to be less confident. |

The case of T5 was different from T2, given that T5 showed her stable beliefs about ELT that conformed to the GE perspective (see examples 5.5, 5.19 and 5.27). For example, in example 5.19, T5 expressed that we should raise the awareness of WEs of Thai students because these students will have to face different Englishes in AEC. With this core belief, therefore, the observation results of the class called 'Teaching English as a Foreign Language' (TEFL) disclosed that T5 frequently inserted knowledge related to GE for her master's degree students (see example 6.7 below and Appendix L.2 and L.3). This included when she addressed a session concerning the current issues in ELT which focused on 'World Englishes' (WEs) (BEL/GE = WEs). Furthermore, the researcher discovered in the observation results that T5 often linked the knowledge of WEs with other topics of teaching and learning English such as innovation in Thai ELT and English language policy in Thailand. In addition, when the researcher contributed a question about these teaching practices based on the GE perspective in an interview session, T5 commented that WEs is a new trend of using English; therefore, it should be

included in the curriculum for her MA students who were teachers of English, in order to raise their awareness about this issue for the benefit of their teaching.

**Example 6.7 (An excerpt of field notes from classroom observation of T5)**

| Predicate | Perceived party | Participant | Note |
|---|---|---|---|
| Teacher shows another video concerning the most significant challenges for current teachers of English by David Crystal. | - Teacher explains that language changes so fast.<br><br>- Students are asked to give examples of language uses in social media. | Teacher and all MA students majoring in English language | - Teacher talks about varieties of English, explaining that we find new English use every day (e.g. new slang, new words, pronunciations) and claims that not every person speaks RP (i.e. Received Pronunciation).<br><br>- Teacher describes that there are many Englishes in the world and we should be ready for differences or challenges of English.<br><br>- Teacher emphasises a lot about the globalisation of English, English as a lingua franca, accents, varieties of English, and describes that we are in the context of the standard follower.<br><br>- Teacher also raises a question "whether we can only teach one standard English in the present day?"<br><br>- Teacher says that Multilingualism is a new trend as well as English in Asia/ASEAN/AEC.<br><br>- Teacher concerned that teachers and students of English need to be aware about these issues in the present day. |

### 6.3.1.2    Practices influenced beliefs

The results from classroom observations also demonstrated an influence of teachers' teaching practices on their beliefs about ELT. This means, for instance, some teachers expressed that contextual factors (e.g. students and subjects) related to their teaching practices had influenced their adjustment of beliefs about teaching (see external factors in 2.2.2). This result is connected with section 2.3.3, which explained that teachers' beliefs could be constructed and changed after their

engagement in specific practices (Buehl and Beck, 2015, Johnson, 1994, Bandura, 1997, Phipps and Borg, 2009).

For example, in this study, the researcher observed that T4 reduced her use of English in later classes of the module called English for Specific Purposes or ESP. This means this teacher changed to using more Thai than English when she wanted to explain content to her ESP students. As this was obviously observed, the researcher thus asked her a question regarding this change of teaching behaviours, and the result indicated that she was influenced by some contextual factors (e.g. policy and students). That is to say, T4 explained in example 6.8 below that, in fact, she had a belief that ESP students would be prepared for their lessons (e.g. contents and vocabularies); therefore, she thought that she could teach them based on her belief (i.e. using English language for the benefits of students) which also conformed to the department's policy about using 70% English in classrooms (FACT/POL). However, when she taught these ESP students, she observed that they failed to understand her lessons explained in the English language (FACT/STU). She later perceived their lack of responsibility (to prepare lessons) and language ability as significant factors influencing their learning problems. With these factors, T4 thus adjusted her ways of teaching ESP and, consequently, this adjustment influenced her change of beliefs towards teaching ESP and ESP students.

**Example 6.8 (Teacher 4, Interview 3)**

**R**:  *May I also ask why didn't you teach ESP in English like in the first two sessions? I mean you changed to use more Thai, didn't you?*

**T4**:  *Well, you observed that? Haha. Erm, just as you viewed, those students didn't seem to understand my English lessons at all, and this meant they didn't concentrate much when I taught them. I later perceived that they didn't prepare for lessons, either content or technical vocabularies, which meant they only waited for my translation. Also, I think that their English proficiencies are quite poor, so I couldn't teach as I thought and prepared.*

**R**:  *What do you mean? What was your thought?*

**T4**:  *I mean I always thought that ESP students would be well-prepared, so they wouldn't have problems when I followed the policy about 70% English in the classroom. But, after I taught them, I had to change that belief.*

In addition to T4, the results disclosed that T9's beliefs were also affected by her teaching practice. For instance, the researcher observed that this participant often allowed post-class time for her students to reflect on their problems about learning English. Once the researcher asked her about this practice in an interview session (see example 6.9), she explained that, at first, she only wanted to talk with students and encouraged them to talk about problems either with her teaching or their learning. Moreover, this teacher stated that she often adjusted her teaching according to students' reflections, and discovered that their language ability and attitude changed positively. Therefore, she generated a new belief (i.e. dedicating extra time could benefit students) regarding this practice and aimed to apply it in other classrooms. It has to be noted that T9 also explained about her belief concerning the fact that many Thai teachers do not give enough attention to students, leading to students' learning problems and negative attitudes (see example 5.35, p. 117). This means this belief affected by practice is linked with other beliefs about ELT in the belief system.

**Example 6.9 (Teacher 9, Interview 3)**

**R**: *What was the purpose of talking with students after your class finished? I often saw you spent like 10 – 15 minutes with them.*

**T9**: *Nothing special actually. I only wanted to encourage them to talk more because many of them were silent in my class and I didn't feel quite right with this kind of classroom interaction. But, you know, after I did this, I could see that they were better. I mean they communicated more and this led to their improvement in English.*

**R**: *How? Can you explain a bit more?*

**T9**: *I think that it may be because I adjusted my teaching styles to suit them. I mean I used their problems to change my teaching and it worked for them. I feel like I have formed a new belief about teaching English communication to Thai students. I mean the believe that we, as teachers, should also listen to students' voices or problems and address their problems in our practices in order to make it most practical for them. I think it would also be useful for other classes.*

**6.3.2    Relationships among practices, beliefs, and awareness of GE**

The results of classroom observations additionally demonstrated that the participants' beliefs and practices had a significant relationship with their awareness of GE, in particular for the participants whose beliefs about ELT were relevant to the concept of GE. This is because, as discussed in 2.3.1, the new set of knowledge that is congruent with teachers' beliefs will be more likely to be applied in their teaching practices than knowledge that they do not believe in (Fives and Buehl, 2012, Pajares, 1992, Gates, 2006, Lee et al., 2006, Marland, 1997). For example, as seen in the case of T5 presented in example 6.7 above, as the beliefs about ELT of this participant firmly conformed to the GE perspective, her classroom practices were thus observed to be related to GE. This included when she addressed many GE issues (e.g. varieties of English, accents, multilingualism, Englishes in AEC and ASEAN, awareness of WEs, teaching materials, and prescribed policy in Thailand) in her classroom to raise the MA students' awareness of GE.

In addition, although the interview results presented that many participants' beliefs were contradictory (which means their beliefs were both related to the NESs' norms and the GE perspective), the researcher investigated whether some of their classroom practices conformed to the knowledge of GE. For instance, in this study, three participants (T1, T6, and T7) with contradictory beliefs applied the knowledge of GE in their classrooms. For T1, in a session of his class called 'Progressive Reading and Writing', he encouraged students to attend a seminar led by a Japanese professor for the reason that they could practice English and could prepare for different accents (BEL/GE = WEs). With regard to the case of T6, who taught ESP for non-English major students (i.e. Western Music major), he allowed students to speak and practice English without considering grammatical rules and mistakes (BEL/GE = ELF). And, for T7, when he taught his students to obtain vocabularies about health sciences from the audio recordings, he selected the one that contained a communication between NESs and NNESs because he wanted students to be exposed to different English accents (BEL/GE = WEs). The excerpts of field notes for classroom observations of T1, T6, T7 are presented, respectively, below.

**Example 6.10 (An excerpt of field notes from classroom observation of T1)**

| Predicate | Perceived party | Participant | Note |
|---|---|---|---|
| Teacher gets back to the lesson after a break. | - Teacher asks students to answer his prepared questions.<br><br>- Teacher explains the different cultures of selling clothes (e.g. windows of the boutique).<br><br>- Teacher lets students discuss in groups and present their ideas. | Teacher and all students majoring in English language | - After students' presentations, teacher gives more explanations.<br><br>- Before the class finished, teacher encourages students to take part in a seminar held by a Japanese professor, as this professor graduated from the USA. The teacher also tells them that they can gain some benefits from attending this seminar, such as to listen to another accent of English. |

**Example 6.11 (An excerpt of field notes from classroom observation of T6)**

| Predicate | Perceived party | Participant | Note |
|---|---|---|---|
| Teacher teaches 'Music and Literature'. | - Teacher asks the relationship between music and literature.<br><br>- Teacher plays original soundtracks of some movies.<br><br>- Teacher asks students about their favourite music in movies. | Teacher and all students majoring in Western Music | - Teacher encourages students to speak their ideas without concern about grammar and mistakes.<br><br>- Teacher tells students to try not to think in Thai but English.<br><br>- Teacher tells students that they can use Thai words if they cannot really think about such words in English. |

**Example 6.12 (An excerpt of field notes from classroom observation of T7)**

| Predicate | Perceived party | Participant | Note |
|---|---|---|---|
| Teacher teaches English listening to Nursing students | - Teacher gives some principles about how to listen to English conversation properly.<br><br>- Teacher opens some audio recordings of English conversations.<br><br>- Teacher gives students some papers to write down vocabularies they will hear from an audio recording. This recording will present a communication between a nurse and a patient. | Teacher and all students majoring in Nursing | - Teacher uses different audio recordings recorded by both NESs and NNESs.<br><br>- Teacher also uses a recording that presents a communication between a nurse and a patient, both of these characters are NNESs.<br><br>- Teacher explains that communication among NNESs can easily be found in the current period. |

In summary, this section demonstrates the results of classroom observations. The data analysis procedure included the use of NVivo 11 to code the field notes, which were the main instrument tool to capture classroom discourses of teachers. The results found that two central themes emerged: beliefs about ELT and factors influencing beliefs. These two themes also had a number of sub-themes that were explored. For instance, the beliefs about ELT consisted of two beliefs: one conformed to NESs while another followed GE. Regarding the factors affecting beliefs, there were two factors found including policy and students. Note that these themes and sub-themes support the interview results and, more importantly, they answered the RQ concerning how beliefs, practices, and awareness of GE are related.

## 6.4   Document analysis

To triangulate the data received from interviews and to corroborate the observation results regarding the relationship among beliefs, practices, and awareness of GE, the researcher also collected teaching documents of the participants. As explained in 4.3.2.3.5, to look at teachers' employment of teaching materials in their teaching practices is an effective way to investigate their beliefs about teaching (Bateman, 2014, Ferreira, 2014, Christophersen, 1988). In addition, the study of teachers' documents could generate reliability for this study because this method was claimed to be unaffected by the research process (Bowen, 2009). Therefore, what was received or observed from the participants' teaching material practices could be regarded as natural and realistic because "documents are social facts in that they are produced, shared, and used in socially organised ways" (Coffey, 2014, p. 369).

As partially explained in 4.4.3.5.2, the data received from the teachers' document analysis provided two themes: one was beliefs about ELT and another was factors influencing their beliefs. These themes were similar to the themes explored in the interview data, leading to an indication that the results from the document analysis could be used for the process of triangulation. Also, within these two central themes, a number of sub-themes emerged (see below and Appendix N). To illustrate, the first theme called beliefs about ELT consisted of two sub-themes: beliefs related to the NESs' norms (BEL/NESs) and beliefs related to the GE perspective (BEL/GE). The second theme which concerned factors affecting the participants' beliefs had only one sub-theme: the factor related to the policy or regulations of the participants' workplace (FACT/POL). As similar with the results

of classroom observations, examples of these themes and sub-themes are illustrated in the following sections presenting the relationship among beliefs about ELT, teaching practices, and awareness of GE.

## 6.4.1    Relationships between beliefs and practices

### 6.4.1.1    Beliefs influenced practices

As stated earlier, the use of document analysis could efficiently help to reflect the reality of teaching practices which classroom observations might not cover. This links to the case of T1 and T4 who rarely showed their implementation of beliefs in relation to GE in their classrooms (i.e. Progressive Reading and Writing and ESP) based on the observation results. However, the analysis of documents designed and composed by these participants highlighted the relationship between their beliefs about ELT related to GE and GE-based teaching practices. For instance, the researcher found that the curriculum for MA English and PhD English (that T1 and T4 composed and approved) consisted of some courses associated with GE issues. Moreover, such courses were taught by these two participants and this meant that they were also involved in the process of planning syllabuses and activities. The courses mentioned were English as an International Language (EIL), Advanced English Communication, Teaching English as an International Language, and Intercultural Communication. The following examples show descriptions of the courses named EIL and Intercultural Communication. In addition, in Appendix M.1, the syllabus for the course EIL is addressed.

**Example 6.13 (Description of the course EIL from the handbook for MA English students)**

> *Exploration of the rise of English to its current dominant status, implication of its current position for language professionals, language rights and claims about linguistic imperialism, advantages and disadvantages of language of wider communication, and English language teaching for cross-culture*

**Example 6.14 (Description of the course Intercultural Communication from the handbook for MA English students)**

*Intercultural interaction competence, intercultural awareness, principles of communication in professional and cultural contexts, culturally determined communication needs, communication styles, language identity, relationship between language and culture, politeness, multilingualism, cultural and research methods, analysis in intercultural communications*

Additionally, referring back to the case of T5 revealed in 6.3.1.1 and 6.3.2, the classroom observation results of the course called TEFL illustrated that her belief in relation to GE was consistent with her teaching practices. For example, she frequently referred to GE issues the classroom (e.g. WEs and multilingualism). Moreover, the researcher explored the consistency between her belief and her document practices, when the syllabus of the course TEFL declared her intention to address a session to discuss WEs with her MA English students (BEL/GE = WEs). In this sense, it may be stated that the document analysis results supported the classroom observation results. More importantly, the document analysis results demonstrated that the course TEFL involved cooperation by another teacher who tended to follow the NESs' norms, given this teacher had addressed different issues related to the NESs' norms of ELT including Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). This result is indicative that T5 was stable in her belief related to WEs, although she had to teach the same course with another teacher who had the opposite belief about ELT. Appendix M.2 presents the syllabus for the course TEFL.

### 6.4.1.2 Practices affected beliefs

It may be important to note that the use of document analysis was quite limited to reflect the effects of practice on the participants' beliefs. This is supported by Bowen (2009) who claimed that document analysis sometimes provides insufficient detail because documents are produced for some other purposes than research. Thus, the teachers' documents selected for analysis in this study were created independent of a research agenda; hence, they consequently did not provide sufficient detail to answer the issue of practices influencing beliefs. However, the researcher discovered an interesting case which may explain the relationship between the document practices and beliefs. The researcher analysed a syllabus of the course named 'English for Communication' (see Appendix M.4), which was taught by T9 in the previous semester, but by T10 in the current semester. He

perceived that the contents of this course mainly emphasised NESs' linguistic rules (e.g. phonetics and pronunciation) (BEL/NESs = RULE). This result was associated with what T9 said in one of her interview sessions when she said that her teaching practices based on the prescribed syllabus of this class made her realise that teaching communication skills should put away the concept of phonetics because it could impede learners' practices of communication (FACT/POL).

## 6.4.2    Relationships among practices, beliefs, and awareness of GE

In the same manner as classroom observations, the data from the document analysis helped the researcher to understand how the awareness of GE of the participants was relevant to their beliefs and practices. In fact, some of this information was partly presented in the above section, for example, the case of T1 and T4 whose beliefs related to GE corresponded to their document practices. In addition to these participants, it was found that T9 and T10 showed their awareness of GE when they designed their units (i.e. unit 3 and 6) for the Thai MOOC course called 'Ready English'. This result is connected to the discussion in 6.3.3.2 which found that if the participants' beliefs get along well with or are relevant to the knowledge of GE, their awareness of GE is likely to be reflected in their practices. For instance, in their presentation of English conversations, T9 and T10 used the dialogues between NNESs and NNESs that they recorded themselves (BEL/GE = ELF), rather than using the sources created by NESs like in many commercial books and materials.

Equally importantly, in presenting the contents of their lessons, they frequently used local names (i.e.Thai names) for people (e.g. Kamlah and Kampang) and for different things including places and food (BEL/GE). This showed that they were well aware of the local knowledge and culture when they aimed or had to present the knowledge of English (see Appendix M.3). The concern about regional accents as well as local knowledge and culture in teaching and learning English of T9 and T10 can be seen in previous studies (e.g. Amin, 1997, Schneider, 2011).

In contrast, when analysing another course named 'Explorative English' for which T7 and T8 were responsible (i.e. unit 3 and 4), the results presented that this course was more relevant to the NESs' norms (BEL/NESs) than the course designed by T9 and T10 above. For instance, based on descriptions of the course Explorative English, the main aim was to learn English to be able to communicate with NESs and to be able to understand Western cultures (BEL/NESs = CUL) more than other groups of English speakers. Moreover, this result echoes the focus group results

which showed how T7 and T8 argued that learning NESs' culture can help to improve English faster (see Example 6.1 of section 6.2.2.1.1). Note that Appendix M.2 displays examples of the Thai MOOC courses published on the YouTube website.

## 6.5   Triangulation of the interview data with other methods

To generate the findings' confirmability (Lincoln and Guba, 1985), this study applied the notion of data triangulation. Triangulation occurs when the researcher collects information from various sources with various techniques to confirm findings. As Zohrabi (2013) stated, the use of only one research technique may cause questions or biases which also means that the research quality may be reduced. The purpose of this section is, thus, to describe how the data from the four research methods (surveys, focus groups, observations, and document analysis) confirmed or challenged the primary data of the semi-structured interviews, although some information related to data triangulation was partially presented during the presentation of each instrument's results.

The section begins with the survey of teachers' backgrounds and attitudes towards ELT and GE. This instrument was administered before conducting the interviews because it aimed to select the main participants from the population based on their responses concerning backgrounds and attitudes. After analysing its results, the participants' responses (both those who were and were not available to take part in this study) offered an opportunity to corroborate the interview data given that many of the topics explored were similar. This included their responses concerning attitudes towards ELT and GE, which generally confirmed the information and impressions apparent in the interviews (e.g. contradictions in attitudes both towards ELT and GE of all participants). In addition, the survey results helped the interviews to answer a sub-research question concerning the factors influencing teachers' ELT beliefs (e.g. former teachers and peers of the participants).

A focus group (five junior participants) and a group interview (two senior participants) were held after the final interview and observation. As detailed in 6.2, the purpose of employing these instruments was to see how the participants' beliefs about teaching English and awareness of GE were constructed and negotiated. According to these instruments' results, the researcher perceived that they could corroborate the interviews efficiently. For instance, their results also uncovered that the participants' beliefs about ELT were consistent with their

interview responses. This was particularly apparent when the participants' beliefs were categorised into two sub-themes (i.e. beliefs related to the NESs' norms and beliefs related to the GE perspective), which were under the central theme called beliefs about ELT. Moreover, the results from these instruments helped the interviews to broaden and address some essential information relating to GE given that, for example, the participants have extended issues concerning non-native English teachers (NNETs) teaching in Asia and communication strategies (see examples 6.4 and 6.5), which were quite narrowly mentioned in their interview responses. However, it has to be noted that the focus group and group interview did not help to answer the research question about factors affecting teachers' beliefs, as the topics discussed were more relevant to the current issues of ELT and GE than the issue related to their former experiences, which were the main source of teachers' beliefs.

This study also conducted classroom observations for two purposes: to triangulate the results regarding the participants' beliefs about ELT and awareness of GE and to examine whether their beliefs towards ELT and awareness of GE corresponded to their classrooms practices. After analysing the data, the researcher considered that these two purposes were achieved. For the first purpose, the classroom observations had provided the same themes and sub-themes (concerning both the teachers' beliefs about ELT and factors influencing their beliefs) that were also explored in the interviews (see the coding book for interviews in Appendix G). Hence, this means the observations systematically corroborated the interview results. The second objective was also achieved because the classroom observation data showed some significant patterns of relationship among the participants' beliefs about ELT, teaching practices, and awareness of GE. It was interesting that, based on the observation results, some participants showed their awareness of GE in their practices although they did not show this awareness in their interview responses. For this case, some theoretical frameworks were related such as Sifakis's (2017) 'ELF-awareness continuum'.

Finally, with similar objectives as the classroom observations, the researcher also collected the participants' teaching documents for document analysis. The documents selected were those composed and used by some participants in this study (e.g. curricula and online courses); hence, they reflected the participants' beliefs about ELT and awareness of GE. As with the observations, the results from the document analysis generally confirmed the interview results about beliefs towards ELT as well as factors influencing their beliefs. This was particularly in

respect of the results concerning beliefs related to GE when the document analysis results could extend to some GE issues. More importantly, the document analysis helped to discover some realities of the participants' teaching practices that classroom observations could not properly reflect. For instance, as seen in 6.4.2.1.1, if the researcher had not studied the documents of T1 and T4, he would have concluded that their teaching practices were inconsistent with their beliefs related to GE. This is because the researcher hardly observed T1's and T4's implementation of beliefs and awareness of GE in their classrooms. Due to this result, it could be stated that the use of document analysis confirmed the interviews and at the same time corroborated the classroom observations.

## 6.6  A summary of the chapter

The primary aims of this chapter were to present the research results obtained from three research instruments: focus groups, classroom observations, and document analysis, and to explain how the data from these instruments corroborated the interview results according to the notion of data triangulation. The chapter began by presenting the results of the focus group (five junior participants) and group interview (two senior participants). Then, it discussed the results of the classroom observations and document analysis. In analysing these three documents, similar to the interviews, the researcher applied the QCA framework of Schreier (2012) and coded them using both deductive and inductive codes through the NVivo 11 software. With regard to their results, it can be confirmed that these instruments were systematically supportive of the interviews, given that they provided significant results that could help the interviews to answer RQ1 (what are teachers' beliefs and factors influencing them?). More importantly, the researcher found that the observations and document analysis could also answer RQ2, which focused on teachers' teaching practices and the relationship among practices, beliefs, and awareness of GE. Finally, this chapter summarised how the results of each of the three instruments mentioned above confirmed or challenged the interview results and triangulated the interview results. This served the notion of data triangulation, which stressed the importance of collecting the data from different sources and with different methods.

# Chapter 7 Discussion

The previous two chapters presented the results received from different qualitative research instruments. Chapter 5 detailed the results of the survey of teachers' backgrounds and attitudes towards ELT and GE and the primary results of the study derived from semi-structured interviews. Chapter 6 illustrated the results of three other research instruments including focus groups, classroom observations, and document analysis. This chapter moves on to discuss all the results in accordance with the research questions (RQs) and to link them with the relevant literature. It begins by discussing the results of RQ1, which asked about Thai university teachers' beliefs about ELT and factors influencing their beliefs. The discussion of the teachers' beliefs consists of three types of beliefs related to ELT found in this study: beliefs about English language, beliefs about ELT in relation to the NESs' norms, and beliefs about ELT in relation to the GE perspective, while the discussion of the factors involves two types of factor: internal and external factors. Then, the chapter examines the results of RQ2, which concerns the relationship among the teachers' practices, their beliefs about ELT, and awareness of GE. For this section, greater focus is placed on the teachers' teaching practices.

## 7.1 Results in relation to research questions

### 7.1.1 Thai university teachers' beliefs about ELT

As mentioned, there were three types of teachers' beliefs related to ELT discovered in this study: beliefs about English language, beliefs about ELT in relation to the NESs' norms, and beliefs about ELT in relation to the GE perspective. These beliefs (or any of them) were commonly investigated in previous GE studies that combined the framework of GE with the theory of teachers' cognition (e.g. beliefs, attitudes, perspectives) and teachers' ELT practices (Jenkins, 2005a, Weekly, 2015, Young, 2014, Ellis, 2007, Sifakis and Sougari, 2005, Jenkins, 2007, Hall et al., 2013, Dewey, 2012) (see also 2.4).

#### 7.1.1.1 Beliefs about English language

The first type of teachers' beliefs related to ELT is the belief about English language. This belief is essential in this study, given that it played a role as a 'core' belief in the teachers' belief system (Pajares, 1992, Green, 1971) and was influential on other cognitive constructs (e.g. beliefs about ELT and attitudes towards WEs and

ELF) and the teaching practices of the teachers (see more about core beliefs in 2.1.2.1.2.1). This result is consistent with Levine (2003) who claimed that teachers' beliefs about target language could strongly influence all types of their beliefs including pedagogical beliefs. Also, in the field of GE, Hall et al. (2013) regarded the teachers' beliefs about English language as having fundamental implications for the theory and practices of learning and teaching (p.16).

In fact, the function of teachers' language beliefs (in terms of influencing other constructs) has a considerable overlap with the concept called 'language ideologies', which many researchers claimed to be a powerful influence on an individual's beliefs and practices of English language (e.g. Trujillo, 2005, Kroskrity, 2004, Silverstein, 1979) (see also 2.1.2.1.3). For example, Sifakis and Bayyurt (2017) considered that the beliefs that develop from language ideologies (e.g. standard language ideology) will become convictions that guide the way teaching, learning, and communication is percived and what is correct, appropriate, and relevant is designated in the way that the English language is viewed. Also, Trujillo (2005) pointed out that the language ideologies merge language beliefs with practices in much the same way that some researchers have integrated teachers' beliefs with teachers' practices. Therefore, Trujillo (1996) used the term 'teachers' language ideologies' to explain when the beliefs and practices of teachers were influenced by the language ideologies, and defined these as a "connected set of systemically related beliefs and ideas about what are felt to be the essential features of teaching" (p.127) and "practice through which individuals are produced, and in turn, produce their orientation to the social structure they inhabit" (p.137). Based on this relationship between language beliefs and language ideologies, the following discussions concerning the teachers' beliefs about English language will frequently refer to the teachers' language ideologies, particularly in the sections discussing effects of the standard language ideology and native speakerism on teachers' beliefs about ELT and their teaching practices.

### 7.1.1.1.1  Beliefs about English language related to language ownership

In discussing the teachers' beliefs towards English language, the issue concerning language ownership is of relevance. This is because many participants in this study frequently referred to the language owners (either NESs or NNESs) in their expressions about English language. Moreover, it was found that the language beliefs associated with language ownership could control both how the participants thought about subject matters (e.g. what is the role, function, and status of English?) and how they manipulated their teaching practices (e.g. whom will

students studying English have to speak with?). For instance, the participants who believed that English belongs to NESs would express other types of beliefs which were also related to the NESs' norms, such as the beliefs about ELT based on the NESs' norms presented in the next section (see 7.1.1.2). This comprised when they claimed the English language should be ruled or modified only by NESs, given they believed that these speakers were born with the language (e.g. they referred to NESs' 'heredity' and 'genes'), and are more fluent in the use of the language (e.g. vocabulary knowledge). Therefore, the NESs were claimed to be the language experts among these participants.[1]

The above result not only shows the effects of the language beliefs associated with the language ownership on other beliefs held by the teachers, but also emphasises the notion of 'native-speakerism' (Holliday, 2005, Holliday, 2008). This was, in particular, when the participants gave the 'legitimacy of English' to the NESs (e.g. language experts) and categorised themselves as the 'other' who have nothing to do with language modification, are less proficient and less reliable both in using and teaching English language than the NESs.[2] More importantly, these beliefs, especially the beliefs concerning NESs as the language experts, may be opposed to some previous studies that cautioned the value judgement of different types of English speakers (e.g. Jenkins, 1996, Jenkins, 2000, Mesthrie and Bhatt, 2008, Seidlhofer, 2012, Rampton, 1990). This includes Jenkins (2014) who regarded the use of the term 'expert' as problematic because it simultaneously implies the

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[1] See examples 5.1, 5.2, and 6.3
[2] See examples 5.6, 5.13 and 5.14

implementation of 'non-expert' which describes less proficient speakers according to the nativeness viewpoint. Therefore, in accordance with Jenkins (2015a), this study sees the need for the participants to reconsider their use of the term 'expert'. This is because it may be derived from their confusion, as Widdowson (1994) stated that the persistent confusion between the phenomenon of ENL (English as a Native Language) and the teaching of ESL (English as a Second Language) has led to the misguided belief that a native speaker automatically has the expertise to teach English.

On the contrary, the results disclosed that the participants who held more flexible beliefs towards English language ownership (i.e. any speakers can own the language) were likely to be more open to other aspects of English language. This involves the current usage and status of English, [3] such as World Englishes (WEs) and English as a lingua franca (ELF), that were quite different from the traditional approach of English based on NESs. To illustrate, some participants considered English as no longer a pure language of NESs, claiming the ownership and the right to change, modify, or develop this language have also changed. [4] Also, some of them challenged the NESs to accept the truth and to adjust their attitudes towards the current change of English language. [5] This result supports an argument of Smith (2015) who stated that in the present period when there are many valid varieties of English, the NESs may need to adjust the way they view other Englishes as well as other groups of English speakers. More precisely, they should be more concerned about how other people structure information and argument when using English, to be more tolerant of different pronunciation patterns, as well as to be more sensitised to the probability of misunderstanding and to be prepared to deal with it.

However, the researcher found that some participants still regarded the NESs as the most appropriate group of English speakers who should take the role of changing or modifying English, although they claimed other groups of English speakers could also own the language.[6] This result shows contradiction in their beliefs which, according to Coniam (2014), can influence their belief implementation in classrooms (see more about contradictory beliefs in later sections). For example, as discussed in 3.2.2, Asian teachers of English keep

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[3] See examples 5.3, 5.4, 5.5, 5.7, and 5.8
[4] See examples 5.3, 5.4, 5.5, 5.7, and 5.8
[5] See example 5.7
[6] See example 5.5

conforming to the NESs' ELT models because they believe that such models are legitimate and, more importantly, readily available for reference when they cannot rely on their own ways of teaching (Kirkpatrick, 2006). For this reason, hence, Doiz et al. (2011) and Norton (1997) suggested raising teachers' sense of language ownership and legitimacy. This is because, if they cannot claim their ownership or legitimacy of English language, they might not consider themselves legitimate speakers of that language. This means their teaching practices may continue to follow NESs whom they believe to be the sole owners and legitimate speakers of the language. Note that the beliefs about English language are examined further in the next sections presenting the teachers' beliefs both in relation to the NESs' norms and the GE perspective.

In summary, the results gained from a variety of research instruments presented that there was a considerable influence of the beliefs about English language (as a core belief) on other types of teachers' peripheral beliefs as well as on teachers' teaching practices. In fact, the beliefs about English language share similarities with the concept of language ideologies, which also mean a set of beliefs about language that can mediate the language teachers' actions. Also, this study found that the beliefs about English language, especially those respecting language ownership, are dominant in the teachers' belief system because they could control the teachers' beliefs about the nature of language and language teaching. Therefore, to develop the teachers' sense of language ownership and legitimacy is of importance.

### 7.1.1.2    Beliefs about ELT related to the NESs᾽norms

Another prominent type of teachers' beliefs about ELT is related to the NESs' norms. As discussed, this belief has a significant connection with the teachers' positive beliefs towards NESs and their use of English language. Therefore, it may be stated that this type of belief played a role as a peripheral belief being controlled by other core beliefs, such as the language beliefs conformed to the standard language ideology and native speakerism as discussed in the following section.

### 7.1.1.2.1    Beliefs about ELT influenced by the standard language ideology

In the teachers' beliefs related to the NESs' norms, the findings disclosed that some features relating to the standard language ideology such as the grammatical rules,

accents, and pronunciation were often expressed.[7] This result reflected what previous studies claimed that a deep-seated 'standard language ideology' has long existed and been maintained unflinchingly as the educational target in the ELT industry (e.g. Jenkins, 2007, Milroy and Milroy, 2012), although some were concerned that no variety of English should be called 'standard' (e.g. Ritchie, 2013, Roberts, 2002). Also, this result may particularly link with Jenkins (2007) who noted that, in the South-East Asian context, there is still a high degree of 'linguistic insecurity' among the NNESs. This may be because the standard language ideology of the NESs is still extensive in this region and, more considerably, the results of this ideology can often influence a negative or deficient view towards the NNESs' English.

To illustrate, some participants regarded the NNESs' English, especially regarding pronunciation, as less standard or even non-standard compared to the NESs.[8] This involved T2, who showed a negative attitude towards the pronunciation of both Thai and other non-native English teachers (NNETs) just because their pronunciation was inconsistent with what was codified in the native English dictionaries.[9] Moreover, T2 called the NNESs' ways of using English including accents (e.g. the Filipino English) as unacceptable 'Englishes', which are mainly interfered with by the speakers' first language (L1) and consequently warned his students not to follow or imitate this.[10] This result of T2 supports some research that presented substantial effects of the standard language ideology on a person's English use and teaching practices (e.g. Milroy and Milroy, 2012, Young and Walsh, 2010, Siegel, 2006, Holliday, 2005). Moreover, some issues arise from this result that must be discussed.

Firstly, the classroom actions of T2, such as the use of the NESs' standard language (e.g. dictionaries) to impose and judge, as well as to express negative attitudes towards other NNESs' English, reflected the notion of 'language discrimination' (e.g. Lippi-Green, 1994, Milroy, 2001, Milroy and Milroy, 2012). This is because, according to Lippi-Green (1994), language discrimination stems primarily from an acceptance of the standard language ideology, and the person who has this kind of discrimination will have "a bias toward an abstracted, idealised, homogeneous spoken language which is imposed from *standard language ideology* ... the most

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[7] See examples 5.9, 5.10, 5.11, 5.12, 5.21, 5.23 and 6.2
[8] See examples 5.9, 5.10, 5.11, 5.21, and 5.23
[9] See examples 5.10, 5.23 and 6.6
[10] See examples 6.6 and a fieldnote for classroom observation of T2 in Appendix J.1

salient feature is the goal of suppression of variation of all kinds" (p.166, italics added). This was confirmed by Jenkins (2007) and Alharbi (2017) who stressed that the NNESs suffer from discrimination in comparison to the NESs' standard and they advocated that ELT practitioners move beyond this type of language ideology.

Secondly, the result apparently presented T2's awareness of WEs (i.e. he referred to 'Englishes'), but he aimed not to take it into account in his practice nor to raise students' awareness of such issue due to his disagreement. This seems consistent with Sifakis (2017) who also explored that teachers had an awareness of ELF, but they refused to integrate this endeavour in their teaching because they did not concur with the ELF concepts. It may be argued that this result has a relationship with the concept called 'teacher agency', or when teachers act as an educational agent who can either follow or ignore the new set of knowledge in their teaching practices (Fitzpatrick, 2011, Watson Todd, 2005) (see more about teacher agency in 1.2.3 and 7.1.2.1). This is similar to De Costa's (2010) result, which showed that teachers who conformed to the standard language ideology rejected following other ELT models in favour of those of the NESs and required students to conform to the NESs' standard language accordingly.

In fact, these actions of T2 and the teachers in De Costa (2010) presented above may cultivate a standard language ideology in their students' belief system (e.g. beliefs developed by ideologies; Bayyurt and Sifakis, 2017), which may have some effect on their future use of English. For example, Hall and Wicaksono (2013) stated that the classrooms consisting of a standard language ideology may generate difficulty for learners when they come out of the classroom and are exposed to different kinds of English. This includes the difficulty in facing different Englishes in their own contexts where the 'Standard English' is taught through cultural contexts and practices with which they cannot identify. In addition, the researcher follows previous studies that suggested teachers of English should not place too high an emphasis on any standards or varieties of English, but should use real-life language to teach students to facilitate their English use outside the classrooms where they will encounter different types of English and English speakers (e.g. Al Azri and Al-Rashdi, 2014, Illés and Akcan, 2017, Lewkowicz and Leung, 2017).

The above discussions have led to a reflection that the teachers' beliefs conformed to the NESs' standard language tended to result in more negative than positive

effects on their teaching and students' learning practices.[11] Such negative results could include the cultivation of language discrimination by the students in classrooms (e.g. to have a negative attitude towards other varieties of English), the teaching practices of teachers which were unattainable for most learners (e.g. to pronounce based on NESs' pronunciation and accents), and the possibility of generating difficulty in students' English communication (e.g. to be unfamiliar with other Englishes). Therefore, the teaching practices that facilitate the students' future use of English outside the classrooms, where they will find different Englishes and English speakers, may be of importance. Note that the effects of the teachers' beliefs about ELT related to the NESs' norms on teachers' teaching and students' learning can also be found in next section examining the beliefs conforming to the ideology of native speakerism.

### 7.1.1.2.2   Beliefs about ELT influenced by native speakerism

The aim of this section is to examine the issue concerning beliefs about ELT influenced by the ideology of native speakerism. Therefore, some information discussed in this section inevitably overlaps with previous sections covering the ELT beliefs in relation to the NESs' norms. This is because native speakerism is claimed to be one of the crucial parts of the NESs' paradigm of teaching and learning English and it is frequently discussed with other issues, such as standard language and language ownership (e.g. Murata and Iino, 2017, Holliday, 2005, 2006, Mesthrie and Bhatt, 2008).

For instance, in this study, T3 believed that NESs should be the group of English speakers responsible for testing the English language proficiency of other groups of speakers. In addition, she claimed that 'we' (i.e. herself and other NNESs) may have to accept that using NNESs who are not in the 'white' team may cause problems.[12] From this case, apart from the effect of native speakerism on her belief about English language assessment, there seems to be an ethnic and racial dimension in her belief system, especially when she described the NESs as 'white' people and used 'we' for herself and other NNESs. This result acknowledges Amin (2001) who pointed out that the ideology of native speakerism does not only generate a viewpoint concerning language competence, but also racism and

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[11] In this study, the positive effects of the ELT beliefs conformed to the NESs' standard language may include the availability of teaching materials (T5), the references for teaching practices (T7), and the structures for written language of students (T8 and T10).
[12] See example 5.9

colonialism that influence the holders' understanding and evaluation of different types of English speakers. Additionally, it may correspond to a study by Kubota et al. (2005) which concluded that the invisible and normative nature of 'whiteness' is associated with the notion of NESs, while the concept of NNESs is combined with 'colouredness' or 'Asianness'.

More importantly, the ethnic and racial issue found in T3's beliefs about ELT is likely to be connected with issues called 'self-marginalisation'[13] and 'culturism'[14] (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, Holliday, 2005). This is because the researcher also explored other participants who also put native speakers in a more advantageous position and viewed themselves and other NNESs as less reliable either in using or in teaching English language. For instance, based on their admiration of NESs, T7 and T9 not only lowered their self-esteem about English use and teaching, but also generalised that other NNESs can never teach English or English culture as correctly as the NESs do, although those NNESs have lived in an English-speaking country for an extended period.

From all of these discussions, it seems logical to reflect, in keeping with the notion that teachers' beliefs conformed to the standard language ideology, that to conform to the ideology of native speakerism tends to result in negative rather than positive effects. A clear example of this includes when many participants suffered from their use of the NESs as a benchmark for their English use and teaching. Jones et al. (2001) described this as the 'I-am-not-a-native-speaker' syndrome, which contributes some negative consequences relating to the teacher's persona, self-esteem, as well as their in-class performance. Notably, these are entirely different from the teachers whose ELT beliefs conformed to the GE perspective (presented in the next section) because those teachers not only showed their positive beliefs towards their own English and other Englishes (i.e. identity reason), but also were more open to embracing the ELT models that can be more attainable for their students.

### 7.1.1.3    Beliefs about ELT related to GE

Having examined the teachers' ELT beliefs conformed to the NESs' norms, this section moves on to discuss the results of the teachers' ELT beliefs related to the

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[13] See T7, T6 and T8 in examples 5.15, 5.16 and 5.17 respectively
[14] See culturism of T9 in examples 5.14, and T7 and T9 in example 6.1

GE perspective. The results illustrated that most of the participants in this study were aware of the global spread and development of English language. This is because, as presented below, when the participants expressed their ELT beliefs, they often referred to issues concerning the field of GE, (e.g. language varieties and communication strategies), despite the fact that their responses were sometimes contrary due to the influence of their contradictory beliefs (i.e. beliefs that conformed to both NESs' norms and GE perspectives).

In respect of language varieties or World Englishes (WEs), the results disclosed the awareness of WEs in almost all participants and, more importantly, some of them had already implemented this awareness in their teaching practices. This included T7 who viewed the language varieties to be a beautiful quality of the language (e.g. a variety of vocabularies and accents). In addition, he argued against the practice of some teachers who force students to follow particular English varieties by referring to the issue of 'language deprivation'.[15] This is similar to one of the teacher participants in Al-Hasnawi's (2016) study, who also perceived the language varieties as beautiful and raised her students' awareness of this issue accordingly. To elaborate language deprivation further, the concept was advocated by Sifakis and Sougari (2005), who also viewed the teachers' requirement for learners to conform only to NESs' varieties in their classroom as a way to deprive learners of real language uses. Moreover, given that this practice may cause students further problems in English communication, hence, they suggested teachers should reconsider the belief concerning the NESs' norms as central in ELT, and raise the awareness of how English is functioning in the immediate surroundings.

Furthermore, the research findings showed the teachers had contradictory beliefs about varieties of English, in particular Asian Englishes including Thai English. From the survey results, many of the participants regarded Thai English as 'easy' to understand, yet they still suggested Thai people should have further practice to become like the NESs (see survey results in 5.1.2.2). Also, the interview responses revealed the participants'' claim about Asian Englishes (e.g. Singaporean, Malaysian, Filipino and Indian) as 'fluent' and 'comprehensive'.[16] However, they still believed that such Asian varieties are sometimes 'strange' and 'difficult' to follow in comparison with the NESs' varieties. These results are close to Jenkins (2007) and Jindapitak and Teo (2013a) who similarly found contradiction in their

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[15] See example 5.15
[16] See T6 in example 5.16 and T8 in example 5.17

participants' belief system. Jenkins (2007) pointed out that some qualities (e.g. identities) of the English teachers in expanding circle settings are often in conflict or contradiction. This is because they sometimes admired their own English uses (i.e. identity reason) but sometimes were oriented towards the NESs' norms especially from the professional standpoint.

In the same vein, Jindapitak and Teo (2013a) discovered that Thai speakers of English considered their own accent easy to understand (i.e. linguistic reason) and were proud to speak English with a Thai accent (i.e. identity reason). Yet, they regarded other Asian Englishes (e.g. Chinese and Taiwanese English) as 'unrecognised' and 'difficult' to understand. Thus, they expressed negative attitudes towards such varieties based on their belief that these varieties were different from the varieties they had become used to in their communication (e.g. the NESs' varieties and Thai English). To respond to this result, Jindapitak and Teo (2013a) aimed to raise Thai people's familiarity with/awareness of other Englishes apart from the NESs' varieties and their own English. This is because doing so may reduce communication problems with other speakers and, more importantly, it may adjust negative attitudes towards other Englishes caused by their conformity to the NESs' norms. The researcher agrees with this point of Jindapitak and Teo (2013a) because the negative beliefs reinforced existing stereotypes about the ownership of English (i.e. NESs and NNESs), which have a powerful impact on teachers' teaching practices[17] (see also 7.1.1.1). In addition, the researcher acknowledges some researchers who supported the judgement of English varieties from other perspectives (e.g. the degree of intelligibility) rather than aspects like 'good – not good', 'real – unreal', or 'original – fake' (see Galloway and Rose, 2014, Jenkins, 2005a), which tends to be based on the ideology of standard language and native speakerism.

The above discussion contributes to the discussion of the beliefs in relation to English as a lingua franca (ELF). This is because the findings also revealed that few of the participants in this study adequately understood ELF. More importantly, some of them held misconceptions about ELF, although they expressed their familiarity with this concept. For instance, T7 stated that he had a certain knowledge of ELF, but he claimed NESs to be the most critical group of ELF speakers

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[17] In fact, there were more participants in this study who also showed negative beliefs towards Asian English varieties, such as in examples 5.10, 5.11, 5.16, 5.17, 5.21, 5.23, and 5.28

and suggested consulting this group of English speakers if there was an aim to apply the concept of ELF into classrooms effectively. Thus, T7 held a misconception about ELF as, in fact, in ELF communication, although NESs are not excluded, these speakers should not be seen as experts because their expertise is in ENL rather than ELF communication (Jenkins, 2014, p.44). This finding about misconceptions of ELF links with Jenkins (2005b) who noted that a great number of EFL teachers held misconceptions about ELF and this had led to negative consequences, such as negative attitudes and unawareness of ELF in classrooms. Therefore, the researcher advocates previous studies that claimed individuals' 'familiarity' or 'experience' with ELF (e.g. teaching, learning, and researching) as a critical factor of their accurate conception of ELF, which leads to ELF awareness in classroom practices (e.g. Jenkins, 2005a, Wang, 2014, Litzenberg, 2013).

However, the researcher still explored the ELT beliefs related to ELF in some participants, and such beliefs were both in the form of implicit and explicit beliefs. The implicit beliefs towards ELF in this study were held by those who showed no awareness or an unclear understanding of ELF, and these implicit beliefs primarily guided their behaviours without any consciousness or awareness of ELF. This result is consistent with Sifakis (2017) who also found teachers with no awareness of ELF unknowingly integrated ELF in their teaching practices. Examples of the implicit beliefs about ELF in this study may be seen in T8 who did not show any awareness or knowledge of ELF in his interview responses but revealed some essential points

in relation to ELF, such as the importance of communicative strategies in NNESs' communication in focus groups.[18]

The explicit beliefs about ELF can be seen in some senior teachers who showed a clear understanding of and positive attitudes towards ELF issues. This means they showed a higher potential to implement the knowledge of ELF in their classrooms than those who held implicit beliefs. This is supported by Gabillon (2012) who claimed that explicit beliefs require intellectual and practical commitment; therefore, they tend to be implemented in the classroom by teachers more than implicit beliefs. In this study, the teachers who held the explicit beliefs related to ELF included T5 and T1. T5 expressed a clear explanation of ELF in her survey response and explained that the concept of ELF may be integrated with contents of English for Specific Purposes (ESP). More importantly, she included the knowledge of ELF to teach her students in postgraduate classrooms.[19] In respect of T1, he also explained a clear understanding of ELF in his interview response and described that ELF may fit Thai classrooms and may benefit Thai students' English communication because they do not have to be too worried about errors or mistakes, which means they can be more confident in communication.[20] Further discussions of teaching practices related to ELF are explored in 7.1.2.1.

To summarise, although the research findings illustrated a relationship between the teachers' beliefs about ELT and ELF, only a small number of the participants adequately understood ELF. As this may influence their misconception and lack of awareness of ELF in classroom practices, the researcher sees the importance of the teachers' familiarity with ELF as a way to raise ELF awareness in classroom practices. Finally, although the results showed limited numbers of participants who knew about ELF, the researcher still investigated some of their expressions that were related to ELF, and this issue will be examined in 7.1.2.

### 7.1.1.4    Factors influencing teachers' beliefs about ELT

Apart from investigating the contents of the teachers' beliefs about ELT, this study also aimed to examine factors influencing their beliefs. In fact, some of the factors were discussed throughout the above sections, such as the language beliefs conformed to the standard language ideology and native speakerism that

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[18] See T8 in example 6.5
[19] See examples 5.27, 6.7 and appendices J.2 and J.3
[20] See example 5.26

considerably affected the ELT beliefs. This section aims to discuss such factors in more detail and to address other factors that were also explored in the participants' responses. In addition, based on the findings, the factors can be described as internal and external factors (e.g. Buehl and Beck, 2015, Fives and Buehl, 2012) (see 5.1.3.2).

The results about internal factors in this study mainly referred to the teachers' beliefs about English language. As discussed in 7.1.1.1, this belief played a vital role in the teachers' belief system, as it could control not only other cognitive constructs of the teachers (i.e. other beliefs, attitudes,[21] awareness), but also their teaching practices. For instance, when the participants in this study had a belief about English language that conformed to the NESs' norms (e.g. English is a language of the NESs), they would frequently show other beliefs that were also based on the NESs' models (e.g. teaching pronunciation needs to rely on the NESs' dictionaries). More importantly, when these teachers encountered other ELT models that contradicted the NESs' models, they would show negative attitudes towards such models (e.g. negative attitudes towards WEs and ELF). This, as a result, made them reluctant to follow or to familiarise themselves with other ELT models rather than the NESs' models, leading to a lack of awareness of some knowledge about ELT that may be more suitable to their teaching and students' learning English in their contexts.

The above discussion has contributed to the field of GE, because there are some GE studies that also suggested placing greater emphasis on the subject matter (which means English language) to gain more understanding about ELT (e.g. Hall et al., 2013, Hall et al., 2017). For example, Hall et al. (2013) and Widdowson (2003) suggested re-examining the relationship between the 'object language' and 'language subject' in ELT to suit the currently increasing global diversity of English. This is similar to Seidlhofer (2011) who suggested reconsidering "the thing that is called English" (p.1) in current English education, as the traditional approach to English which resembles the treatment of language as linguistic systems constituted of discrete forms has already become obsolete. Additionally, Harris (2009) perceived the importance of reconsidering what is being taught and learnt in the classroom. Harris claimed that implicit language teaching always accompanies the more explicit language instruction of the classroom, and "whether

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[21] This study followed the researchers who separated ·beliefs· and ·attitudes· (e.g. Jenkins, 2007; Rokeach,1968) (see also in section 2.1.2.1.4)

you realise it or not, you are teaching not just English or French or Japanese, but a certain view of what that language is, and also a certain view of what a language is" (p.25).

Regarding the external factors, the findings disclosed that the teachers' experiences with people and regulations or policies in their societies (e.g. home and workplace) were influential on their beliefs. This finding showed consistency with a number of previous GE studies that claimed the teachers' different types of experience with English language (e.g. using, learning, and teaching) to be a crucial ingredient of their beliefs about teaching (e.g. Seidlhofer, 1999, Jenkins, 2005a). For example, Jenkins (2005a) illustrated that teachers' past experiences, both classroom and social, are factors in their present situation, and the assessment of their future chances of success might combine to affect what they think about English at a deep level.

With regard to the teachers' experiences with other people, the results from the first round interviews (i.e. teachers' life story) illustrated different groups of people (e.g. parents, former teachers, peers, colleagues, students) with whom the teachers interacted and who influenced their beliefs (see 5.2.2.2.2). Regarding the teachers' parents, for instance, T7 declared that his choice to study English in the school consisted of NESs was due to his father's positive belief towards this group of English speakers.[22] This result supports previous studies that illustrated the influence of parents on Asian students' choices of English language education (e.g. Sung, 2011, Pimpa, 2003, Hoffman, 2003). Hoffman (2003), in particular, revealed the ideology of 'native speakerism' of Thai parents according to their decision to send children to study with the NESs in international schools or NESs' countries. Tarry also reflected that this issue might link with a common belief of Thai people about the high status of English, meaning that those who can speak English with native-like accents will be seen to be better educated and will gain higher status in society. Therefore, the researcher considers that Thai parents are one of the groups of people who cultivate the ideology of native speakerism in many Thai teachers of English language.

In addition to the teachers' parents, people in the former schooling context of the participants were also influential on their belief system, such as their former teachers and peers.[23] According to Skott (2015), as teachers' beliefs are seen as

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[22] See example 5.32
[23] See examples 5.33 and 5.34

value-laden, and they are characterised by "a certain degree of commitments" (p.18), what teachers obtain from their interactions with people can be seen as both positive and negative. In a sense, the teachers might perceive their experiences of interacting with their teachers and peers in classroom contexts as good or bad experiences that they may or may not retrieve to adapt to their own classrooms. This is particularly in the case of former teachers, who many of the participants in this study often referred to when they described their current teaching strategies. That is, they complained that their former teachers' teaching methods (e.g. teachers' punishment and pronunciation teaching) had caused their early English language problems (e.g. pronunciation problem), and they said that they would not do the same with their own students.[24] These responses link back to Skott's (2015) argument above about 'good' and 'bad' experiences received from the former teachers. In addition, they are consistent with other researchers who claimed former teachers to be an essential source of teachers' beliefs about teaching, including those researchers combining teacher education with GE (e.g. Lunenberg et al., 2007, Sifakis and Bayyurt, 2015, Bayyurt and Sifakis, 2015b).

The participants' colleagues and the students in their workplace were other external factors. From the results, these people affected the participants when they wanted to implement their beliefs about teaching in their practices. In other words, the interaction with these people could impede their belief implementation in classroom practices. For example, T9 expressed her discomfort when she had to coordinate with other teachers because she was unable to put her thoughts into the shared course syllabus and lesson plans. Also, T4 expressed her negative feelings towards her former students of an ESP course who complained and showed negative attitudes towards her teaching styles (e.g. the use of English as a teaching language). Therefore, T4 had to adjust her teaching practices and beliefs towards this group of students as well as towards teaching ESP courses.[25] What is more, the case of T4 leads to a discussion of another type of external factor: the workplace policy for teaching and learning English. The reason for discussing this factor together with the participants' colleagues and students was due to their similar influence on the teachers' belief implementation in classrooms. As can be illustrated, many of the participants' responses referred to the department policy about using over 70 per cent English in classrooms.[26] This policy had generated

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[24] See T6 in example 5.33
[25] See example 5.36
[26] See example 6.8

teaching difficulties for them, such as when to use this policy to teach students with different levels of proficiency. Interestingly, these participants reported that when they followed this policy and their students gained unsatisfactory learning outcomes, they were the first group who received negative feedback from their students, not their department.

Given the above discussions concerning different external factors, this study conforms to previous studies that claimed teachers' beliefs as a context-dependent construct. For example, Burns (1996) stated that tensions and inconsistencies between belief systems and practices were shown to be susceptible to "interconnecting and interacting" classroom and institutional contextual influences, which meant that "thinking at one level interacted, became interdependent with and was influenced by beliefs operating at another level" (p. 158). Also, Lerman (2001) and Skott (2009) argued that beliefs are qualitatively different depending on the context in which they are enacted. Therefore, to examine beliefs without paying close attention to the unfolding of teachers' practices through interaction within contexts would be methodologically and analytically inappropriate. In addition, linking this phenomenon with the ELF perspective, the contextual factors are an important factor that influences, shapes, and develops an individual's perceptions of ELF, especially their implementation of ELF into classrooms (e.g. Wang, 2012, Hüttner, 2017, Suzuki et al., 2017). To illustrate, Suzuki et al. (2017) explained that Taiwanese university teachers uphold mixed beliefs about teaching English for ELF communication, but not all of them, and their students are flexible in regard to different ways of using English. This means that the teaching and learning based on the NESs' norms are still dominant in policy, which makes the ELF-aware classroom practices in this context slow to grow.

To summarise, the findings of this study illustrated two main types of factor influencing the teachers' beliefs about ELT. The first type was the internal factor which primarily included the teachers' beliefs about English language. This internal factor was potent as it could influence both other teachers' cognitive constructs and teachers' practices. The second type of factor involved external factors or contextual factors such as the participants' parents, former teachers, peers, teachers' colleagues, students as well as the policy of their workplace. These factors were mainly crucial for the consistency between the teachers' beliefs and practices. At the same time, these factors were seen to be influential in the field of

GE, in particular when individual teachers were influenced by these factors while aiming to implement the knowledge of GE (e.g. ELF) in their classrooms.

### 7.1.2 Relationships among beliefs, awareness of GE and practices

Having answered RQ1, which asked about the ELT beliefs and their influencing factors in the above sections, this section moves on to discuss the result for RQ2, which focused more on the teachers' teaching practices. The section begins by examining some observed teaching practices that were based on both the NESs' norms and the GE perspective. Then, it discusses the relationship among the teaching practices, the ELT beliefs, and the teachers' awareness of GE in more detail.

#### 7.1.2.1 Patterns of teachers' teaching practices

Regarding the results received, it has to be noted that the teaching practices based on the GE perspective were not greatly explored in this study. For one reason, as discussed throughout the early sections, almost all of the participants held beliefs conformed to the NESs' norms, and this meant the core of their practices was primarily based on the NESs' models. Also, as presented in 7.1.1.4, there were different factors that impeded their belief information in classrooms (e.g. subjects, colleagues, students, policy), which meant that although many of them expressed the ELT beliefs related to GE issues, their GE-based practices still tended to be impeded by such factors. Therefore, it seems logical to state that the unlikely occurrence of the GE-based teaching practices of the teachers in this study was not only influenced by the teachers' belief system, but also the related contextual factors.

##### 7.1.2.1.1 Teaching practices related to the NESs' norms

In discussing the teaching practices based on the NESs' norms, the case of T2 is of relevance. As presented in 6.3.3.1.1, this participant was the only one whose beliefs about ELT firmly conformed to the NESs' norms according to all of his responses given to the semi-structured interviews and a group interview. Therefore, his teaching practices in the classroom called 'Public Speaking and Oral Presentation' always demonstrated his emphasis on the NESs' speaking norms, including correct pronunciation, stress, and intonations based on the NESs' standard language (e.g. dictionaries). What is more, this teacher often provided direct feedback to students when they made errors and referred to such errors as

what he called 'Englishes' which Thai people should not follow.[27] This result of T2 supports the earlier discussion about the power of 'core beliefs' which are explicit, stable, and strong in controlling other cognitive constructs (e.g. other beliefs and attitudes) and teachers' actions in classrooms (e.g. Gabillon, 2012). Additionally, it advocated the researcher's discussion about the teachers' agency in classrooms (Fitzpatrick, 2011, Watson Todd, 2005), which has a direct impact on the students' learning process. This is because the case of T2 illustrated how a teacher who strongly conformed to the NESs' norms, and taught his students to follow what he believed in and to reject what he disagreed with, might generate problems outside the classrooms for students, as revealed by many empirical studies (e.g. Al Azri and Al-Rashdi, 2014, Illés and Akcan, 2017, Lewkowicz and Leung, 2017, Hall and Wicaksono, 2013).

Apart from T2, there were other teachers who also performed teaching practices related to the NESs' norms. This included T6 who taught ESP to Western Music students and tended to use the teaching materials that conformed to NESs rather than to NNESs, based on his beliefs concerning learning English with the NESs as a more effective way to improve the students' English ability than with the NNESs.[28] But, it is interesting that during his teaching practices, the researcher observed teacher-student negotiation about the classroom materials (e.g. YouTube videos) before they made a final agreement to use the one presented by the NESs (as his students also wanted to listen to accents of NESs rather than of NNESs).

It appears that the case of T6 is quite different from T2 discussed above although their practices similarly showed conformity to the NESs' norms. That is to say, while the practices of T2 were dominated by the teacher (i.e. teacher agency), T6 had created a chance for his students to engage with the content used in their classroom for their benefits (i.e. classroom negotiation). Therefore, the case of T6 is seen as contradictory to prior studies that criticised the students' limited involvement in the process of rating or selecting material, leading to heavy reliance on teachers' knowledge, evaluation, and use of materials (e.g. Gray, 2010, Canagarajah, 1999b).

However, the result regarding the similar teacher-student preference of English in the classroom (e.g. English accents) is consistent with some GE studies, which also found the teachers and students' desired NESs as an appropriate group of English

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[27] See examples 5.10, 5.23, 6.6 and Appendices J.1 and J.2

[28] See Appendix J.4

speakers to follow in the classroom (e.g. Ranta, 2010). From this result, if the teacher and students' preferences for English are different (e.g. students prefer NESs while teachers want to focus on GE), it may link back to the previous discussion concerning the students as one of the key factors impeding the teachers' GE-based practices in classrooms, as stated by Timmis (2002). Therefore, it seems to be essential to study the students' preference about types of English for further studies in the Thai context if there is a desire to raise the awareness of GE in Thai classrooms more effectively. However, it should be noted, in accordance with Jindapitak and Teo (2013a), that although some Thai students prefer to learn English based on the NESs' models, the Thai teachers should not blindly adopt the NESs' models as the sole authoritative figure in the language curriculum and ignore other models. This is because there may be other students who do not want to learn and use inner-circle Englishes and their voices must also be heard (ibid, 2013a, p. 201). In addition, by doing this, the researcher agrees with Kumaravadivelu (2003) that teachers of English should avoid the classroom pedagogy which is based on the mainstream one-size-fits-all approach that adheres to the pursuit of native-speaker scholarly knowledge or wisdom, given that it may not be suitable for all students in the classroom.

### 7.1.2.1.2    Teaching practices related to the GE perspective

This section moves on to discuss the results of teachers' practices based on the GE perspective found in this study. It should be noted that there may be some overlaps with the previous section (7.1.1.3) which also presented how the teachers' beliefs in relation to GE influenced their GE-based practices.

Regarding the results obtained, in contrast to the teaching practices conformed to the NESs' norms presented above, there were only some GE-based practices observed in this study. As noted at the beginning of the section (7.1.2.1), the unlikely occurrence of this kind of teachers' practice tended to be influenced by various factors, including the limited number of participants who held the GE-related beliefs and the influence of some contextual factors on their belief implementation. Apart from these two reasons, the researcher found that the extent to which the participants understood the concept of GE could also affect their practices. That is to say, as partly discussed in 7.1.1.3, although the participants in this study expressed some beliefs related to GE, few of them adequately understood the concept and some of them even held misconceptions. As a result, this may have led to negative consequences which included the

awareness of GE in classrooms (e.g. Jenkins, 2005a, Wang, 2014, Litzenberg, 2013, Jenkins, 2005b).

However, despite the factors explained above, some practices based on the GE perspective were observed. This result was interrelated with Sifakis (2017) who described that although teachers show no (or implicit/unclear) knowledge of ELF, which means they are unaware of ELF, they may unknowingly integrate ELF in their classrooms. For example, T7, who held an unclear understanding of ELF, had selected the audio recordings which contained NNESs' English communication to encourage his students' listening skills. T7 explained that he wanted to expose his students to different types of English speakers as much as possible to further their communication skills. Apart from T7, T9 and T10, who also did not reflect any obvious awareness of GE in their responses to any research instruments, had included contents representing local uses of English (e.g. Thai names for people and place in English contents) in their online course named 'Ready English' rather than using the English names, as similarly had their colleagues in another course (see 6.4.3.2).

In addition to the above cases of teaching practices performed by those teachers who held no or unclear knowledge of GE, the researcher explored some more GE-based teaching practices of teachers who showed a clear understanding of GE in their responses. This included T5 who raised her students' awareness of the GE issues (e.g. WEs and ELF) both inside and outside classrooms. For example, in one of her MA classrooms (i.e. TEFL), she introduced the knowledge of WEs and ELF to raise her MA students' awareness of the global spread of English.[29] Also, for her practices outside the classroom, T5 said that she often convinced English major students to adjust their negative attitudes towards the English of Filipino teachers in the department and to be open to different kinds of English in the present day.[30] Apart from T5, the researcher also observed that T1 and T4, who consistently expressed positive beliefs related to GE throughout the interviews, had performed some GE-based teaching practices. Such practices included their inclusion of GE knowledge in various postgraduate modules (e.g. English as an International Language, Advanced English Communication, Teaching English as an International Language, and Intercultural Communication)[31] (see also 6.4.3.1.1).

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[29] See the field notes for classroom observation of T5 in Appendices J.2 and J.3
[30] See examples 5.19 and 5.27
[31] See Appendix L.1

Accordingly, the results from T5, T1 and T4 presented above tended to support Sifakis (2009) who explained that, apart from the requirement about teacher autonomy, the teachers' positive attitude towards ELF is important if ELF issues are to be attached to the curriculum designed by EFL teachers. This is because such teachers often have strong perceptions about what is 'correct' and 'appropriate' in their language communication (especially in the expanding circle where EFL teaching is mostly dependent on inner circle norms). This means that ELF teaching will not merely be a matter of becoming acquainted with excerpts from the variously published ELF corpora or reading the ELF literature. It is required that EFL teachers critically approach ELF research and try to see whether they can find applications for their own teaching context (ibid, 2009, p.231-232). This issue is examined further in next section discussing the relationship among the teachers' beliefs about ELT, awareness of GE, and teaching practices.

### 7.1.2.2    Beliefs, practices, and awareness of GE influenced each other

#### 7.1.2.2.1    Beliefs affected practices and awareness of GE

The above discussions have led to this section, which aims to summarise the relationships among the teachers' ELT beliefs, awareness of GE, and teaching practices. From the results, it can be stated that the relationships among these constructs are complex as they are influential on each other. This includes the relationship in the form of beliefs affecting practices and awareness of GE. Taking the case of T5 presented above as an example, her firmly held ELT belief related to GE influenced her awareness of GE and, thus, her GE-based practices both inside and outside her classrooms. In addition, although it is contradictory to the case of T5, the case of T2 may also show the effects of the ELT beliefs on teaching practices and awareness of GE. That is, this participant, who held strong ELT beliefs conformed to the NESs' norms and knew about GE issues but disagreed with this concept (see 6.3.3.1.1), had rejected the implementation of GE in his classrooms and insisted on following the NESs' norms.

To discuss the relationship among beliefs, awareness, and practices from the cases of T5 and T2, it is necessary to go back to the above discussion of the effects of the teachers' attitudes toward ELF on ELF practices (e.g. Sifakis, 2009, Jenkins, 2007) (see 7.1.2.1.2). As seen from T5 and T2, their GE-based practices were dependent on their attitudes towards GE, which were directly informed by the ELT beliefs they held. For instance, the ELT beliefs based on GE influenced T5 to hold positive attitudes towards GE, while the ELT beliefs conformed to NESs caused T2

to have negative attitudes towards GE. From this kind of relationship, the researcher thus agrees with Woolard (1992, 2015) who suggested that ELF researchers should engage with teachers' existing beliefs and pay closer attention to teachers' levels of awareness of ELF as well as their understanding of what ELF means for their pedagogic contexts, if they aim to develop any kind of new practice related to ELF.

### 7.1.2.2.2   **Practices affected beliefs and awareness of GE**

Another direction of the relationship among the three constructs of teachers may be seen in the form of teaching practices affecting ELT beliefs and awareness of GE. One of the clear examples illustrating this relationship can be seen in the case of T4. This participant had used the department's policy (i.e. using over 70 per cent English in the classroom) with the aim of increasing students' language ability in an ESP course, but she finally received students' negative feedback concerning her use of English as a medium in instruction.[32] This teaching outcome was reflected in T4's change of beliefs towards ESP teaching and students, as well as her awareness of the use of English in classrooms. This is because she claimed that such a policy might not suit all groups of students and it may instead cause adverse learning outcomes to some of them (e.g. students with low language proficiency). This result shows that it is evident that her practice had affected her beliefs and, at the same time, had raised her awareness of the use of English to communicate in classrooms consisting of different types of English speakers (i.e. language proficiency).

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[32] See examples 5.36 and 6.8

A similar case may be seen when T9 explained that she was faced with a teaching problem caused by the course syllabus designed by other teachers (see 6.4.3.1.2). For example, in the course called 'English for Communication', T9 had to focus mainly on linguistic rules (e.g. Phonetics and Phonology) which she found to be a hindrance for students' communication practice during her class. Therefore, after the course was completed, she aimed to revise the syllabus and to add some contents (e.g. communicative strategies or skills) which seemed to be more helpful for the students' practices. From this case, the researcher perceives a similarity with the case of T4 explained above, especially when the teaching practices caused T9 to reflect on her students' learning problems, which tended to be a source of her awareness of GE. More importantly, the result of her practice had influenced her to form a belief that teachers of English should include students' voices in their teaching practices in order to facilitate more positive learning outcomes of students.[33]

Building from the cases of T4 and T9, the researcher, thus, acknowledges previous studies that suggested placing more focus on contextual factors like the prescribed policy, curriculum, and syllabus (Jenkins, 2013, Kirkgöz, 2009, Kirkgöz, 2007, Kirkpatrick, 2012a, McMillan and Rivers, 2011). This is because these factors can influence the inconsistency between the teachers' beliefs and teaching practices, which can affect not only their teaching performance, but also the learning outcomes of the students. One of the contextual factors explored in this study included the English department policy, which many participants claimed to be a hindrance for their practices. With this in mind, it seems logical to support McMillan and Rivers (2011) who suggested program managers (and related sectors) should consult the teachers who will have to implement such policy in classrooms, as well as to work with their personal pedagogical beliefs in order to have a much better chance of helping teachers to help their students to learn.

To summarise this section of RQ2, the teachers' practices based on the GE perspective were barely observed in this study. This result may be influenced by the fact that many teachers held ELT beliefs that conformed to the NESs' norms, which directly meant that their practices were more based on the beliefs related to NESs. Also, there were different types of contextual factors hindering the teachers' belief implementation in classrooms, which implied that although the beliefs related to GE were also explored, the GE-based practices were still affected by some

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[33] See example 6.9

relevant factors, which may include subject matters, students, and institution's policy. Consequently, these results led to the conclusion that there are two types of relationship among the teachers' beliefs about ELT, awareness of GE, and teaching practices. One referred to when the beliefs affected practices and awareness, and the other included when the practices could inform beliefs and awareness.

## 7.2 A summary of the discussion chapter

In summary, this chapter discussed the research results in relation to two central research questions (RQs) and the previous literature. The early sections discussed the results of RQ1 which concerned the Thai university teachers' beliefs about ELT. The findings demonstrate that three beliefs about ELT were explored in this study including beliefs about English language, beliefs about ELT in relation to the NESs' norms, and beliefs about ELT in relation to the GE perspective. After examining these beliefs, it was perceived that the beliefs about English language played a role as a core belief controlling the other two types of beliefs, which were thus claimed to be peripheral. Also, in discussing these beliefs, there were some related issues that arose throughout, such as the standard language ideology and native speakerism. These issues were found in the participants' language beliefs, which had an influence on their beliefs about teaching English. The final part of the early section involved the discussion of the factors influencing the teachers' beliefs. From the results, the factors could be classified into internal and external factors.

The later sections of this chapter mainly focused on the teachers' teaching practices in accordance with RQ2, which asked about the relationship among the teachers' practices, their beliefs about ELT, and awareness of GE. In discussing this RQ, some examples of the teachers' teaching practices were illustrated, such as the practices based on the NESs' norms and the practices conformed to the GE perspective. This discussion had led the researcher to discover that the GE-based practices in this study were less observed than the practices based on the NESs' norms. The factors influencing this result were not only related to the fact that the majority of the participants held beliefs conformed to the NESs' norms, but also the influence of some contextual factors. In addition to these factors, the researcher found that teachers' familiarity with or understanding of GE was another important factor that could affect their GE practices. Finally, the chapter categorised patterns of the relationship among the ELT beliefs, awareness of GE, and teaching practices into two directions; one referred to when the ELT beliefs

affect awareness of GE and thus teaching practices, and the other referred to when the teaching practices influenced the teachers to form beliefs and awareness.

# Chapter 8 Conclusion

## 8.1 Introduction

This final chapter presents a summary of the thesis. Initially, the rationale for the research will be re-stated, followed by the research questions, the methodology used and a brief summary of the results. Then, it moves on to illustrate the limitations, contributions, and implications of the research before summarising the chapter as well as the whole research project.

## 8.2 Research rationale

The motivation to conduct this research stemmed from the researcher's observation of the standard language ideology in the Thai context. As illustrated early in Chapter 1, many Thai people firmly conformed to the native English speakers' (NESs) norms of using English language, leading to their comparison of the use of English between NESs and other non-native English speakers (NNESs) including Thai people. In particular, if they found any English features of NNESs divergent from the NESs' English, they would regard such English as having a deficit, error, or antiquity (e.g. Jenkins, 2000, House, 1999). For instance, a group of Thai people regarded the use of English by Miss Yingluck Shinnawatra, a former prime minister of Thailand, as a "national embarrassment and even liability" only because her English contained grammatical mistakes, mispronunciations, and a unique Thai accent. From this observation, the researcher generated two questions; one concerning 'how' do Thai people acquire this kind of English language ideology? and another regarding 'to what extent' are they aware of the current change and status of English language both globally and locally?

These questions provided the motivation to seek sources of the English language ideology in Thailand, and consequently to focus on the educational sector, which has a great influential role in Thai students' exposure to English language. This was particularly relevant to the teachers of English language who have a direct relationship with students because, as Creese et al. (2014) claimed, what the teachers transfer to their students in classrooms often becomes an integral part of the students' knowledge and action outside the classroom. From this fact, the researcher perceived the importance of studying what the teachers bring into classrooms to teach their students, in particular from the perspective of teachers'

beliefs about English language teaching. It should be noted that when the researcher used the term 'teachers' beliefs', this referred to a set of teachers' beliefs or conceptual representations whereby the teachers store their knowledge in relation to teaching (see also 2.1.1). In addition, this term is one of the common terms used among researchers in the field of teachers' cognition. Hence, this is to clarify that 'teachers' cognition' and 'teachers' beliefs' were used differently in this study; the former refers to a field of study that contains beliefs and other terms such as attitudes and perceptions in its definition, while the latter specifically refers to a term representing what teachers believe about some particular aspects (e.g. teaching English language) (see more in 2.1.1 and 2.4).

In addition, in this study, the researcher perceived the teachers' sense of 'educational agency' (Fitzpatrick, 2011, Watson Todd, 2005) to be important for current teaching and learning English in Thailand. This means current teachers may have to be more aware of what to teach to their students (i.e. awareness of GE), especially when the national policy of English education often receives criticisms for its ineffective classroom practices (e.g. Darasawang and Watson Todd, 2012; Watson Todd, 2005) and, more importantly, when the status and use of English in the country have gone beyond the monolingual model of English based on the NESs (Baker and Jarunthawatchai, 2017). Also, there seemed to be a lack of research focused on studying teachers' beliefs about ELT, particularly in relation to the GE approach in this country. Thus, the researcher aimed to contribute to these fields of study and relate them to the understanding of the Thai socio-educational context of ELT, as the results may to some extent be useful for designing or reforming the educational policies of the country.

The rationale of the study, thus, contributed to three research aims. First, it aimed to investigate the Thai university teachers' beliefs about ELT in order to gain an insight into how these affect their teaching of English for the benefit of gaining an understanding of their teaching practices. Second, it sought to identify their awareness of GE in an attempt to perceive to what extent they were aware of the global phenomenon of English language use. Third, it explored if the teachers' beliefs about ELT and awareness of GE have a relationship with teachers' teaching practices.

## 8.3 Research questions, research methodology and findings

### 8.3.1 Research questions

The above research aims were formalised through two research questions:

1. What are the beliefs of Thai teachers of English language about ELT?
    1.1 What are the beliefs about English language?
    1.2 What are the beliefs about English language teaching in relation to the NESs' norms?
    1.3 What are the beliefs about English language teaching in relation to the GE perspective?
    1.4 What are the factors influencing teachers' beliefs about ELT?
2. What is/are the relationship(s) among teachers' practices, their beliefs about ELT, and awareness of GE?
    2.1 What are the patterns of teachers' teaching practices ?
    2.2 How can teachers' beliefs about ELT, awareness of GE, and teaching practices influence each other?

### 8.3.2 Research methodology

This study employed the qualitative research approach with the aim of dealing with complex issues of teachers including their beliefs, teaching behaviours, and awareness, as well as the relationship among these issues. Five research instruments were used in this study including surveys of teachers' backgrounds and attitudes towards ELT and GE, semi-structured interviews, focus groups, classroom observations, and document analysis. Each of these instruments together helped to answer the research questions or, in other words, to triangulate the data of the study.

The field work took place over a six month period and involved ten main participants who were teachers of English language at a Thai university. The participants were purposively selected based on their responses regarding backgrounds and attitudes, as well as their availability, given in the surveys of teachers' background and attitudes towards ELT and GE. Given the great familiarity of the researcher with the target setting, the researcher had an insider's perspective, which also helped to make the data collection convenient. However, in order to avoid the researcher's bias with the setting and participants, this study has ensured the notion of trustworthiness by employing the outsider's perspective,

such as the use of a non-participant observer while collecting data and the help of external researchers in data interpretation (e.g. thesis supervisors and PhD peers). The data analysis process was based on the qualitative content analysis (QCA) approach. It began by transcribing, translating from a Thai to an English version, and coding based on the inductive-deductive approach with the help of NVivo 11 software. The codes obtained were then categorised into themes and were given descriptions.

### 8.3.3    Research findings

In answer to RQ1, the findings suggested that the teachers' beliefs about ELT in this study consisted of three types of beliefs: beliefs about English language, beliefs about ELT in relation to the NESs' norms, and beliefs about ELT in relation to the GE perspective. Among these beliefs, the beliefs about English language played a role as a 'core' belief influencing the remainder, which were 'peripheral' beliefs. This means the teachers' beliefs about teaching English were dependent on how they conceptualised the English language. For instance, if the participants thought that English belongs only to the NESs, their other beliefs (e.g. beliefs about language modification and language teaching) would most often be found to conform to this kind of belief. In addition, this finding contributed to an exploration of the ideology of standard language and native speakerism, in particular in relation to the teachers' ELT beliefs conformed to the NESs' norms, which tended to generate negative rather than positive effects for both teachers and students in English language classrooms.

On the contrary, the findings also demonstrated that if the language beliefs of the participants were more fluid and flexible their ELT beliefs would be more open for GE issues. For example, some teachers, who believed that English language can belong to or can be modified by any speakers of English, presented beliefs about ELT that were more related to GE issues like World Englishes (WEs) and English as a lingua franca (ELF). Nonetheless, while discussing the ELT beliefs related to GE issues, the researcher explored the fact that many of them still referred to issues related to NESs' norms (e.g. viewing that standard language is still important). This finding, thus, suggested that they held contradictory beliefs about ELT that conformed to both NESs and GE. In addition, the findings disclosed that few of the participants in this study adequately understood GE, and this issue tended to be a crucial source of their misconceptions, negative attitudes towards GE, and, more importantly, a lack of awareness of GE in their practices.

The findings illustrated two types of factors influencing beliefs: internal and external factors. The main internal factor found in this study, which means things residing in the cognitive system, referred to the teachers' beliefs about English language. This result confirmed the discussion concerning the language belief as a core belief in the teachers' belief system, given that it had power to control not only other cognitive constructs (e.g. other beliefs and attitudes), but also the teaching practices of teachers. The external factors or the contextual factors consisted of the teachers' experiences with different people (e.g. parents, former teachers, peers, colleagues, and students) and institutional regulations (e.g. policy and curriculum). Similar to the internal factors, the external factors could affect both the formation and implementation of teachers' beliefs in this study.

In answer to RQ2, the findings revealed a limited number of teaching practices based on the GE perspective. This result tended to be affected by the fact that many of the participants held beliefs that conformed to the NESs' norms and the influence of some contextual factors (e.g. students and colleagues). With regard to the teaching practices based on the NESs' norms, the case of T2 was of most relevance as this participant showed a strong belief conformed to the NESs' norms in all sessions of data collection. His practices, for instance, consisted of an emphasis on the NESs' speaking norms (e.g. correct pronunciation, stress, and intonation based on the NESs' dictionaries) in his Thai students' communication practices.

In discussing the GE-based practices, the findings disclosed that, apart from the limited number of participants whose beliefs related to GE and the contextual factors, the extent to which the participants understood GE could influence their GE-based practices. This result linked with the results of RQ1, which explained that the teachers' lack of familiarity with GE could lead to a lack of awareness of GE. Additionally, it connected with the concept of implicit and explicit beliefs which were influential on the teachers' decisions in their practices. For example, T5, who held a proper understanding of GE, believed that some GE issues are essential for Thai classrooms; hence, she implemented this belief in her classroom to teach postgraduate students.

Consequently, based on the results both for RQ1 and RQ2, the relationship among the teachers' ELT beliefs, awareness of GE, and teaching practices could be summarised in two directions. The first direction was when the ELT beliefs affected the awareness of GE as well as teaching practices. To illustrate, when the teachers held ELT beliefs that strongly conformed to the NESs' norms, they performed their teaching practices based on their beliefs. For example, T2, who held strong beliefs

related to the NESs' standard pronunciation and was aware of GE issues (e.g. WEs), firmly emphasised the correct pronunciation based on the NESs' standard (e.g. NESs' dictionaries) and provided direct feedback when students made speaking errors. This example clearly shows how the beliefs affected practices and awareness of GE, as T2 performed practices based on his beliefs and, at the same time, did not raise his students' awareness of GE despite the fact that he knew there were different Englishes in current times.

The second direction of the relationship among teachers' beliefs, practices, and awareness of GE referred to when the practices affected the beliefs about ELT and the awareness of GE. As can be seen in the case of T4, this participant adjusted her beliefs about teaching ESP because she observed that her students had failed to understand her use of 70% English in the classroom (based on the department policy) and she received students' negative feedback towards her teaching in the English language. T4 explained that her belief about teaching ESP, which conformed to the department policy, may not be suitable for all groups of students, and it may instead result in negative learning outcomes for some of them, such as those with low language proficiency. In the case of T4, it was evident that her practice had affected her beliefs and it had simultaneously raised her awareness of the use of English to communicate in classrooms which consisted of different types of English speakers.

In summary, the findings from this research provided an empirical basis for the beliefs about ELT, the awareness of GE, as well as the ELT teaching practices of Thai university teachers.

## 8.4    Limitations of the study and further research

This study contained a number of limitations. The first limitation is related to the generalisation of the research findings to other contexts including studies in different universities both in Thailand and in other countries. This is because the researcher employed a set of research methods which were specific and limited to this study. For example, this study involved a relatively small number of participants (i.e. ten Thai university teachers of English language). This issue may restrict the possibility of generalising the results to the larger population, not only within the department of English of the research setting, but also in other contexts. In addition, as this study was conducted in one Thai university located in northern Thailand, the data obtained may only represent the situation of English language

education of this region, which may or may not be similar to the situation in other regions. In particular, as English is currently used and taught in different parts of the country there may be differences in teaching and learning methods (including teachers, teachers' beliefs, and teaching practices). Thus, the results of this study may not be appropriate to represent other contexts of the country. Moreover, this study took place in the second semester of the academic year 2017/18 or between mid-January and mid-June 2017. This indicates that its results were able to capture a picture of teachers' beliefs, teaching practices, and awareness of GE over a certain timescale (i.e. six months). Hence, although other research has employed research methods which are similar to this study (e.g. participants and setting), the results obtained may still be different.

However, as explained in the methodology chapter (see 4.4), the researcher dealt with this issue of the difficulty of generalisation through the use of a concept known as 'transferability' (Lincoln and Guba, 1985, Richards, 2003). For example, Richards (2003) described that in qualitative research the concept of transferability may be more appropriate than concepts of generalisability. This is because the aim of general qualitative research is to connect research from other contexts by providing enough detail which allows other researchers to share their understanding and to find instantiations in their own professional experiences (e.g. to connect teachers' beliefs about ELT in Thailand and in Japan). Therefore, it may be argued that despite the difficulty in generalising the results of this study to other settings (i.e. other groups of participants, contexts, and timescales), the findings of this study have provided in-depth data through the use of a variety of research instruments. Further research may find it useful for different purposes, especially research about teachers' beliefs in relation to the educational reform in Thailand and similar contexts (e.g. Asian contexts).

The second limitation of this study concerns the influence of the research process on the research findings. This includes when the research process affected both 'how' data was collected and 'what' data was received. For the former case, for example, the researcher found the use of different research instruments (i.e. surveys, interviews, focus groups, observations, and document analysis) was influential on many teachers' refusal to take part in this study. This impeded the researcher's opportunity to obtain some potential data as, according to the survey results, many of the teachers who refused to participate in this study had expressed a certain level of awareness of GE (see 5.1.1). In addition, it seems appropriate to point out that the timing of data collection may have limited the chance to obtain

data. Collecting data in the second semester (January – June 2017) meant that the researcher was unable to observe teachers' teaching practices in some classrooms related to GE (e.g. Intercultural communication and English as an international language), given that such classes were taught in another semester. It is believed that the observation of such classrooms may provide some interesting data, including the teachers' beliefs towards GE and their GE-based teaching practices, observation of which was quite limited in the semester when the data collection of this study took place.

The effect of the research process on the data obtained meant that the data collection period of this study narrowed the understanding of teachers' beliefs about ELT. In other words, it restricted the scope of the data obtained concerning teachers' beliefs given that, as explained in 2.1.2.3, some kinds of teachers' beliefs can develop over time. This may include the beliefs related to ELT in this study, because the results presented that some teachers changed or adjusted their beliefs to be congruent with their teaching contexts (see examples 6.8 and 6.9, p. 137-138). This implies that the results received from the six-month data collection were incomplete and did not reflect the whole picture of their beliefs. In addition, this issue concurs the above discussion concerning the difficulty of generalising the research results, which was influenced by the research timescale. Due to these factors, the researcher agrees with some researchers (e.g. Levin, 2015) who argued that further researchers in the field of teachers' beliefs should conduct longitudinal studies in order to obtain a more effective reflection of the teachers' belief system as a whole, not only some parts of it, as has occurred in many studies with a short research timescale.

Finally, the relationship between the researcher and the participants could be another influence on the data received. The researcher's familiarity with the participants and setting may have caused problems of bias in the process of data interpretation (see 4.3.2.2). However, to prevent this issue, the researcher employed external reliability to obtain an outsider's perspective. Hence, the results passed not only through the perspective of the researcher, but also through other experienced researchers including the thesis supervisor, advisor, and PhD peers. Therefore, the trustworthiness regarding the data interpretation can be confirmed for further studies that wish to follow or refer to this study.

## 8.5    Contributions of the research

The findings of this study have made some contributions to the existing body of research. Firstly, it supported previous studies that combined the theory of teachers' cognition (e.g. beliefs, attitudes) with the framework of GE (e.g. Dewey, 2012; Hall et al., 2013; Jenkins, 2007; Sifakis and Sougari, 2005). This included the results concerning the teachers' beliefs (e.g. about English language and ELT) as a key factor influencing the teachers' teaching practices and awareness of GE.

In addition, the findings acknowledged some studies focusing on English education in the Thai context, especially those that explored the problems of Thai ELT and suggested moving beyond the ELT approach conformed to the NESs' norms (Baker and Jarunthawatchai, 2017, Baker, 2015b, Buripakdi, 2012, Jindapitak and Teo, 2013a, Snodin and Young, 2015). This is because this study also explored the teachers' conformity to the NESs' norms as a cause of problems not only for the teachers themselves (e.g. I-am-not-native-speaker-syndrome), but also for the students (e.g. unfamiliarity with different Englishes).

## 8.6    Implications of further research and recommendations for Thai ELT

In addition to the contributions to the field of teachers' cognition and GE, the findings of this study demonstrated some implications for further research. First, given the results suggesting that few teachers in this study had adequate knowledge of GE and this had led to negative consequences (e.g. misconceptions, negative attitudes, and unawareness of GE in practices), it seems important for further research and teacher education institutions, particularly in the Thai context, to raise Thai teachers' awareness of GE (e.g. ELF-aware teacher education; Bayyurt and Sifakis, 2015a, 2015b). For one reason, as discussed in 7.1.1.1.1, the awareness of GE may encourage the teachers to become confident in their own use and teaching of English. In other words, it may raise their sense of language ownership and legitimacy, which will be essential for their own development of teaching norms. If they do not do this they will continue following the NESs whom they perceive to be experts or the sole owners of the language (Canagarajah, 2007; Norton, 1997). However, if it is difficult to raise the awareness of GE of in-service teachers, who may have specific cognitive systems (Zhao and Zhang, 2017, Hong, 2010) (as also found in this study), the emphasis should be placed on the pre-service teachers who will soon become teachers of the English language in different

levels of the Thai education system, as this group of teachers tend to be more open to new knowledge and apply it in their own teaching practices.

Second, the findings also suggested that the students' preference of English language was an important factor influencing the teachers' classroom decisions (see 7.1.2.1.1). As this study did not explore this issue nor the students' beliefs about ELT in detail, and it could also be important for the improvement of English language education in the country, further studies should conduct research on this topic. For example, the results about teachers' ELT beliefs including practices and awareness of GE could be compared with the data received from students in order to find consistency and relationship. This may provide more insights into the situation of Thai ELT because the results received would be based on empirical evidence of both teachers and students who actually face classroom situations where English is taught and negotiated. Moreover, if the results of students showed their misconceptions or negative attitudes towards other Englishes (e.g. T5 explained that her students complained about Filipino English), as with the case of teachers' lack of awareness of GE discussed above, further research may be able to educate them with the knowledge of GE. Consequently, this knowledge may change their English learning beliefs and practices. More importantly, by doing so, raising the awareness of GE in English classrooms may be easier and more accessible.

Furthermore, as revealed above in 8.4, given the limited time period of data collection, this study may have been limited in its capture of the phenomenon of teachers' beliefs and teaching practices. Therefore, further studies may consider a longer or different data collection period if they aim to understand teachers' beliefs in relation to practices more effectively. That is to say, they should conduct longitudinal studies which are able to explain how teachers develop beliefs, how they change beliefs in cases where their beliefs are dynamic, as well as how they adjust their beliefs to be suited to their teaching practices. It has to be noted that, according to Levin (2015), longitudinal studies enable the researcher to spend a sufficient period of time discovering beliefs (e.g. more than two years), not only from semester to semester, but, for instance, from the beginning to the end of the teacher preparation programme.

Apart from the above implications for further research, there are some recommendations for Thai ELT classrooms, in particular for the Thai university teachers of English language. For instance, given the results which showed that some teaching practices (e.g. T2's practices affected by beliefs based on the NESs' norms) caused students' discomfort using English in classrooms, it seems essential

for the Thai teachers to reconsider their ELT approach applied in classrooms. To achieve this, the researcher agrees with Rose and Montakantiwong (2018) who suggested that teachers should engage in a regular self-reflective practice, considering their previous experiences and realising the reality of English usage both in global and local contexts. In particular when English is currently used internationally, they may have to veer away from the native-speaker ideology to a broader view that acknowledges the diverse froms associated with the worldwide expansion of English (P.89). By doing so is believed to be able both to embrace and to encourage students' English communication. This can be evidently seen in a study of Montakantiwong (2018) in Thailand, when the change of teaching focus from a traditional EFL to ELF aware pedagogy highlighted not only the importance of students' diverse speech as legitimate forms of language use but also the necessity of personalising their learning experience in a way that sensitises them to mutual intelligibility as the ultimate purpose in any ELF interactions.

The above discussion has led to a proposal of some ELT models based on the GE perspective that teachers may use to deal with current situations of English in the Thai context, when ELF is increasingly used in communication among Thai people and other NNESs (e.g. in ASEAN and AEC) (see also 3.3.1.1). Such models include 'the Multilingual Model of ELT' of Kirkpatrick (2011) which aims to raise awareness of the dynamicity of ASEAN Englishes and the use of ELF in multilingual settings in Asia. Given that this model also emphasises teachers' bilingualism and multilingualism (e.g. multilingual English teachers; henceforth METs), it may be useful for Thai teachers of English language because they can replace native English teachers (NETs) as a role model of using English for Thai learners. This implies that, by applying this model, the Thai teachers may feel more confident about their use and teaching of English, as well as about other aspects of English language. For example, the present study found that many Thai teachers suffered from the 'i-am-not-native-speaker' syndrome and were not confident teaching some aspects of English language although they have certificates or experience about such aspects (see T7 and T9 in examples 5.14 and 6.1, respectively).

In addition to the multilingual model for ELT, the researcher views some other GE-based ELT approaches as also beneficial for the use of English in the Thai context. For example, emphasising the importance of culture and identity in intercultural communication among ELF speakers based on Baker (2015b) may enhance the successful English communication of Thai students. This is because, in ELF communication, these two aspects can influence English communication, in

particular when ELF speakers have different linguistic and cultural backgrounds. For culture, Baker claimed that ELF users can draw on, construct, and move between global, national, and local orientations towards cultural characterisations. This reflects that ELF speakers' cultures are dynamic and fluid. In the same manner, identity is explained to be fluid, complex, constructed, and negotiated, and it is often a factor influencing communicating in a second language (L2) or other languages, especially where cultural norms and references are not shared even when communicating in a first language (L1). Given the importance of these aspects, it seems necessary for Thai ELT practices to focus on these issues in order to prepare Thai students for the complexity of the current period of ELF communication. Finally, it may also be important to address some GE issues for Thai students, such as pragmatic strategies, intelligibility, cultural sensitivity (Bowles, 2016), and knowledge of linguistic variation and localised approach (Cogo, 2016). This is because all of these aspects are seen to be able to enhance Thai students' awareness of GE in classrooms before they come face-to-face with different forms of English use in ELF communication.

## 8.7    Summary and conclusion

This chapter has aimed to summarise and provide an overview of this thesis. It began with the restatement of the research rationale. Then, it moved on to give a brief summary of the research questions, methodology, and findings. Finally, the chapter illustrated the limitations, contributions, and implications for further research as well as the recommendations for Thai ELT.

To conclude, this thesis has to return to the original rationale that motivated this study. This thesis had perceived teachers to be a significant group in the Thai educational sector who have a direct relationship with the students' language ideology formation. With this motivation, the thesis has attempted to explore patterns of the beliefs about ELT of a group of Thai university teachers and to examine whether their belief systems included an awareness of GE. More importantly, the thesis aimed to investigate whether their beliefs about ELT and awareness of GE had a particular relationship with their teaching practices. By following these aims, the results offered a theoretically and empirically based exploration, which could be useful for different purposes including for research and education. This is particularly in relation to the teachers of English language for whom the findings of this thesis may to some extent raise not only their awareness of GE, but also the awareness of their own beliefs before deciding on

their teaching practices in classrooms. This supports the researcher's hope for a better and more flexible English education system in Thailand in the near future.

# Appendix A Appendices

# Appendix B Information of senior and junior teachers

| Senior teachers | Age | Gender | Years of teaching experiences | Educational backgrounds | Research interests |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| T1 | 45s | Male | More than 15 years | - Ph.D. Applied Linguistics, United Kingdom<br>- M.Ed. English, Thailand<br>- B.Ed. English, Thailand | - English for specific purposes<br>- Task-based learning<br>- English as international language<br>- Designing teaching materials |
| T2 | 50s | Male | More than 20 years | - Ph.D. Curriculum and Instruction, Thailand<br>- M.Ed. TESOL, Australia<br>- B.Ed. English, Thailand | - Teaching writing<br>- Teacher feedback<br>- Error analysis |
| T3 | 40s | Female | More than 10 years | - Ph.D. English Language studies, Thailand<br>- M.Ed. English, Thailand<br>- B.Ed. English, Thailand | - Teacher feedback<br>- EFL writing<br>- Genre analysis |
| T4 | 40s | Female | More than 10 years | - Ph.D. Applied Linguistics, United Kingdom<br>- M.A. Applied Linguistics, United Kingdom<br>- M.Ed. TEFL, Thailand<br>- B.A. English, Thailand | - Literature teaching<br>- Critical thinking<br>- International education<br>- World Englishes<br>- Global mindedness |
| T5 | 35s | Female | More than 10 years | - Ph.D. English Language Teaching, United Kingdom<br>- M.Res. Linguistics, United Kingdom<br>- M.Ed. TEFL, Thailand<br>- B.A. English, Thailand | - Reading comprehension<br>- EFL students<br>- Metacognition<br>- Reading strategies<br>- ESP need analysis |

Appendix B

| Junior teachers | Age | Gender | Years of teaching experiences | Educational backgrounds | Research interests |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| T6 | 30s | Male | 5-10 years | - M.A. English and Communication, Thailand<br>- B.A. English, Thailand | - English literature, movies, morals<br>- Poetry teaching |
| T7 | 30s | Male | 5-10 years | - M.A. English, Thailand<br>- M.Ed. TEFL, Thailand<br>- B.Ed. Teaching English, Thailand | - Educational innovation<br>- Vocabulary learning and teaching<br>- Online multimedia for learning<br>- Autonomous learners |
| T8 | 35s | Male | More than 10 years | - M.Ed. TEFL, Thailand<br>- B.A. English, Thailand | - English discussion<br>- Reading comprehension<br>- Literacy appreciation |
| T9 | 30s | Female | 5-10 years | - M.Ed. TEFL, Thailand<br>- B.A. English, Thailand | - Teaching styles |
| T10 | 30s | Female | 5-10 years | - M.A. English for Communication, Thailand<br>- B.A. English, Thailand | - Paraphrasing strategies<br>- Communication strategies<br>- Cross-cultural communication |

Appendix C

# Appendix C Schedule of data collection

| Participants | Interviews | | | Observations | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Senior teachers | 1 | 2 | 3 | Modules | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| T1 | Week 5, 13-17 February 2017 | Week 11, 27-31 March 2017 | Week 14, 17-21 April 2017 | Progressive Reading and Writing | Week 6, Tuesday, 21$^{st}$ February 2017 | Week 12, Tuesday, 4$^{th}$ April 2017 | Week 15, Tuesday, 25$^{th}$ April 2017 |
| T2 | Week 5, 13-17 February 2017 | Week 11, 27-31 March 2017 | Week 14, 17-21 April 2017 | Public Speaking and Presentation | Week 6, Thursday, 23$^{rd}$ February 2017 | Week 12, Thursday, 6$^{th}$ April 2017 | Week 15, Thursday, 27$^{th}$ April 2017 |
| T3 | Week 5, 13-17 February 2017 | Week 11, 27-31 March 2017 | Week 14, 17-21 April 2017 | Advanced Academic English Writing | Week 6, Wednesday, 22$^{nd}$ February 2017 | Week 12, Wednesday, 5$^{th}$ April 2017 | Week 15, Wednesday, 26$^{th}$ April 2017 |
| T4 | Week 5, 13-17 February 2017 | Week 11, 27-31 March 2017 | Week 14, 17-21 April 2017 | English for Specific Purposes | Week 6, Wednesday, 22$^{nd}$ February 2017 | Week 12, Wednesday, 5$^{th}$ April 2017 | Week 15, Wednesday, 26$^{th}$ April 2017 |
| T5 | Week 5, 13-17 February 2017 | Week 11, 27-31 March 2017 | Week 14, 17-21 April 2017 | Teaching English as a Foreign Language | Week 6, Saturday, 25$^{th}$ February 2017 | Week 12, Saturday, 8$^{th}$ April 2017 | Week 15, Saturday, 29$^{th}$ April 2017 |

# Appendix C

| Participants | Interviews | | | Observations | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Junior teachers | 1 | 3 | 2 | Modules | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| T6 | Week 4, 6-10 February 2017 | Week 10, 20-24 March 2017 | Week 12, 3-7 April 2017 | English for Specific Purposes | Week 5, Thursday, 16th February 2017 | Week 11, Thursday, 30th March 2017 | Week 14, Thursday 20th February 2017 |
| T7 | Week 4, 6-10 February 2017 | Week 10, 20-24 March 2017 | Week 12, 3-7 April 2017 | English for Academic Purposes | Week 5, Monday, 13th February 2017 | Week 11, Monday, 27th March 2017 | Week 14, Monday, 17th April 2017 |
| T8 | Week 4, 6-10 February 2017 | Week 10, 20-24 March 2017 | Week 12, 3-7 April 2017 | English for Academic Purposes | Week 5, Friday, 17th February 2017 | Week 11, Friday, 31st March 2017 | Week 14, Friday, 21st April 2017 |
| T9 | Week 4, 6-10 February 2017 | Week 10, 20-24 March 2017 | Week 12, 3-7 April 2017 | English for Business Communication | Week 5, Friday, 17th February 2017 | Week 11, Friday, 31st March 2017 | Week 14, Friday, 21st April 2017 |
| T10 | Week 4, 6-10 February 2017 | Week 10, 20-24 March 2017 | Week 12, 3-7 April 2017 | English for Communication | Week 5, Wednesday, 15th February 2017 | Week 11, Wednesday, 29st March 2017 | Week 14, Wednesday, 19st April 2017 |

Appendix D

# Appendix D Survey of teachers' backgrounds and attitudes

A survey of teachers' background and attitudes towards English language teaching and Global Englishes

**Instruction**:This survey is part of the PhD thesis of Mr. Rutthaphak Huttayavilaiphan. It aims to receive background information and attitudes towards teaching English in the current period and the global spread of English as well as English language variation of Thai university teachers at the University of XXX. Details of the survey are presented below.

**Section 1**: General information of the respondents (6 items)

**Section 2**: Attitudes of the respondents towards English teaching and learning (3 items)

**Section 3**: Attitudes of the respondents towards Global Englishes (6 items)

.......................................................................................................................

**Section 1: General information of the respondents**

**Instruction:** Please respond to the following questions by writing or placing a check mark (√)

**1**.Please write your **name** and **surname**

.............................................................................................................................

**2**. Please indicate a range of your **age**

( ) 25 – 30    ( ) 31 - 35    ( ) 36 – 40    ( ) 41- 45    ( ) 46 – 50    ( ) 51 – 55    ( ) 56+

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3. Please indicate your experiences of **education**, programmes of study, and places of study

  <u>**Example**</u>  Master of Arts  (English),  University of XXX, Thailand

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4. Please range your **English teaching** experiences both in university and other levels

 ( ) 0 – 3 years  ( )  4 - 6 years  ( ) 7 – 10 years

 ( ) 11- 15 years  ( ) more than 15 years

5. Please write names of the course you are currently teaching in this semester (2/2017)

(1)..............................................................................................................

(2)..............................................................................................................

(3)..............................................................................................................

(4)..............................................................................................................

6. Have you ever experienced using English in the countries where English is used for communication?

  ( ) Yes, I have. (Please indicate where)

     ......................................................................

  ( ) No, I have not.

Appendix D

**Section 2: Attitudes of the respondents towards English teaching and learning**

**Instruction:** Please respond to the following questions by writing or placing a check mark (√)

**Section 2.1: Attitudes towards teaching English to Thai speakers of English**

**7.** In teaching English to Thai speakers of English language, please indicate levels of importance of the following **aspects that teachers of English should focus on**.

|  | Most important | Important | Quite important | Fairly important | Not important | N/A |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Grammar |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Vocabulary |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Accent |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Accuracy |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Pronunciation |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Fluency |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Communicative competence |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Intercultural awareness |  |  |  |  |  |  |

**8.** Do you agree with a statement saying that Thai learners of English can improve their English ability faster if they learn with native speakers of English?

( ) Yes, I do. Because.................................................................................
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      .................................................................................................................

( ) No, I do not. Because............................................................................
      .................................................................................................................
      .................................................................................................................

( ) Both yes and no. Because.......................................................................
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9. Where do you think English teaching and learning materials should come from?

( ) English as a native language (ENL) countries (e.g. USA, UK, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, because……………………………………………………………………

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( ) English as a second language (ESL) countries (e.g. Singapore, Indonesia, The Philippines, Malaysia). Because……………………………………………………………

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( ) English as a foreign language (EFL) countries (e.g. Laos, France, Thailand). Because……………………………………………………………………………………………

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( ) Other opinions. (Please indicate)……………… ……………………………………

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## Section 3: Attitudes of the respondents towards Global Englishes

**Instruction:** Please respond to the following questions by writing or placing a check mark (√)

10. What do you think about Thai accents of English language? (You can select more than one item)
( ) Unpleasant
( ) Unpleasant but easy to understand
( ) Pleasant, easy to understand, and unique (No need to change)

( ) Pleasant, easy to understand but needing to be improve to be most native-like
( ) Other opinions. (Please indicate)……………………………………………………………

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Appendix D

**11.** What is/are your opinion(s) towards varieties of English? Is this issue positive or negative for English and English speakers in the current period?

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**12.** Do you know English as a lingua franca (ELF)? If your answer is 'know well', please give a brief definition of ELF and answer question no. 13.

( ) No, I do not. (Please skip to question no.14)

( ) Yes, I do. But I can neither remember nor understand the concept. (Please skip to question no.14).

( ) Yes, I do. I know it well and ELF is ...........................................................

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**13.** In what way we can implement the concept of ELF into teaching and learning English in Thai classrooms?

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14. As one of the members of ASEAN Economic Community (AEC), to what extent do you think we should be aware of using English of other members and why?

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15. If you have any suggestions or inquiries regarding this survey and research, please indicate below. It can be beneficial for this research and researcher.

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**End of the survey** - **Thank you**

After completing this survey, are you available to provide information for other research instruments of this research (including interviews, focus groups, observations, and document analysis)?

    ( ) No, I am not.

    ( ) Yes, I am, but only for some instruments (please indicate).

        ( ) Interviews

        ( ) Focus groups

        ( ) Observations

        ( ) Document analysis

    ( ) Yes, I am available for all instruments and please contact me via:

        ( ) Personal mobile no...........................................................

        ( ) Email address ...............................................................

        ( ) Facebook address ...........................................................

# Appendix E  Results of surveys of teachers' backgrounds and attitudes

| Question | Result | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 7. In teaching English to Thai speakers of English language, please indicate levels of importance of the following aspects that teachers of English should focus on.<br><br>*28 participants rated from 0 to 5 (not important to most important) | **Vocabulary** | **Grammar** | **accent** | **pronunciation** | **accuracy** | **fluency** | **communicative competence** | **intercultural awareness** | **total** |
| | (N=102)<br>72.86% | (N=126)<br>90% | (N=88)<br>62.9% | (N=104)<br>74.29% | (N=115)<br>82.1% | (N=114)<br>81.4% | (N=111)<br>79.2% | (N=102)<br>72.9% | (N=140)<br>100% |
| 8. Do you agree with a statement saying that Thai learners of English can improve their English ability faster if they learn with native speakers of English? | **Yes. 39.3% (N=11)**<br><br>**Reasons:**<br>- Students can accquire correct pronunciation and accent of NESs.<br>- It can reinforce English communication (e.g. atmosphere, context).<br>- Students can learn with language owners.<br>- Students can acquire correct/standard rules of thelanguage. | | | **No. 7.1% (N=2)**<br><br>**Reasons:**<br>- Some native speakers are poor at teaching English<br>- It should be dependent on teachers' ability rather than their non/nativeness. | | | **Both. 53.6% (N=15)**<br><br>**Reasons:**<br>- It should be dependent on skills of learning. For instance, speaking and listening should be taguht by native teachers, while reading and writing should be taguht by Thai teachers.<br>- It can depend on students (e.g. their personality, attitude, age, preference) | | (N=28)<br>100% |

# Appendix E

| 9. Where do you think English teaching and learning materials should come from? | Native countries. 28.6% (N=8)<br><br>**Reasons:**<br>- They are accurate in language use (e.g. standard, rules, idioms, skills).<br>- They know the culture of the language. | Non-native countries 14.3% (N=4)<br><br>**Reasons:**<br>- They understand the context (e.g. problems and cultures of learning).<br>- They are able to include local cultures for local students through English learning. | Both. A cooperation of native and non-native countries. 57.1% (N=16)<br>**Reasons:**<br>- It should be dependent on teaching and learning purposes. For example, to study English for studying abroad should use materials from native countries, to study general communication should use materials from local contexts.<br>- Teaching English should integrate both standardised and localised knowledge. | | (N=28)<br>100% |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 10. What do you think about Thai accents of English language? | Unacceptable. 3.58% (N=1)<br><br>**Reasons**: N/A | Acceptable. 21.42% (N=6)<br><br>**Reasons:**<br>- As long as it is understandable/ communicable.<br>- It is easy to understand among Thais.<br>- Thai accent is unique. | Both. 67.86% (N=19)<br><br>**Reasons:**<br>- It is easy to understand but it needs to be native-like as much as possible.<br>- Although Thai accent is easy to understand but it sometimes needs to focus on final sounds e.g. –es, -ed) to | Others. 7.14% (N=2)<br><br>**Reasons:**<br>- Accents can be diverse, not fixed.<br>- Accent is individual. | (N=28)<br>100% |

| | | | | be native-like. | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 11. What is/are your opinion(s) towards varieties of English? Is this issue positive or negative for English and English speakers in the current period? | **Positive. 53.57% (N=15)**<br><br>**Reasons:**<br>- It is more convenient for communication (e.g. no fixed rules or standard, more options of language use, increase confidence).<br>- Learners can learn different accents/ cultures/sources of knowledge through different varieties.<br>- It can empower users of English of different regions in the world.<br>- It can develop or change the language (e.g. language creativity and flexibility) | **Negative. 14.29% (N=4)**<br><br>**Reasons:**<br>- It can generate complexity or confusion for language use and learning. | **Both. 14.29% (N=4)**<br><br>**Reasons:**<br>- It can generate diversity but it may result failure in communication because there is no fixed rule.<br>- The positive side is users do not have to be worried about their English but they may gain confusion because different varieties have different rules and cultures. | **Others. 7.14% (N=2)**<br><br>**Reasons:**<br>- There is not right or wrong. It is just nature of language.<br>- Language can change all the time. | N/A. 10.71% (N=3) | (N=28) 100% |

| 12. Do you know English as a lingua franca (ELF)? If so, please explain what is that and answer next question (question 13).  * Yes = They are fully understood and are able to explain.  Yes, but I forget what it is = They have come across this concept but cannot describe it properly.  No = They have no knowledge of ELF. | **Yes. 39.29% (N=11)** | **Yes, but I forget what it is. 39.29% (N=11)**  *One participant said that he understood well about ELF but he explained it wrong as he claimed that ELF relies heavily on NESs. | **No. 21.42% (N=6)** | **(N=28)**  **100%** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 13. In what way we can implement the concept of ELF into teaching and learning English in Thai classrooms? | - To focus on courses related to business (e.g. Business English Communication) and English for Specific Purposes (ESP).  - To encourage students to be open for different uses of English of NNESs (e.g. accents and pronunications) in different contexts.  - To focus on students' fluency not on accuracy.  - To focus on intercultural communication among NNESs.  - To bring the theory of ELF to design textbooks in which are suited with local use of English language. | | | |
| 14. As one of the members of ASEAN Economic Community (AEC), to what extent do you think we should be aware of using English of other members and why? | - To teach students that English is used differently in different contexts.  - To teach students communicative strategies (e.g. negotiation of meanings) and not too much focus on grammar or rules.  - To teach students to be prepared for different accents of other AEC members.  - To raise their awareness of diversity of English in AEC, especially those who have to work in AEC countries (e.g. nurses and engineers). | | | |

# Appendix F  Questions for interviews

**Interview 1**: Participants' life story (expected results of teachers' beliefs, factors of belief formation, and awareness of GE)

- Note that most of these questions were asked all the participants and some questions were for specific particants, such as in interview sessions 2 and 3 below.

1. When did you start learning English?
2. What made you wanted to learn English?
3. Why did you choose English as your major in the university level?
4. What was/were your favourite English module(s)? Why?
5. Did you have much chance to use English in the university? How?
6. Did you have any challenge(s) related to English in your university study? How?
7. What made you chose to become a teacher of English?
8. What made you decided to pursue your master degree/doctoral degree?
9. What was/were your research interest(s)/teaching interest(s)?
10.   How many years have you been teaching at this university?
11.   What do you think about teaching English to students in this university (e.g. students in different majors and levels of study)?
12.   Have you ever had teaching problems?
13.   Which language do you usually use in teaching (e.g. Thai, Northern Thai, English)
14.   Do you have specific teaching methods or strategies that help you to deal with teaching English in this university?
15.   Have you ever been abroad?
16.   Apart from using English in your workplace, did you have any opportunity to speak English outside?
17.   You have mentioned in the survey that NETs can better facilitate students' opportunities to learn correct communication skill? Can you explain more about this?
18.   You said that teaching materials should be designed by both NESs and NNESs? What do you mean by this?

Appendix F

**Interview 2**: Teachers' beliefs about ELT, beliefs towards GE, and details of participants' experience and perceptions

1. What is/are your opinion(s) towards English? Is it important for our country?
2. From your perspective, who can claim the ownership of English language?
3. Do you think we can change or modify rules in English (e.g. grammar)?
4. As English is used more and more among non-native English speakers, do you think this will affect the traditional ways of using English (e.g. standard English)?
5. Do you think the more number of non-native English speakers than native speakers will influence on the issue about ownership of English?
6. Have you ever come across the concept of ELF or English as a lingua franca?
7. What is/are your opinion(s) towards varieties of English?
8. Have you ever heard about Tinglish? What is it and do you think it can be developed as a variety?
9. Have you ever had opportunity to communicate with other non-native English speakers? Or those who come from ASEAN?
10. What is/are your opinion(s) towards the English use in AEC?
11. As we also have some NNETs from ASEAN countries in our department, what is/are your opinion(s) towards their teaching English to Thai students?
12. As a teacher of English, what do you think to be the most important in teaching and learning English?
13. Do you think the accent is important?
14. What is/are the difference(s) between teaching English in the past and in the present?
15. What is/are your focus(es) on teaching English to Thai students (e.g. in your class of English for Public Speaking, English for Specific Purposes)?
16. As a member of AEC, what do you think we should concern for our students in terms of teaching the English language?
17. What do you think about the policy, curriculum for teaching English in this university?
18. What do you think to be the best approach for teaching English in Thailand?
19. I have observed your class and saw your use of YouTube Videos containing different accents of English? Why did you use it in your class?
20. What is/are the importance(s) to give direct feedbacks to students in your classroom? Do you think more or less students will gain benefits from your direct feedback about pronunciation?

21. Why did you usually concern about correct pronunciation based on the dictionary? And which dictionary you referred to?

**<u>The third interview</u>**: Reflection on meaning (i.e. many of questions were extended from results of first-two interviews, observations, and teachers' documents).

1. What do you think about the policy about using English at least 70% in the classrooms of the university?
2. What do you mean by decentralising to using the English language?
3. Could you explain a bit more about your learning experience in Australia? And how do you feel about his experience?

# Appendix G An interview transcription

A transcription of interview session 1 with Teacher 2.

(R = researcher, T2 = Teacher 2)

**R**:  *This interview session is about your life stories and teaching and learning experiences. I will begin with your experiences in secondary education. Which stream of study did you select at that time, Sciences - Mathematics or other streams?*

**T2**:  *No, at that time, there was no stream to be selected. My secondary study was an old programme. I finished my lower-secondary education before attending my vocational and bachelor levels.*

**R**:  *And why did you select to study English at that time?*

**T2**:  *I chose it partially because I received good grades in this subject. As I said, teachers at that time selected and classified students based mainly on students' grades of English language. This means, with my English ability, I was always classified into the king class. For example, if they had 1,500 students, I was among the first-top 50 students who were in the king class. This class was for the students with good levels of English and they were graded as A, B, and C. When I finished my first year of vocational study, I continued to select English as my core subject. Though I did not know whether I liked this subject or not at that time, what I realised was that I did it well.*

**R**:  *And in your bachelor study, which courses of English did you like?*

**T2**:  *At that time, I had some experiences because I did par time-job while I was studying. I mean I worked as a receptionist at a hotel. With a good chance to speak English, I thus liked this skill and other skills related to communication. Therefore, speaking was the skill that I was good at and I used it with foreigners every day. I liked spoken language. In the beginning of my third year, I started to work and pay for my study.*

**R**:  *What happened after finishing your bachelor degree? Did you become a teacher or pursue your master degree?*

**T2**:  *Teaching first. I mean after completing my degree, I worked as a teacher at an elementary school for six months, before leaving to teach at a secondary school for*

*six months. Then, I moved to work for the Department of Vocational Education before moving to the Department of General Education. After that, I moved back to the Department of Vocational Education before leaving for my master degrees study. At that time, I received an Australian Scholarship to study about teaching English language at a university in Australia.*

**R**: *So your inspiration to study in master degree was to improve yourself?*

**T2**: *I did not know exactly what my inspiration for studying was, but one of the important things was that I wanted to have some language experiences. I mean I did not know the purpose of my master degree study. I just knew that I wanted to do it for my own experiences about language, especially the direct experiences in the context where of native speakers. I thought that living with them could improve my language ability.*

**R**: *So how long were you there in Australia?*

**T2**: *The programme lasted for two years. I did a project and complete coursework according to their requirement and scholarship.*

**R**: *And you came back to teach?*

**T2**: *Yes. I came back to teach for two more years before pursuing my doctoral study at a Thai university which had an MoU with an American university called Northern Colorado University.*

**R**: *What was your research interest in your master degree?*

**T2**: *In my master degree, I was interested in English writing of non-native English learners. I explored their problems of writing particularly about sources of writing errors. I analysed those errors and explored where they from did and which type of errors, such as grammar and vocabulary.*

**R**: *How about in your doctoral degree?*

**T2**: *In this level, I focused on teaching and learning. At the university XXX, they emphasised on English teaching management especially about standard based-education. In addition, a trend at that time was about indicators such as the indicators of proficiency, so I was interested in this issue.*

**R**: *Do you perceive teaching in vocational college and in university as different?*

**T2**: *In fact, there were some differences. For instance, in the vocational college, they did not separate skills when they teach and learn English, such as their English 1 consisted of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. However, in the university,*

*they taught each skill separately and, in teaching each skill, university teachers would teach them more in details than vocational teachers did. I mean vocational teachers would focus more on professional contents and skills.*

**R:**     *How about vocational and university students? Were they different?*

**T2**:     *They were not different. Their learning, reception, attitudes towards the language were not different.*

**R**:     *Now, I want to focus more your teaching experience in this university. Can I ask which courses did you conduct last semester?*

**T2**:     *I taught Fundamental English, Intensive English for post-graduate students, writing skills and researching skills for PhD students.*

**R**:     *Were they good?*

**T2**:     *They were fine, but most of them lacked of some skills. In particular, when the department of English requires teachers to use over 70% English in classroom, the main problem was about their understanding of the contents explained in English. I mean their listening and speaking skills were not good enough. Therefore, when we have to teach them using English as a medium of instruction or over 70%, they will face with a difficulty of understanding the contents, and teachers need to switch to use Thai language.*

**R**:     *Is 70% English a policy of the department?*

**T2**:     *Yes, only for English major students that teachers need to use over 70% English and 30% Thai.*

**R**:     *So, this has caused students' problems?*

**T2**:     *Yes. Some problems especially those who had poor English background caused by their secondary education. When their English proficiency was low, other skills including grammar and vocabulary would be affected. Therefore, when they have problems, they will not be able to communicate leading to their discouragement and lack of confidence.*

**R**:     *How about your master and doctoral degree students?*

**T2**:     *These students, most of them, lacked of some skills. In terms of speaking, they spoke unclear English, which were not based on dictionaries. I mean their pronunciations were not close to any dictionaries. For writing, as they did not know how to write academically, their writings thus were not concise. Also, their vocabulary use or writing structure were often based on Thai writing which means*

*they directly translated from one to another language, and this made it unsuccinct. Instead of writing, "because of the traffic jam, I was late", they often wrote in different ways which were unnecessary. Their writing problems also included when they did not know how to begin, arrange, and omit each type of sentences. For example, when they kept using relative pronouns like who, which, that, which I think unnecessary. I think all of these were caused by their first language interference, as their thinking and writing skills were not in form or structure of the second language but in form of their native language.*

**R**:  *So, these problems were difficult to solve?*

**T2**:  *Yes, they were. In order to deal with it, students need to concentrate and learn how to make a good writing. In addition, they need to learn how to improve their vocabulary use as they use active vocabularies more than passive vocabularies.*

**R**:  *Apart from this university, have you ever taught English in other universities?*

**T2**:  *I have ever taught in Rajabhat universities, Rajamangala Universities of Technology, vocational colleges, nursing colleges. Most of the courses I taught them were related to professional English.*

**R**:  *Which course of English in this university that you most enjoy teaching?*

**T2**:  *The most enjoying course to teach would be about writing and speaking. I like these courses more than others.*

**R:**  *Although you said that, it is difficult for Thai students to improve these skills?*

**T2**:  *Yes. I like these courses because I want to help Thai students. I want to make them know how to write properly although they have poor English background. Especially the students in English major, they need to make it most correct. I know it is difficult but I still want to help them. In fact, I can read their works and tell what are their problems or sources of their problems. Often, they are related to their thinking process, misunderstanding, their lack of knowledge about writing structure, grammar and sentence analysis.*

**R**:  *So, before coming to the university level, their former schools didn't emphasise these aspects?*

**T2**:  *Yes. Their former teachers did not emphasise how to bring these aspects to practice. Although they may make mistakes, at least they have chances to use it. I think sometimes we rely too much on paper-based test. It takes times to improve students. In addition, teachers who want to improve students may need to know students' problems. They may begin with looking at common mistakes and take*

*such mistakes for granted. For instance, they may show their students a good piece of writing and introduce how to arrange sentences, sentence structures, and how to write different types of sentence. When students write, teachers can compare and check mistakes before giving feedbacks.*

**R**: *Is this technique successful?*

**T**2: *Quite successful. Students will learn it automatically. I mean they can learn from their mistakes. From their mistakes, they will try to solve it and attempt to make it correct. Because their mistakes are different, we need to give them basic knowledge and ideas of writing patterns, or so-called following native speakers.*

**R**: *Do you mean to have a good writing we need to follow native speakers?*

**T**2: *Yes, similar to native speakers. For instance, instead of writing, "I will consider it later", we should write it as "It will be taken into consideration later". I mean we should use passive voice more than active voice, like when Thai people write "I give a book to him" but native speakers make it "I give him a book".*

**R**: *How about speaking? You mentioned that you also like teaching speaking.*

**T**2: *In terms of speaking, firstly, Thai teachers do not actually emphasise correct pronunciation for students. When we learn speaking, teachers do not focus on some aspects like omission and stressing because we do not have stressing in our Thai language. Secondly, Thai students often pronounce based on final consonants instead of based on phonetic rules, such as bus, bury, bush, bury, busy, mother. In particular, to the word 'mother', many Thais often pronounce it like 'motor' not 'mother'. Thai people often pronounce it wrong because they make final sounds to English words, such as when they pronounce 'furry' for 'ferry' leading to different meanings. Another aspect would be about sound omission in English, such as interest, comfortable, execute, exam, expert, account, vegetable, environment, enter, snooker, dollar, and useful. When Thai people pronounce these words, they often make it wrong. I want to see Thai students or teachers follow Standard English, such when they pronounce words and sentences. In particular in the sentence level, they often have problems because they do not place emphasis on, such as "what do you do?" or contraction words like "I'll", "they're".*

**R**: *So you think that students' mispronunciation was caused by former teachers?*

**T**2: *Kind of, because Thai teachers often teach students to pronounce English words like Thai words, such as the word 'office' that Thai students often make full final sounds like in Thai language. Therefore, when they speak English, their sounds would be weird, such as 'stop', and 'mop'. When Thai language does not have this rule of final sounds, it will interfere the second language.*

**R**: *How do primary and secondary teachers teach English?*

**T2**: *I don't actually know but, as seen in the distance learning channels, their pronunciations were not correct, such as when they say 'ask him', 'at home', 'thank you' which were connected sounds.*

**R**: *So when you are teaching writing and speaking, these aspects should come first?*

**T2**: *Truly, my students should make it perfect, especially English-major students.*

**R**: *Because when they have to use it, they will make it correct?*

**T2:** *Accuracy should be the first thing teachers should have because other people will have to follow them. Therefore, teachers have to be aware of their pronunciations and, if they find their students make mistakes, they need to correct it, which is called sudden feedback. This can be done with both individual student and a whole classroom. I mean they need to make clear pronunciation and this is what I want to happen.*

**R**: *My last question is that, because you emphasise on correct pronunciation, when you were in Australia, how did Australian react to your pronunciation?*

**T2**: *They admired me, saying that my English would be like those who got Band 8 of IELTS test. In fact, my IELTS score was not 8 but it was close to. At that time, they had some writing courses for international students especially those who lacked of some skills. I did not attend that because I thought that all of my skills were fine. In addition, I had good friends and teachers who had correct pronunciation. Therefore, when I make mistakes, they would interrupt me immediately. Apart from this, I watched a lot of television news and they made me more understood. I mean these, especially when someone picked up our pronunciation mistakes, made me more careful when I pronounce in English and fluency. This is because a good spoken English means when it has beautiful and natural sounds and, in order to have it, we need to practice until we have no comments from native speakers.*

# Appendix H The coding book for interviews

| Theme | Sub-theme | Code/Sub-code | | Definition |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **1.Beliefs** | | | | All beliefs about English language teaching of the participants |
| **about ELT** | 1.1 Beliefs about English language | | | Beliefs about ELT that related to English as language |
| | | BEL/ENGL=OWN | | Beliefs about ELT that related to the issue about language ownership |
| | | | BEL/ENGL=OWN/NESs | Only NESs are the owner of English |
| | | | BEL/ENGL=OWN/ANY | Any users of English can claim language ownership |
| | | BEL/ENGL=MO | | Beliefs about language modification and change |
| | | | BEL/ENGL=MO/NESs | Language can be modified and only NESs can modify or change the language |
| | | | BEL/ENGL=MO/ANY | Language can be modified and any users of English can modify or change the language |
| | | BEL/ENGL=STA | | Beliefs about the status of English language |
| | | | BEL/ENGL=STA/EIL | Beliefs that English is an international language |
| | | | BEL/ENGL=STA/AEC | Beiefs that English is a language of AEC |
| | 1.2 Beliefs about ELT in relation to the NESs' norms | | | Beliefs about English languag teaching that related to the ways native English speakers' (NESs) use English language |
| | | BEL/NESs = STAND | | Beliefs about ELT related to NESs' standard language |
| | | BEL/NESs = GRAM | | Beliefs about ELT related to NESs' grammatical rules |
| | | BEL/NESs = RELIA | | Beliefs about ELT related to NESs' reliability |
| | 1.3 Beliefs about ELT in relation to the GE perspective | | | Beliefs about ELT that related to perspectives of Global Englishes (GE) |
| | | BEL/GE = WEs | | Beliefs about ELT related to World English (WEs) or varieties of English language |
| | | | BEL/GE=WEs+ | Positive beliefs towards WEs |
| | | | BEL/GE=WEs- | Negative beliefs towards WEs |

| | | BEL/GE= ELF | | Beliefs about ELT related to English as a lingua franca (ELF) or any use of English as a communicative tool among different first language speakers |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | BEL/GE= ELF/FEAT | Beliefs related to ELF features, e.g. lexicogrammar and pronunication |
| | | | BEL/GE= ELF/FEAT+ | Positive beliefs related to ELF features |
| | | | BEL/GE= ELF/FEAT- | Negative beliefs related to ELF features |
| | | | BEL/GE= ELF/PROC | Beliefs related to ELF process, e.g. pragmatics and intercultural communication |
| | | | BEL/GE= ELF/CUL | Beliefs related to culture in ELF communication |
| | | | BEL/GE= ELF/CUL+ | Positive beliefs related to culture in ELF communication |
| | | | BEL/GE= ELF/CUL- | Negative beliefs related to culture in ELF communication |
| 2. **Factors influencing beliefs about ELT** | | | | All factors that influenced the participants' beliefs about ELT |
| | Internal factors | | | Factors that reside in the participants' cognitive system |
| | | FACT/INT | | Intenalised external factors; the participants internalised somethings from outside to their cognitive system (e.g. knowledge, interest) |
| | | | FACT/INT = KNOW | Participants internalised/received knowledge and the knowledge affect their beliefs |
| | | | FACT/INT = OTHE | Participants' belief received from outside affect another belief |
| | External factors | FACT/EXT | | Factors residing out the participants' brain |
| | | | FACT/EXT = PEO | External factors related to people |
| | | | FACT/EXT = PEO/PAR | Participants' parents |
| | | | FACT/EXT = PEO/TEA | Participants' teachers in former schooling |
| | | | FACT/EXT= PEO/PEER | Participants' peers in former schooling |
| | | | FACT/EXT = PEO/COL | Participants' colleagues |
| | | | FACT/EXT = PEO/STU | Participants' students |
| | | | FACT/EXT = POL | Policy or regulations of the participants' workplace |

# Appendix I  Questions for focus groups

**Focus-group Interview**

## 1.  University/Department policy

### 1.1 The Project of English Development for Student and Staff of University of xxx (England and Australia, June 2017)

**Questions:**

1.1.1 What is/are your opinion(s) towards the university project to improve staff and students' English language by sending them to native speaking countries as England and Australia?

1.1.2 Do you think that this project can improve the participants' language ability?

1.1.3 What do you think about the use of IELTS exam to test the participants' language proficiency? And what do you think about the rules that the participants have to get overall of 6.0 in this test after completing this project?

1.1.4 What do you think if the university changes from the native speaking countries to non-native speaking countries such as countries in Asia that English also has an important status?

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## 2.  Thailand and English in Asian context

**Questions**:

### 2.1 English as a lingua franca in AEC community

2.1.1 As English is announced the official language for ASEAN communication, what do you think that university teachers should prepare for this issue?

2.1.2 What is/are your opinion(s) towards the issue about hiring teachers from AEC countries to teach our Thai students?

2.1.3 What is/are your opinion(s) towards varieties of English in Asia? Do you think they are significant in the communication of ASEAN community? And as a university teacher, do we need to concern about this issue?

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# Appendix J A transcription of the focus group and group interview

## J.1 A transcription of the junior teachers' focus group

A transcript of focus group (R = Researcher, T6 = Teacher 6, T7 = Teacher 7, T8 = Teacher 8, T9 = Teacher 9, T10 = Teacher 10)

R: *OK. This is a focus group interview consisting of T10, T9, T8, T7, and T6. First of all, I would like to ask all of you about the university policy which annually sends staff and students to take a three-week English course in native English speaking countries. What do you think about this project?*

T7: *It is a good project because classroom teaching only provides them skills like listening, speaking, reading, and writing. We need to address them something about culture and this project will probably help them to receive this kind of knowledge. I think that the knowledge about culture will not be efficiently taught by teachers with no experiences with native speakers. This project would broaden the vision of teachers so that they will bring what they have learned, which can't be found in textbooks, to transfer through teaching lessons to their learners more effectively.*

T6: *I agree with this because when they are there they won't only be able to learn the language, but also ways of living and culture which they can apply to their own lives.*

R: *How about you? What do you think?*

T8: *Good, of course. I attended this project two years ago and I received some direct experiences. For example, I wouldn't have truly understood about the extreme coldness described in English commercial books like when a man says "Waiting at the bus stop is killing me because it was extremely cold". You know, this was a direct experience that is important to share with our students who won't feel it in our country. So, this project is excellent in my opinion because it encourages the participants to learn the facts about English language in the country where it is really used.*

T9: *For this project, I quite agree with other teachers but I have something more to address. I think that, if we don't have direct experiences in native speaking*

*countries, we would never understand how to transfer to students effectively. In particular, when we use commercial books which contain contents of in native countries, our students may not clearly understand because they live non-native country. So, we need to explain to them not only about the ways native speakers use the language, but also the culture, weather, ways of living, or architecture. I mean if we have never been there, although we try to search on internet how to teach this kind of experience, it wouldn't seem helpful. This limited knowledge of teachers can also affect students' learning, as T8 explained about the coldness that he wouldn't have chance to feel if he didn't go to native countries. So this project will give students both language and culture knowledge as well as experiences in native speaking countries. For instance, after coming back from the project, teachers may tell their students like "I have ever been there and I know how they pronounce and communicate with local people".*

**T10**: *I also see it beneficial but, from my perspective, I want to suggest that the project should extend its participation period because three weeks sound unsufficient to practise listening. I mean when the participants are about to familiarise with accents or other aspects of native speakers they will have to come back. Well, in fact, time doesn't seem to be only one factor. However, I agree that this project is good.*

**T6**: *Based on T10's point, actually, the most important thing to concern is that students who join the project may not be obviously better or more fluent. However, they will have a chance to learn the reality in native countries which includes native speakers' culture. This should be something that 3-4 weeks could provide to them.*

**T9**: *And one more thing is that both students and teachers who participate in this project will gain an inspiration. Three weeks may sound limited but some of their skills such as speaking and listening may start to improve because they have to communicate when they live there. In particular to their listening, although they can catch only some sentences, they may feel more proud than when they live in Thailand. Although I also agree that this project is short, at least the participants would gain something for sure such as an inspiration to acquire more knowledge of English.*

**T7**: *It is useful for participants. I also want to add what T9 said about the benefits for learners. I think it is a direct experience, for instance, if I were there and felt impressed, I would come back to tell to my students in order to increase their learning motivation. This may make them to be more motivated to learn English as a second language and to improve their English skills. Also, when they have this kind of motivation, the classroom atmostphere would be better. So, this is the positive impact of the project on students. Another positive impact would include when they transfer their experience to others.*

**T9**: *Well, there is something more to add based on T7's point. I think that there are many students who are poor at grammar or testing but they can speak or communicate in English. So, I think we should reconsider about language assessment especailly the paper-based Englih test because it doesn't properly measure how students use the language. For instance, there are many of my students who can speak and listen to English but their grammar is poor. I mean we should test them all skills of English not only their grammar based on the paper based exam.*

**T7**: *So that nobody wouldn't be left behind? We should give a chance to every one?*

**T9**: *Yes, just like many of my students who have a good language background, I mean English skills, but they are poor at grammar. You know, when these students are in grammar exams, they often use their sense instead of knowledge to select answers. This reflects a drawback of the paper-based exams which don't include testing other skills of students.*

**R**: *OK. Now, I want to move to another issue related to what T9 concerned. As you may know that the participants of this project need to submit band 6.0 of IELTS exam to the university, what is your opinion?*

**T6**: *Me first. I disagree with this requirement because the period of the project is only three weeks and the project itself doesn't focus on IELTS. This means it is not that fair for the participants. I think the most important thing they will receive from the project is the cultural knowedge of native speakers. So, I would say that, when the objective of the project is not about IELTS, the participants shouldn't thus submit IELTS score. It is not related.*

**T8**: *But when I participated the project, it was about IELTS. So, in this case, I think it is appropriate to submit the score because we were there to practise it. But what I want to point out more is about the project's period. It was less than a month or only around three weeks when I was there. If you ask me to what extent I improve my language, I would say that I improved quite a lot. But for those who start their English learning from zero and are expected to pass band 6.5, I think they have to take the exam for many times.*

**T9**: *I have just known now that they have to submit 6.0 of IELTS after such period of the project. Also, as T8 said about those who are beginners, I think this is quite difficult. You know, when I have to submit my IELTS score as a requirement for working in this university, I had to prepare a lot. I had to spend a whole month reading an IELTS textbook. I had to practise it every day. What I want to say is that even we, who have some English backgrounds, still need to practise quite a lot. So, I think those who start with zero are impossible to acquire 6.0 within one month. I don't*

*mean to insult them but if they may have to give like ten times or more than us in order to receive that band of IELTS.*

**T8**: *I think to prepare for IELTS is quite specific. I mean it is a specific kind of English. For intance, some people may be good at daily English or academic English but, when they have to take IELTS, they have to use different strategies to approach the test. If they don't know the guidline, they won't know how to do it. And this will cause their poor scores. But for the project I attended, it taught me some techniques so that I knew nature and scope of the exam.*

**T9**: *It may be because the textbook I bought is very thin and has not many pages. And if they suggested how to complete each part of the test like T8 said, I think it will be useful for our preparation. I am not sure this project is about IELTS or not, and if it is not I don't think that they should submit the IELTS scores.*

**T7**: *I think so too. I disagree with this kind of requirements of the project. This is because I am not sure if the objective of the project is for IELTS preparation or not. And if it is about IELTS, I partially agree that they have to pass the requirement of the project. But if its content is not related to IELTS exam, I disagree that they will pass that requirement. So, we need to see what is teaching in this project first.*

**T9**: *The period of study as well. I mean, how many hours they study in a day and what is focusing on in the class?. Because I think that if it is intensive, three weeeks can be enough for them to get that score. Well, actually, it depends on individuals. Some participants may not practise after their class.*

**T7**: *In terms of language, if it is a language for communication, I think it can be absorbed slowly by learning. But if we pass the period of puberty, it can be quite difficult depending on individual backgrounds. I mean young people can acquire English faster than adults. I mean that if the participants who are adults gain some time to practise their English after the three-week project, it would be possible for them to get that score. But if they don't do anything because they expect that the prject itself will improve them, I don't think they can achieve that goal.*

**T10**: *As far as I listened to you all, I think one of the most important things for IELTS takers is the motivation to achieve their goal, just like T9 who said that she herslef practised it a lot in order to achieve her goal. I also agree with T7 who said that, apart from their goal, the guideline is also important. But I am not sure to what extent those who participate in the project care about this requirement. Some of them may only want to open their vision not to gain knowledge to pass the exam.*

**T7**: *If I can answer this question from the perspective of non-English lecturer, I wouldn't agree with this requirement because it is difficult for them. I think that band 6.0 is*

*very high for those who don't usually use the language. They won't be able to get it after such period of visiting native English countries. So, from the perspective of teachers of other disciplines, I don't think this is appropriate.*

**T9**: *Yes. I have ever talked with a science lecturer. He told me that if he wants to leave for his PhD study using a scholar from this university, he had to get band 5.0 or 5.5 of IELTS. He has attempted to take IELTS for several times but he couldn't make it although he also hired a private tutor. This is just to support that, for non-English major learners who don't have a good English background, it would be quite challenging. This is particular to those who have such short period of preparation. I mean although they spend a whole year preparing for it, many of them can still be failed.*

**T6**: *Connecting to what T9 said, I have a friend who wanted to study abroad but his field of study was not English but Sciences. So, he also had to take IELTS for 5 times in order to get band 5.5. He got 5.5 in his last time and submitted it. Yet, his university still asked him to take an English course because they in fact required band 6.0. I raise this issue because I want to reflect that those who don't usually use English including my friend may have to put more effort than us. They have to sit in some private courses which cost them a lot of money. So, I think three weeks don't seem enough for our staff and students to get band 6.0.*

**R**: *Moving to another issue related to this project, what do you think if we change the target country of the project to some Asian countries where English is also used? Do you think this can save the university's budget and can prepare our students for the AEC community?*

**T9**: *I disagree.*

**T7**: *They are not native speakers. I think that to be able to be native like wouldn't be possible if we don't study with native speakers. This is just like when we want to be good at English but we study with Math teachers. They may be able to teach English but they are not similar to English teachers. So, if we send them to non-native English countries, they may not effectively improve their language.*

**T9**: *Excepting they study in the institution where confirms or certifies that all of their teachers have native accents. This includes those teachers from any non-native countries who have ever been in native English countries and speak like native speakers. But I don't think there is this kind of institution in Asian countries. So, if you ask me, I absolutely disagree with it.*

**T7**: *And they can't give you that feeling of coldness as T8 explained.*

**T9**: *Yes. It is not like that context.*

**T10**: *Apart from the issue of native like as T7 stated, I think intercultural communicative competence is also important, such as when we have to meet with other non-native speakers who also use English. R and I ever discussed an issue concerning the fact that we learn American and British English but, in the present, we have to communicate more with those who use other kinds of English, such as Filipino, Singaporean, Malaysian, and Chinese English. I think we should concern this issue too although I also agree that we should keep sending them to native speaking countries.*

**T8**: *I have a different point of view. I mean, when I participated the project, the tutors told me that ideas are more important than accents. So, they focused more on something like choice of words when they taught speaking skill. They also suggeted to use some words that can give me more scores in IELTS.*

**T9**: *Can you give me some examples? I really want to know.*

**T8**: *In Canada? Well, for instance, they told me to say like "I have a difficulty in listening in English" instead of "I have a problem in listening in English". For them, using 'difficulty' tends to give more scores. So, I think teachers have to be qualified although they come from countries like Malaysia and India. In particular to India, if you search on internet, you will find many of Indian teach IELTS techniques. So, I feel that, if I want to practise listening, I may have to choose the tutors and realise whether they are similar to those in Canada. And if they are similar but they are Indian or Chinese, I think it is fine. This is because their techniques are similar and they can help to get directly through the exam. This means being native or non-native speakers is not that important. If we send them to Malaysia to study IELTS, we may have to accept that they may not be able to learn native speakers' culture but cultures in AEC, which is also acceptable.*

**T7**: *So you mean that we can them to Asian countries to study IELTS?*

**T8**: *Yes, but if they want to learn native speakers' culture, they should go to native English countries.*

**T9**: *But I think that IELTS examiners have different accents. Also, I think some of them are not native speakers. So, I wonder where they are from?*

**T8**: *If we see in YouTube, we will see people with different bands of IELTS and some of them don't have native speakers' accents.*

**T9**: *It depends on their ideas?*

**T8**: *Yes. I think they concern not only accuracy but also fluency and choices of word. So, I think that accent is only an aspect of the criteria for IELTS. With this reason, I think not only native speakers but whoever knows the techniques can teach IELTS.*

**T9**: *Yes. When I watched the YouTube videos of those who got band 8.0, I expected that their accents would be perfect. No, it is not that necessary. T8 reminded me about this issue concerning the importance of ideas in IELTS exam.*

**T6**: *My turn? Between native English countries and some Asian countries, I agree with other teachers that, if we want to learn native speakers' culture, we need to go to native English countries. But one day, if we can't go to native English countries for some reasons, there are many Asian countries that use English as an official language such as Singapore, Malaysia, and the Philippines. The people in these countries are very good at English especially their writing skill. Although their accents are not similar to native speakers, for instance, one of my friends from the University of Malaya of Malaysia is very good at English. And vocabulary, they know a lot of vocabulary and this makes their writing better than ours. For instance, when we want to use English words in daily life like vocabulary in office, we couldn't use like them. This reflects that their English is much better than ours although they are also non-native speakers. I see this interesting and linked to what T8 mentioned about word choices in IELTS. I ever read a book and it suggested not to use easy words like 'so', instead we should use 'likewise' if we want to get higher scores in IELTS. I mean there are some techniques for preparing this kind of exam.*

**R**: *OK. Now, I want to be more specific about the use of English in Thailand and other Asian countries. First of all, as you know may know that the AEC community has annouced to use English as a contact language among its members, how do you think we should prepare our students for the use of English of these non-native English speaking countries? This is because I think that what we have been teaching to our students, I mean American or British English, may not be relevant to this issue? We will start with T6.*

**T6**: *In AEC community? How can we prepare? I feel that we stress too much about teaching grammar and our students have to memorise things like active and passive sentences. I think that this is quite boring. What we should focus more should be on communication such as daily communication, such as how to explain 'corrianders' and Thai curry to foreigners. Our students have to be able to communicate this kind of topics before being able to write. So, I think we should focus on speaking first and writing later.*

**T7**: *If we want to prepare students, teachers need to set the context of using English to facilitate their learning. For instance, in teaching Math, teachers may have to teach them in English. In other contexts as well, teachers have to encourage students to*

*use English, such as when they want to talk about washing hands in cafeteria. Their schools have to post English words all around too in order to make them familiar with English. So, the first important thing to do is to set the context of using English language, which teachers and all stakeholders need to co-operate. This includes students' parents who need to try to use English with their children at home and staff in their schools who encourage to speak English at school.*

**T6**: *I want to support T7. I have ever taught secondary school students who studied in an English programme. I found that, after teachers encouraged students to use English regualrly, students could communicate with them in English easier. But, I also found that those students still use Thai to communicate with their friends whenever they did not talk with their teachers. So, I think the classroom atmostphere is very important for students' ease to use English.*

**T7**: *Yes. They automatically use Thai because it is easier for them to communicate with their friends.*

**T6**: *Yes. Because it is easy.*

**T8**: *Do you mean to prepare our students for their encounters with Asian speakers who are non-native English speakers?*

**R**: *Yes, that is also what I mean.*

**T8**: *Well, no matter if we go to their countries or they come to ours, what I am really concerned with is the accent. I think that it is fine if we listen to the Thai accent because we areused to it. How about the Cambodian accent? We don't know how they speak English and I think this will cause communication problems. So, I think we should equip our students with problem-solving skills like teaching them to check for meaning saying 'can you repeat that again?' Something like this.*

**R**: *Do you mean communicative strategy?*

**T8**: *Yes, we can call it that. So I think we should also teach the strategies that our students can bring to use whenever they encounter with difficulty relating to English communication especially when they have to communicate with speakers from different varieties of English.*

**T10**: *Just like last time, when my Cambodian student tried to say 'should' but it sounded like 'sood' and 'people' which was pronounced as 'peepong' – "I think we sood understand peepong" something like this. At that time, I was a bit shocked but later understood that they do this in their context. So, yes, I think our students should be aware of this issue. I want to support T8 that communicative strategy is very important and useful.*

Appendix J

**R**: *Now, we have come to the last question. I want to know your opinions towards non-native teachers of English who are working and teaching in Thailand. Because our department also contain some of them, do you think that this can be useful for our students' preparation for AEC?*

**T9**: *Do you mean we may hire teachers from AEC countries instead of native teachers?*

**R**: *Not exactly. I mean when we have to hire them, may be together with native teacher, do you agree with it?*

**T8**: *I don't think so because we don't learn English to be used only in AEC countries .We are using the English that is used worldwide. It is not quite reasonable to hire them only for AEC preparation. I think to hire native speakers who are the language owners is worthwhile, because their language use is understood worldwide and also can be used in AEC.*

**T6**: *Actually, I am still thinking about native English speakers who come from native English-speaking countries. But, one day, if we have to choose teachers from these countries, can understand because, excepting their language or accents, these Asian people will understand the contexts of teaching and learning more than native speakers.*

**T7**: *I agree with T6 that native speakers should be considered first. But, you know, when we are in classrooms and see teachers with blond hair, we will need to be much aware of our use of language because they are the language owner. Differently, when we see teachers with an Asian look, we will feel more relaxed and think that, if we make mistakes, they will be fine with it because they understand us and know the context.*

**T10**: *I find backgrounds of teachers and students interesting. I mean native teachers who are good at English may not fully understand students who come from different cultural backgrounds. This is because native teachers are often set in their ways of teaching and learning based on what they learned from their countries and culture. For teachers from AEC countries, I think these people may understand our students better because they share some similar background with us.*

**R**: *Alright, this is the end of this focus group. Thank you very much.*

## J.2    A transcription of the senior teachers' group interview

A transcription of group interview (R = Researcher, T2 = Teacher 2, T4 = Teacher 4)

**R**:    *This is a group interview consisting of T2 and T4. The first question that I would like to ask is relevant to the university's policy about English language. As you know that this university annually sends students and staff to take a short or a three-week English course in native English speaking countries like Australia and England, what do you think about this project?*

**T4**:    *It is a good project because it gives an opportunity for students and staff to practise the foreign language. If the university has the budget, I think it is good.*

**T2**:    *It is a direct experience which students can't find themselves and it is a good chance for them to use the real language. With this direct experience, they will know the problems and solutions when they communicate because the context will force them to use the language. At least they will get encouragement and experience that can't be easily found. If this project can include more numbers of students, I mean if the university has more budget, it would be good.*

**R**:    *To what extent do you think the project's participants can improve their language ability after this three-week project?*

**T4**:    *It depends on them. But I have heard that one of my friends, who had a positive attitude towards English although he studied about Social Development, was less confident about English after coming back from the project. Now, he is doing a master degree about Social Development in an institution. But I think he still has a positive attitude towards English because he likes writing English papers. So I think it depends on individuals but, for this case, he actually likes English before joining the project.*

**T2**:    *They may improve some of skills, but I think we may also need to consider the objectives of the project. I mean, because it lasts for only three weeks, what would the project expect from its participants? At least, they will improve some skills such as English for communication. In terms of writing, I am not sure if they will improve it because it is just a short period. But the project's main aim may be to give students opportunity to study and travel, so three weeks are just fine for this aim.*

**T4**:    *Maybe more about inspiration than positive attitudes, I guess.*

**R**: *How about when the university requires the participants to submit IELTS scores, especially the staff group, after they complete the project? Do you agree with this issue?*

**T2**: *It is actually contradictory.Three weeks do not seem enough for them to acquire what the test wants because this test tends to focuses on grammar or listening. We need to realise if the test is appropriate for them or not. For instance, we may instead ask the participants to give feedback about the project, explaining the benefits and drawbacks after they come back. This is because, before we select them, we need to see their qualifications too. I mean if the participants are not qualified and we still send them there, they may gain nothing but experiences with native speakers in the native English speaking country. I think if we want to test them, we may need to test what they gain from the project instead of their proficiency. I know that we need them to improve their language but if they improve other skills we should see that too. For instance, they may come back with more confidence to speak English, which we can compare with their given information before they join the project, just like a pre-test and post-test. So, before selecting the participants, we need to gain their information, such as their language ability. And when they come back after the treatment, I mean after joining the project, they are better or not. This is what the project should have in terms of obvious objectives, I mean pre- and post- project expectation.*

**T4**: *This can be a piece of research concerning short-course abroad because I ever saw some researchers do. But, in this university, only the staff who will have to submit IELTS band 6.0?*

**R**: *Students may need to submit CU-TEP.*

**T4**: *I think it is just a policy which is not quite clear. Some participants who already came back didn't submit it.*

**R**: *But they said that the participants need to submit it within two years.*

**T4**: *I don't think so. It doesn't really require like that. Did T8 submit it?*

**R**: *I have heard that he was asked to do it.*

**T4**: *It is good then because it shows that the university needs outcomes from its participants.*

**T2**: *It has to be clear about what they want to measure. But I think using IELTS scores is not that suitable.*

**T4**: *Yes, because they didn't go to study IELTS.*

**T2**: *Truly, they went to travel not to practise IELTS.*

**T4**: *Yes, more about general skills.*

**T2**: *So, if they want to test, they should test general skills of English, such as speaking. Because if we test their writing, it seems that we put a high expectation on them and, if they are not improved, what does it mean? Does it mean that the project is unsuccessful? I don't think so. I mean the participants may acquire somethings but not 6.0 band of IELTS. They may get like 5.0 or 5.5.*

**R**: *Speaking about this project, what do you think if we change from a native English speaking country to other countries in Asia like Singapore, Malaysia, or the Philippines where English has official status?*

**T2**: *Actually, when we say English, we should send them to native countries if we want to see more effectiveness. If we send them to non-native countries, it won't be different from learning in our own country. More importantly, English of countries like India, the Philippines, Malaysia, or Singapore is much different from native countries. I mean, although they are fluent, their English is still influenced by their mother tongue, and this will negatively affect the project's participants. Also, because the project wants to send them to practise speaking and listening, and this can be better done with native speakers. Unless, they will pick up the English that is called Englishes or non-standard English because they don't use in the same way as the standard language do. So, I think that sending them to native English countries is more worthwhile. If you ask whether we should send them to nearby countries in Asia, they may get only experiences not language improvement. So, we should send them to the best place because not many of them can go. And if you ask which country, we also need to see their living expenses, prices of travelling ticket, and accommodation rates. If it is not too expensive, or maybe New Zealand or Australia if we can't send them to England.*

**T4**: *I have the same opinion. We should send them to the best place if we don't have financial problems. For the Asian countries, if we have spare money we may send them to join only exchange projects like 1–2 days in Singapore.*

**R**: *Can I link this issue with the use of English in our Asian context? Given that English is announced to be a contact language in AEC, how do you think we should prepare our students to this issue? I mean using English with other 9 countries in AEC.*

**T2**: *If we concern like this, what we should prepare them is the language for communication. We need to focus on this aspect. I mean, in case of general students who are not studying in English major, they should focus on how to communicate, speak, and use the language confidently. This is called pre-service serving, because*

*it prepares students, such as their vocabulary, and to make them ready before going out to work. This can be two- or three-day workshop, which includes practice-based English, in order to raise their confidence before graduation. We may also use Exit-exam which mainly focuses on communication to test them. The communication here means the use of English in their daily lives, such as English for workplace.*

**T4**: *Or they may prepare it themselves and we address some aspects for them, such as English language variation among ten AEC countries. We can do this since their early years of study and emphasise it again before their graduation, such as before they leave for professional internship. This may make them realised their chance to work in ASEAN and it may help them to be familiar with different accents of English. We may set a club for them, such as English in ASEAN club, where they can use recordings to practise their English.*

**T2**: *Or we can arrange them some field trips to nearby countries like Myanmar where they can use the language. Also, we may have some projects or MoU that link two universities in order to save the budget. For instance, to work with Myanmar universities may increase students' chance to listen to different accents because their English is different with ours. Or we can go to Malaysia to have some exchange projects.*

**T4**: *Just let them know that there are more than two accents of English, although they may want some particular accents.*

**R**: *Another issue relates to teachers who come from AEC countries. What is your opinion towards the university's policy about hiring teachers from other Asian countries to teach students in this university? Can this policy be called a preparation for AEC?*

**T2**: *Speaking about language variation, if you ask whether it is positive or negative for our students to meet with different accents, I think they can't escape it. Because, in the real world, there are different accents and we can't change their accents, such as Indian, Burmese, or Filipino English. So, if they have a chance to meet with such accents, I think it is their benefit because it may help them to be prepared for their future. This is particular to non-English major students. I mean, as far as they can communicate, it is fine although they may speak broken language. But for English major students, they need to make it correct because they will graduate to be the role model for other people.*

**T4**: *Well, if we have the budget, I still think that we should seek better choices to make it worthwhile for our students. But, nowadays, when we don't have many choices, we need to hire them. I mean, if we can choose, we will.*

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**T2**: *Yes. If we can choose like T4 said, we may need to choose native speakers or those who hold a teaching certificate or language experts. It shouldn't be only language users. No matter how much we need to pay them, I think we should because they are experts in their language and they are more reliable.*

**T4**: *Or if we can't choose, we need to accept that this is the best we have.*

**T2**: *Yes. At least, they can meet the requirements of the university about foreign teachers.*

**T4**: *And, at least, we have other accents for our students.*

**T2**: *Yes. But if we can choose, we need native teachers to make it the best quality, which will be a worthwhile investment for our students.*

**T4**: *And they may assist the department when we have some projects relating to students' language improvement, which I see worthwhile to hire them.*

**R**: *The last issue which is liked with the former one. What do you think about the increase of English varieties which are quite different from American and British English? In particular in our Asian context, there are a number of English varieties occurred, such as Indian and Filipino English. So, as a teacher of English, do you think we should bring this issue into classroom or not?*

**T2**: *Actually, in terms of teaching, we need to teach them the accurate version of English first. We can't teach them what is not the original English. I mean students need to know the correct or standard first. So, when they go out the classroom, they will be able to apply it in their daily lives, although the English that they may find outside is different from what they have learned. However, they still need to know that there are also different Englishes in the real situation and, although such Englishes are different from American and British English, they are also comprehensible.*

**T4**: *I think the occurrence of varieties is inevitable. For instance, our Thai language is constantly changing. So I agree with T2 that we should teach our students the standard variety and at the same time we should raise their awareness of other varieties. This will be useful for their realistic use of English because they may be panic when they meet with other Englishes and complain that we don't teach them before.*

**R**: *Thank you very much for coming today.*

# Appendix K The coding book for focus groups

| Theme | Sub-theme | Code/Sub-code | | Definition |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **1. Beliefs about ELT** | | | | All beliefs of the participants that are relevant to teaching English language |
| | 1.1 Beliefs about ELT in relation to the NESs' norms | BEL/NESs | | All beliefs of teachers that relate to norms of English use of native English speakers |
| | | | BEL/NESs=CUL | Beliefs about ELT that relate to native English speakers' culture |
| | | | BEL/NESs=RULE | Beliefs about ELT that relate to native English speakers' rules of English language such as accents, pronunciation, and their standard |
| | | | BEL/NESs=RELIA | Beliefs about ELT that relate to native English speakers' reliability or |
| | 1.2 Beliefs about ELT in relation to the GE perspective | BEL/GE | | Beliefs about ELT that conform to GE |
| | | | BEL/GE=NNETs | Beliefs about ELT that relate to non-native English teachers |
| | | | BEL/GE=WEs/ELF | Beliefs that relate to language variation issues such as world Englishes and English as a lingua franca |

# Appendix L  Examples of field notes

## L.1  An example of fieldnotes of T2's classroom

**Part 1: Description of classroom observation**

1. Teacher's name: T2

2. Module: Public Speaking and presentation

3. Date and time: N/A

| Predicate (What is the teacher doing in their classroom?) | Perceived party (What is happening?) | Participant (Who is/are participating?) | Notes |
|---|---|---|---|
| Teacher starts his class by his orientation and asks for a work assigned last week. | Teacher makes sure students speak correctly about 'daily routine. <br><br> The teacher explains the differences between canteen and cafeteria (American English vs. British English). <br><br> - He mentions not to direct translate from Thai to English. | Teacher and all students majoring in Public Relations and English language. | Teacher corrects students' sentences shows how to pronounce 'get-up' correctly. <br><br> He always emphasises correct pronunciation. |
| Teacher introduces new topics to students . | -Teacher suggests students consult NESs' dictionaries in order to pronounce correctly. <br><br> -Teacher mentions how to pronounce strong and weak consonants like 'thank you', 'might have', 'at home'. <br><br> -Teacher mentions that English major students should use varieties of words not simple as 'I think/I believe' but 'I consider/my perspective is' . <br><br> -Teacher gives examples of bad English/pronunciation of students made by some NNESs. <br><br> -Teacher assigns students to present about 'tourist attraction' in next week's class. | Teacher and all students majoring in Public Relations and English language. | -Teacher says he is worried about students' pronunciation. <br><br> -He also says a lot of people speak 'Englishes' today which are non-standard like Filipino English .Besides these Englishes sound unacceptable .If his students want to be better in pronouncing English, they need to consult NESs or their dictionaries which are standard. <br><br> - This teacher repeatedly mentions standard English as the best and perfect English. <br><br> - Teacher always corrects students' pronunciation and refers to NESs' pronunciations. <br><br> -When students get feedback, they tend to be less confident. |

| Teacher tests students' speaking (oral test) which they do weekly. | Teacher tests students' speaking based on their prepared sentences.<br><br>Teacher says that students should not rely on their scripts because they have practised it before the class. | Teacher and all students majoring in Public Relations and English language. | Teacher frequently corrects students' mistakes while they are speaking and gives them direct feedbacks.<br><br>Teacher always shows students how to pronounce words in order to make sure they can pronounce themselves correctly. |
|---|---|---|---|

## Part 2: Reflection of classroom observation

The teacher mentions that this class is too big (more than 100 students) for the practice-based subject. This causes him to be unable to help all students although the class lasts for 4 hours. He tries to give students' feedback as much as he can because he thinks that they need to make it correct. He does not want to see they use broken English as those who speak "Englishes".

He also says that many of students selected to enrol with him because they do not want to study with Filipino teachers whom they have difficulty in communicating with.

In addition, he says that the proficiency levels of students in this class varied as they come from both English and non-English major (A conversation with T2 after this classroom).

**Pop-up questions**:

- Try to ask about direct feedback for students pronunciation in the interview with this teacher. Why and how is it important?

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## L.2   An example of fieldnotes for T5's classroom

**Part 1: Description of classroom observation**

1. Teacher's name: T5

2. Module: Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL)

3 Date and time: N/A

| Predicate (What is the teacher doing in their classroom?) | Perceived party (What is happening?) | Participant (Who is/are participating?) | Notes |
|---|---|---|---|
| Teacher teaches innovation in language learning and teaching. | Teacher asks about yesterday's seminar (i.e. Trends of research in English language education) conducted by Professor Ross Mitchell.<br><br>All students answer and talk about the research instruments.<br><br>Teacher tells that today's trend of ELT involves focusing on learners not only teaching methodology. | Teacher and all MA students majoring in English language. | Teacher asks students' understanding about the talk of the native speaker (British accent). |
| 2. Teacher shows course outline. | - Today's lesson is about the effects of technology in ELT and research in ELT.<br><br>- Teacher asks how does technology affect English language learning and teaching. | Teacher and all MA students majoring in English language. | - In the course outline (shown on slides), there consists of a whole session for "World Englishes". |
| 3. Teacher opens a You Tube video of Professor David Crystal –"the effect of new technology on English which involves varieties of English" | - Teacher summarises the video of Crystal's talk.<br><br>- Teacher says that technology Influence not only on English but also on Thai language.<br><br>- Teacher mentions that there are lots of different uses of languages on the internet both in Thai and English, but 'why' should need to stick with the 'Standard.' | Teacher and all MA students majoring in English language. | |
| 4. Teacher shows another video concerning the most significant challenges for current teachers of English by Prof. David Crystal. | - Teacher explains that language changes so fast.<br><br>- Students are asked to give examples of language uses in social media. | Teacher and all MA students majoring in English language | - Teacher talks about varieties of English, explaining that we find new English use every day (e.g. new slang, new words, pronunciations) and claims that not every person speaks RP (i.e. Received Pronunciation).<br><br>- Teacher describes that there are many Englishes in the world and we should be ready for differences or challenges of English.<br><br>- Teacher emphasises a lot about the globalisation of English, |

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| | | | English as a lingua franca, accents, varieties of English, and describes that we are in the context of the standard follower.

-Teacher also raises a question "whether we can only teach one standard English in the present day?"

- Teacher says that Multilingualism is a new trend as well as English in Asia/ASEAN/AEC.

- Teacher concerns that teachers and students of English need to be aware about these issues in the present day. |
| | | 236 | |

**Part 2: Reflection of classroom observation**

In this class, teacher reflects a lot about GE perspective, which is interesting to ask her in the interview

**Pop-up questions:**

Why does this teacher concern about GE issues in her teaching?

# L.3   An example of field notes for T5's classroom

## Part 1: Description of classroom observation

1. Teacher's name: T5

2. Module: Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL)

3 Date and time: N/A

| Predicate (What is the teacher doing in their classroom?) | Perceived party (What is happening?) | Participant (Who is/are participating?) | Notes |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. The teacher continues her lesson about innovation in language learning and teaching. | - The teacher talks about innovation and language teaching and learning.<br><br>- The teacher discusses about innovation with students.<br><br>- The teacher links with the implementation of innovation in the national level of Thailand – the proposal for improvement (how poor of Thai people to take TOEFL). | Teacher and all MA students majoring in English language | - |
| 2. The teacher assigns students to do some readings and summarising the topics according to the forms provided. | 1. The teacher talks about the prescribed policy for English language in Thailand and expectations for teaching English to Thai students.<br><br>2. The teacher also says that the policy is part of the political issues/political influences/ (Do we need a public hearing?)<br><br>3. The impact of test/ exam-based/ in Thai education (Cheating is common?)<br><br>4. Teacher discusses the adopting of Western concept which is too much, and it does not concern the local context.<br><br>5. Teacher says that it is fine to import the policy from others but we need to consider the similarity of the contexts/ importing from the Western countries – there may have cultural differences.<br><br>6. She raises that we may have to learn from our neighbourhood/ASEAN (e.g. Malaysia) and try to apply their ways of teaching, learning, and using English. | Teacher and all MA students majoring in English language | - The teacher also talks about the standard curriculum – standard English.<br><br>- She also mentions about the mismatch between the textbooks and the policy (National Act of Thailand).<br><br>- She reflects the ranking of Thai people's proficiency in ASEAN. (Are the tests based on TOEFL/IELTS appropriate for Thai people?).<br><br>- The teacher always mentions about the mismatch between the policy and the reality of English/ She says that the teacher should be the person who innovates education according to the 'bottom-up' policy, not the government/ministry of education (top-down policy). |

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**Part 2: Reflection of classroom observation**

Some of the contents today relate to GE. This teacher shows her awareness of GE both in her interviews and in teaching practices.

**Pop-up questions:** N/A

# L.4 An example of field notes for T6's classroom

**Part 1: Description of classroom observation**

1. Teacher's name: T6

2. Module: English for Specific Purposes (ESP)

3 Date and time: N/A

| Predicate (What is the teacher doing in their classroom?) | Perceived party (What is happening?) | Participant (Who is/are participating?) | Notes |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Teacher teaches 'Music and Literature'. | - Teacher tells objectives of the lesson.<br>- Teacher asks the relationship between music and literature.<br>- Teacher ask students' favourite musics and movies. | Teacher and all students majoring in Western Music | - Teacher encourages students to express their ideas without considering grammar |
| 2. Teacher shows a You Tube video. | - Teacher selects the You Tube Video to present a story about 'a boy and a tree'.<br>- Teacher asks students which version they want to see.<br>- Teacher chooses the version that was recorded by NESs first and scrolls trhough different versions including NNESs' versions. | Teacher and all students majoring in Western Music | - Teacher gives students' opportinity to select teaching and learning materials.<br>- Teacher asks which accent that students want to listen to.<br>- Students say they want to listen to the one recorded by NESs.<br>- Teacher agrees with students and expresses that other versions recorded by NNESs sound weird. |
| 3. Teacher asks students to practice pronouncing English words. | - Teacher reads a poem and asks students to guess the meaning before explaining them. | Teacher and all students majoring in Western Music | - Teacher links the poem to religious and social issues. |
| 4. Teacher assigns students to prepare for next week's lesson which will be about poems. | - The teacher talks about a poetry called 'If I Die. | Teacher and all students majoring in Western Music | - |

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**Part 2: Reflection of classroom observation**

What is interesting in this class is that teacher and students negotiated about teaching and learning material, although they finally selected the NESs' version.

**Pop-up questions:**

- Why did teacher allow students to select learning material?

- Why didn't teachers select the You Tube videos that were recorded by NNESs?

- What is his view about accents of NESs and NNESs?

# Appendix M The coding book for observations

| Theme | Sub-theme | Code/Sub-code | Definition |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Beliefs about ELT | | | All beliefs of the participants that are relevant to teaching English language |
| | 1.1 Beliefs about ELT in relation to the NESs' norms | BEL/NESs | All beliefs of teachers that relate to norms of English use of native English speakers |
| | | BEL/NESs = RULE | Beliefs about ELT that relate to native English speakers' rules of English language such as accents, pronunciation, and their standard |
| | 1.2 Beliefs about ELT in relation to the GE perspective | BEL/GE | Beliefs about ELT that conform to GE |
| | | BEL/GE = Wes | Beliefs that relate to World Englishes or varieties of English language |
| | | BEL/GE = ELF | Beliefs that relate to English as a lingua franca |
| 2. Factors influencing beliefs about ELT | | | All factors that influenced the Participants' beliefs |
| | 2.1 External factors | FACT/EXT | Factors residing out the participants' brain |
| | | FACT/EXT=PEO/STU | Factors related to the participants' students |
| | | FACT/EXT = POL | Factors about policy, regulations, or documents that the participants have to follow |

# Appendix N Examples of teachers' documents

## N.1   A syllabus for the course EIL

**Course syllabus**

| | |
|---|---|
| **Subject Code:** | 146724 |
| **Course Credit:** | 3(3–0–6) |
| **Course Title:** | English as an International Language |
| **Course Conditions:** | None |
| **Curriculum:** | English |
| **Degree:** | Master |
| **Hours:** | 45 |
| **Instructor:** | T1 and T4 |

**Course descriptions:**

Exploration of the rise of English to its current dominant status, the implication of its current position for language professionals, discussions of language rights and claims about linguistic imperialism, and the advantages and disadvantages of language of wider communication

**Objectives:**

In this class, the students will:

1. Examine the rise of English to its current dominant status
2. Discuss the role of English as an international language both from positive and negative point of views
3. Analyze political, economical, social and cultural influences on the use of English and English language teaching

| Week | Contents | Hrs | Activities | Materials | Lecturer |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Orientation and Introduction to the course | 3 | Explanation of the course syllabus | course syllabus | T4 |
| 2 | History of English: The stories of English | 3 | Lecture Group discussion | PowerPoint presentation | T4 |
| 3 | Key topic in World Englishes: –The historical, social and political context –The origins of pidgin and creole languages | 3 | Lecture Group discussion | PowerPoint presentation | T4 |

| Week | Contents | Hrs | Activities | Materials | Lecturer |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 4 | –Who speaks English today?<br>–Variations across Outer Circles Englishes<br>–Standard language ideology in the Inner Circle | 3 | Lecture<br>Group discussion | PowerPoint presentation | T4 |
| 5 | –The spread of English as an international lingua franca<br>–The roles of English in Asia and Europe<br>–The future of World Englishes | 3 | Lecture<br>Group discussion | PowerPoint presentation | T4 |
| 6 | Development: Implications and Issues<br>–The legacy of colonialism<br>–Characteristics of pidgins and creoles<br>–The English Today debate<br>–The legitimate and illegitimate offspring of English | 3 | Lecture<br>Group discussion | PowerPoint presentation | T4 |
| 7 | –Standards across space<br>–Native and non-native speakers of English<br>–En route to new standard Englishes<br>–Possible future scenarios | 3 | Lecture<br>Group discussion | PowerPoint presentation | T4 |
| 8 | Midterm Examination | | | | |
| 9 | Exploration: Current debates in World Englishes | 3 | Lecture<br>Group discussion | PowerPoint presentation | T1 |
| 10 | Exploration: Current debates in World Englishes | 3 | Lecture<br>Group discussion | PowerPoint presentation | T1 |
| 11 | Extension: Readings in World Englishes | 3 | Lecture<br>Group discussion | PowerPoint presentation | T1 |
| 12 | Extension: Readings in World Englishes | 3 | Lecture<br>Group discussion | PowerPoint presentation | T1 |
| 13 | Student-led discussion | 3 | Discussion | PowerPoint presentation | T1 |
| 14 | Student-led discussion | 3 | Discussion | PowerPoint presentation | T1 |
| 15 | Presentation | 3 | presentations | PowerPoint presentation | T1 |
| 16 | Final Exam | | | | |

**Course Assessment:**

| | |
|---|---|
| Participation | 10% |
| Papers | 15% |
| Presentation | 15% |
| Mid term exam | 30% |
| Final exam | 30% |

**Grading:**

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 80–100 | A | 60–64 | C |
| 75–79 | B+ | 55–59 | D+ |
| 70–74 | B | 50–54 | D |
| 65–69 | C+ | 0–49 | F |

**Reference:**

Jenkins, J. (2009). World Englishes: A resource book for students. Routledge: London and New York.

Crystal, D. (2003). English as a global language. Cambridge University Press.

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Crystal, D. (2003). The future of English. Cambridge University Press.

Phillipson, R. (1992). Linguistic imperialism. Oxford University Press.

Smalley, W. (1994). Linguistic diversity and national unity: Language ecology in Thailand. The University of Chicago Press.

Crystal, D. (1995). Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English language. Cambridge University Press.

## N.2   A syllabus for the course TEFL

146726 การสอนภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะภาษาต่างประเทศ  3(3-0-6)
Teaching English as a Foreign Language

**คำอธิบายรายวิชา**

ภาพรวมและแนวคิดพื้นฐานในการใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะภาษาต่างประเทศ การเรียนรู้ภาษา
ที่สอง วิธีการเรียนการสอนภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะภาษาต่างประเทศ บทบาทของการเรียนการสอน
ภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศในบริบทของประเทศไทย ปัญหาและเทคนิควิธีการสอน
ภาษาอังกฤษ โดยเน้นแนวทาง วิธีและเทคนิคเชิงสื่อสารในปัจจุบัน

**แผนการสอนชั่วโมงทฤษฎี**

| สัปดาห์ที่ | หัวข้อ | จำนวนชั่วโมง | กิจกรรมการเรียนการสอน | สื่อที่ใช้ | ผู้สอน |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Orientation, Introduction to the course, TEFL definition , nature  and specific characteristic of TEFL | 3 | Introduction and class assignment 1 | Course syllabus | xxx |
| 2 | Approaches and Methods in Language Teachings | 3 | Lecture and class activities and assignment 2 | Handout Computer | xxx |
| 3 | Communicative Language Learning (CLT) Discuss current issues  related to CLT | 3 | Lecture and self-reflection writing on CLT as empiric base | Handout | xxx |
| 4 | Language Classroom instruction | 3 | Lecture and class activities Assignment 3 :Classroom Observation | Handout | xxx |
| 5 | English for Academic Purpose (EAP) | 3 | Lecture and EAP Assignment 4:  syllabus design | Handout | xxx |
| 6 | Skills for teacher and  Integrated Approach | 3 | Lecture and small group assignment | Handout | xxx |
| 7 | Classroom Management in EFL /ESL, Culture and the language teacher, Cultural expectations, assumptions, and conflicts in the EFL and ESL classroom. | 3 | Lecture and small group assignment | Handout | xxx |
| 8 | Midterm exam | | | | |
| 9 | History of ELT in Thailand | 3 | Lecture and discussion | Handout | T5 |
| 10 | Current issues in ELT in Thailand, World Englishes | 3 | Lecture and discussion | Handout | T5 |

| สัปดาห์ที่ | หัวข้อ | จำนวน ชั่วโมง | กิจกรรมการเรียน การสอน | สื่อที่ใช้ | ผู้สอน |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 11 | The effect of technology in ELT | 3 | Lecture and discussion | Handout | T5 |
| 12 | Innovations in ELT | 3 | Lecture and discussion | Handout | T5 |
| 13 | Innovations in ELT (Cont.) | 3 | Lecture and discussion | Handout | T5 |
| 14 | The technological context | 3 | Lecture and discussion | Handout | T5 |
| 15 | Individual differences in language learning and teaching | 3 | Lecture and discussion | Handout | T5 |
| 16 | Final Exam | | | | |

### แผนการประเมินผลการเรียนรู้

| ผลการเรียนรู้ที่เกี่ยวข้อง | วิธีการประเมิน | สัปดาห์ที่ ประเมิน | สัดส่วนของการประเมินผล |
|---|---|---|---|
| | 1.  สอบภาคทฤษฎี | 4 | 20% |
| | 2.  การบันทึก Observations of Language Classes | 7 | 10% |
| | 3.  ฝึกฝนการสอน | 13 | 20% |
| | งานที่ได้รับมอบหมาย | | 10% |
| | การเข้าชั้นเรียนและการมีส่วนร่วม | | 10% |
| | สอบปลายภาค | 16 | 30% |

### ทรัพยากรประกอบการเรียนการสอน

1.  ตำราและเอกสารหลัก

Gebhard, Jerry. 1996. *Teaching English as a Foreign or Second Language A Teacher Self-development and Methodology Guide*. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press.

Celce–Murcia (Eds.) *2001.* Teaching English as Second or Foreign Language" (Ed). 3rd Edition, Boston: Heinle&Heinle.

2. สื่อออนไลน์ต่างๆ เช่น www.tesol.org , www. eslcafe.com

3. เอกสารและข้อมูลแนะนำ

Hamp–Lyons, L., Hood, S., Sengupta, S., Curtis, A., & Yan, J. (1999). *Best practices: A literature review of effective instructional design and learner processes in acquiring second/foreign language at primary and secondary levels.* Hong Kong: Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Department of English.

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National Standards in Foreign Language Education Project. (1999). *Standards for foreign language learning in the 21st Century.* Lawrence, KS: Author.

Appendix N

## N.3   English Courses in Thai MOOC (YouTube Video)
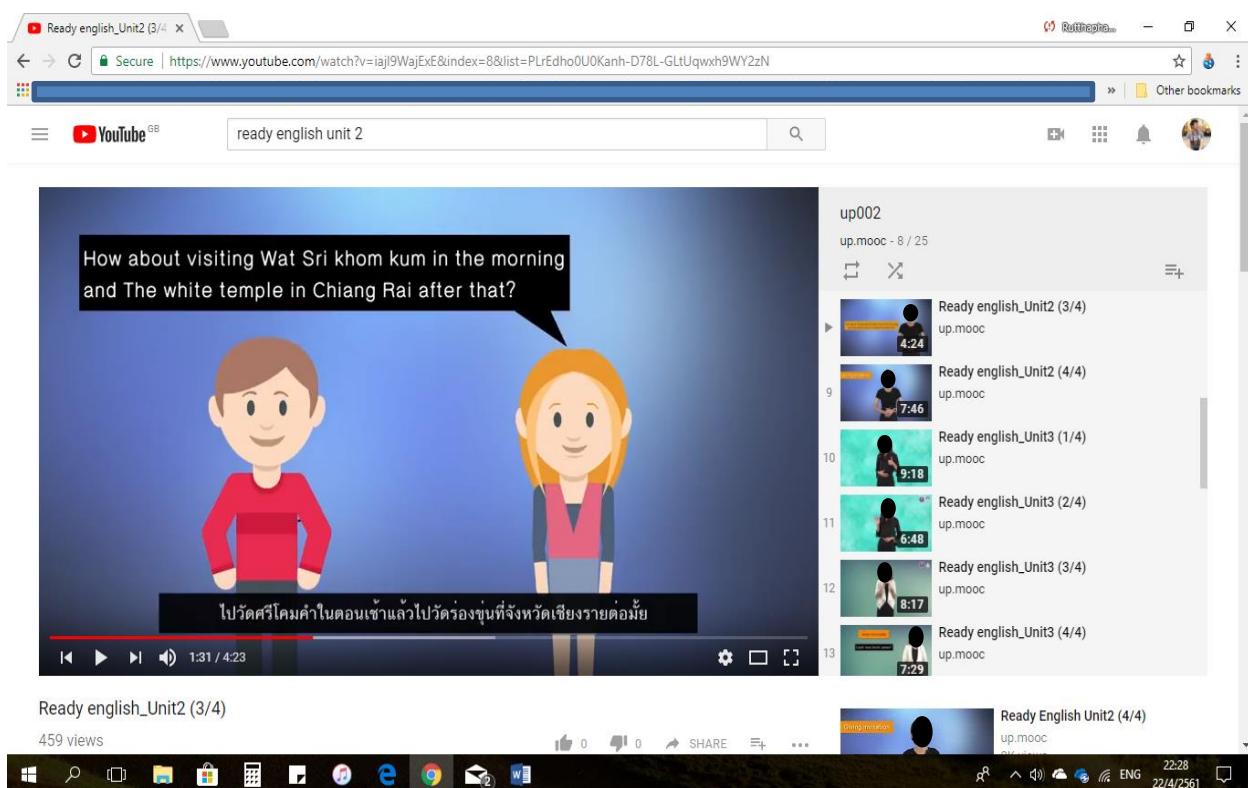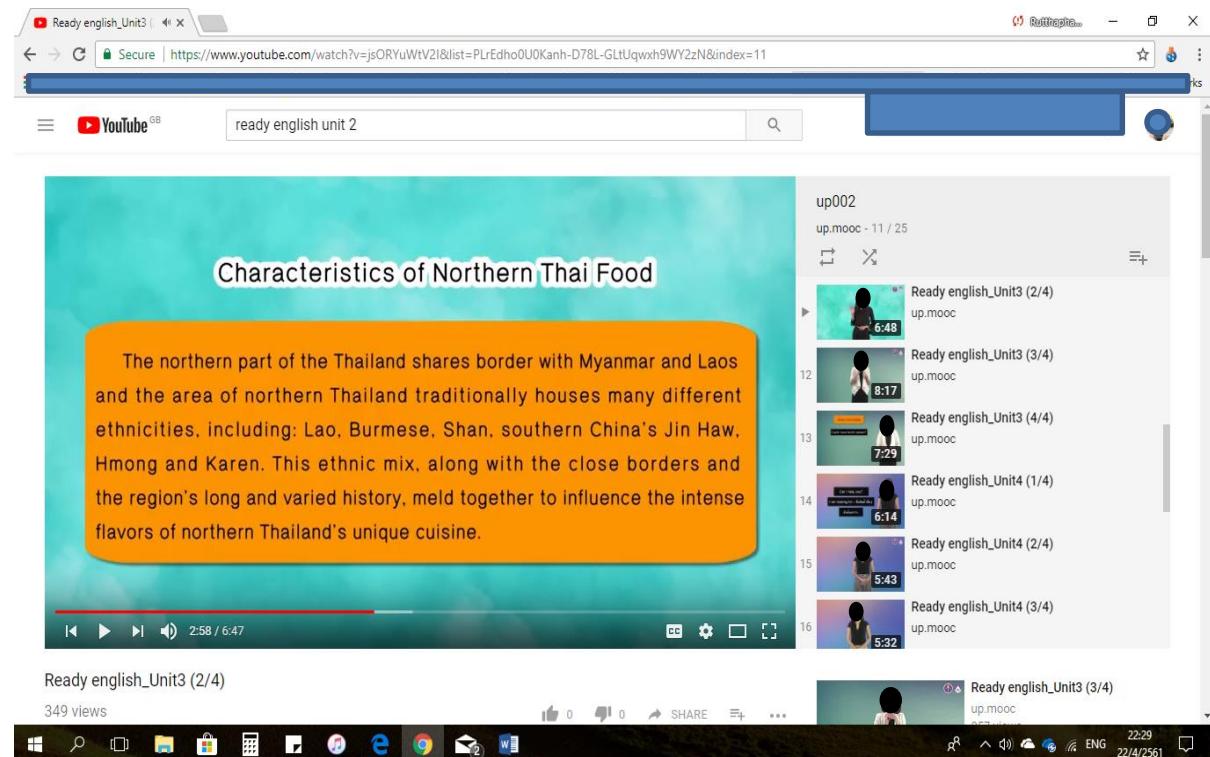
## N.4   A syllabus of the course English for Communication

รายละเอียดของรายวิชา(มคอ.3)

ชื่อสถาบันอุดมศึกษา

คณะ                                คณะศิลปศาสตร์

### หมวดที่ 1 ข้อมูลทั่วไป

1. รหัสและรายชื่อวิชา

146131   ภาษาอังกฤษเพื่อการสื่อสาร
English for Communication
หมู่เรียนที่  1

2. จำนวนหน่วยกิต

3 (2–2–5)

3. หลักสูตรและประเภทของรายวิชา

**หลักสูตรวิทยาศาสตรบัณฑิต สาขาวิชาการประมง**
**ประเภทของรายวิชา**
ภาคการศึกษาต้น / ชั้นปีที่ 3

**หลักสูตรวิทยาศาสตรบัณฑิต สาขาวิชาการประมง**
**ประเภทของรายวิชา**
ภาคการศึกษาต้น / ชั้นปีที่ 4

**หลักสูตรศิลปศาสตรบัณฑิต สาขาวิชาภาษาจีน**
**ประเภทของรายวิชา**
ภาคการศึกษาต้น / ชั้นปีที่ 3

**หลักสูตรศิลปศาสตรบัณฑิต  สาขาวิชาภาษาฝรั่งเศส**
**ประเภทของรายวิชา**
ภาคการศึกษาต้น / ชั้นปีที่ 3

**หลักสูตรการศึกษาบัณฑิต  สาขาวิชาการศึกษา และหลักสูตรศิลปศาสตรบัณฑิต  สาขาวิชาภาษาไ**
**ประเภทของรายวิชา**
ภาคการศึกษาต้น / ชั้นปีที่ 3

4. อาจารย์ผู้รับผิดชอบรายวิชาและอาจารย์ผู้สอน

อาจารย์ผู้รับผิดชอบรายวิชา
อาจารย์ผู้สอน
อาจารย์ผู้ประสานงานรายวิชา

6. รายวิชาที่ต้องเรียนมาก่อน(Pre–requisite)(ถ้ามี)

ไม่มี

7. รายวิชาที่ต้องเรียนพร้อมกัน(Co–requisite)(ถ้ามี)

ไม่มี

8. สถานที่เรียน

C301 อาคารเรียนรวม

9. วันที่จัดทำหรือปรับปรุงรายละเอียดของรายวิชาล่าสุด

19/01/2558

## หมวดที่ 2 จุดมุ่งหมายและวัตถุประสงค์

### 1. จุดมุ่งหมายรายวิชา

เพื่อให้นิสิตสามารถปรับปรุงการออกเสียงที่เป็นปัญหา มีความรู้
ความเข้าใจเกี่ยวกับการฟังและการพูดภาษาอังกฤษ โดยเน้นการออกเสียงสระ พยัญชนะ
การเน้นเสียงในระดับคำและระดับประโยค การเชื่อมเสียงระดับคำ สามารถพัฒนาและผลิตบทสนทนาพื้นฐาน
การทำความเข้าใจบทสนทนา การฟังเพื่อจับคำสำคัญ รายละเอียดและใจความสำคัญของการสนทนา
และพูดโต้ตอบได้อย่างเหมาะสมตามสถานการณ์และยุคสมัย

### 2. วัตถุประสงค์ในการพัฒนา / ปรับปรุงรายวิชา

เพื่อให้นิสิตมีความรู้พื้นฐาน เป็นการเตรียมความพร้อมด้านปัญญาในการนำความรู้
ความเข้าใจในการฟังและการพูดภาษาอังกฤษไปใช้ในชีวิตประจำ
ตามการเปลี่ยนแปลงในบริบททางสังคมและสอดคล้องกับแนวโน้มด้านภาษาที่มีปรับเปลี่ยนไปตามยุคสมัย

## หมวดที่ 3 ลักษณะและการดำเนินการ

### 1. คำอธิบายรายวิชา

ทักษะการฟังและพูด ภาษาอังกฤษ การออกเสียงสระ, พยัญชนะ, การเน้นเสียงระดับคำและระดับประโยค
การทำความเข้าใจบทสนทนา การฟังเพื่อจับคำสำคัญ รายละเอียด และใจความสำคัญ
การพูดโต้ตอบบทสนทนาอย่างเหมาะสม

English listening and speaking skills, pronouncing vowel and consonant, stress patterns and intonation in both
word and sentence levels, understanding conversational language, listening for key words, details, and gist,
making response to the conversation in proper way

### 2. จำนวนชั่วโมงที่ใช้ต่อภาคการศึกษา

| บรรยาย | สอนเสริม | การฝึกปฏิบัติภาคสนาม/การฝึกงาน/ปฏิบัติการ | การศึกษาด้วยตนเอง |
|---|---|---|---|
| 30 | 0 | 30 | 75 |

### 3. จำนวนชั่วโมงต่อสัปดาห์ที่อาจารย์ให้คำปรึกษา และแนะนำทางวิชาการแก่ผู้เรียนเป็นรายบุคคล

จำนวน 1 ชั่วโมงต่อสัปดาห์

## หมวดที่ 4 การพัฒนาการเรียนรู้ของผู้เรียน

| สัปดาห์ที่ | หัวข้อ/รายละเอียด | จำนวนชั่วโมง | กิจกรรมการเรียน | สื่อการสอน | ผู้สอน |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Orientation | Lab. 2 hrs.<br>Lab. 2 hrs. | Explanation of the course syllabus | Course syllabus<br>Slides | ████ |
| 2 | Unit 1:<br>• Vowels and Diphthongs Sounds | Lab. 2 hrs.<br>Lab. 2 hrs. | Lecture, Practice | Handout, Slides, and Clips | ████ |
| 3 | Unit 2:<br>• Consonants Sounds | Lab. 2 hrs.<br>Lab. 2 hrs. | Lecture, Practice | Handout, Slides, and Clips | ████ |
| 4 | Unit 3:<br>• Silent sounds<br>• List of vowels with Communicative Meaning in English<br>• 1st Quiz | Lab. 2 hrs.<br>Lab. 2 hrs. | Lecture, Practice | Handout, Slides, Clips and Quiz | ████ |
| 5 | Unit 4:<br>• Syllable<br>• Pronunciation practices | Lab. 2 hrs.<br>Lab. 2 hrs. | Lecture, Practice | Handout, Slides, and Clips | ████ |

| สัปดาห์ที่ | หัวข้อ/รายละเอียด | จำนวนชั่วโมง | กิจกรรมการเรียน | สื่อการสอน | ผู้สอน |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 6 | Unit 5:<br>• Stress<br>• Stress on words and<br> • Pronunciation<br> practices<br>• 2nd Quiz | Lab. 2 hrs.<br>Lab. 2 hrs. | Lecture, Practice | Handout, Slides, Clips,<br>Camera or Camcorder<br>and Quiz | ⬛ |
| 7 | Unit 6:<br>• Clusters<br>• Initial consonant<br> clusters<br>• Final consonant<br> clusters<br>• 3rd Quiz | Lab. 2 hrs.<br>Lab. 2 hrs. | Lecture, Practice | Handout, Slides, Clips<br>and Quiz | ⬛ |
| 8 | Unit 7:<br>• The Social Classes of<br> English Words | Lab. 2 hrs.<br>Lab. 2 hrs. | Lecture, Practice | Handout, Slides, and<br>Clips | ⬛ |
| 9 | Unit 8:<br>• Sentence Stress<br> • Emphasis and<br> contrast<br>• 4th Quiz | Lab. 2 hrs.<br>Lab. 2 hrs. | Lecture, Practice | Handout, Slides, Clips<br>and Quiz | ⬛ |

| สัปดาห์ที่ | หัวข้อ/รายละเอียด | จำนวนชั่วโมง | กิจกรรมการเรียน | สื่อการสอน | ผู้สอน |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 10 | Unit 9:<br>• ☐Intonation<br>• ☐5th Quiz | Lab. 2 hrs.<br>Lab. 2 hrs. | Lecture, Practice | Handout, Slides, Clips and Quiz | ▬ |
| 11 | Unit 10:<br>• ☐Pause<br>• ☐Thought Group<br>• ☐Blending<br>• ☐Rhythm | Lab. 2 hrs.<br>Lab. 2 hrs. | Lecture, Practice | Handout, Slides, and Clips | ▬ |
| 12 | Unit 11:<br>• ☐Fast Speech / Reduced Speech | Lab. 2 hrs.<br>Lab. 2 hrs. | Lecture, Practice | Handout, Slides, Camera or Camcorder and Clips | ▬ |
| 13 | Unit 12:<br>• ☐Cross–cultural Communication | Lab. 2 hrs.<br>Lab. 2 hrs. | Lecture, Practice | Handout, Slides, and Clips | ▬ |
| 14 | Unit 13:<br>• ☐Basic English for Communication in the Daily Situations | Lab. 2 hrs.<br>Lab. 2 hrs. | Lecture, Practice | Handout, Slides, and Clips | ▬ |

| สัปดาห์ที่ | หัวข้อ/รายละเอียด | จำนวนชั่วโมง | กิจกรรมการเรียน | สื่อการสอน | ผู้สอน |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 15 | Presentation of the Role Play | Lab. 2 hrs.<br>Lab. 2 hrs. | Lecture, Practice | Handout, Slides, Clips, Camera or Camcorder and Criteria for the Role Play | |

2. แผนการประเมินผลการเรียนรู้

      ไม่มี

แผนการประเมินผลการเรียนรู้ (อธิบายวิธีประเมินผลการเรียนรู้แต่ละหัวข้อตามที่ปรากฏใน Curriculum Mapping) ตามที่กำหนดใน มคอ.2

1. ทดสอบย่อย ครั้งที่ 1-5       คิดเป็น 25%

    1.1 สอบกลางภาค       คิดเป็น 20%

    1.2 สอบปลายภาค       คิดเป็น 25%

2.วิเคราะห์กรณีศึกษา / การนำเสนอรายงาน / การทำงานกลุ่มและผลงาน / การส่งงานตามที่มอบหมาย
    คิดเป็น 20%

3.การเข้าชั้นเรียน / การมีส่วนร่วม อภิปราย
/ เสนอความคิดเห็นในชั้นเรียน                     คิดเป็น 10%

หมายเหตุ

## หมวดที่ 6 ทรัพยากรประกอบการเรียนการสอน

    6.1 ตำราและเอกสารหลัก

    6.2 เอกสารและข้อมูลสำคัญ

1. Claire, E. (1990). **An Indispensable Guide to Dangerous English**. Dundee, IL: Delta System, Co., Inc.
2. Liang, J. and Rice, S. (1999). *Everyday English in Conversation*. [database on-line]. Available form http://www.focusenglish.com.

    6.3 เอกสารและข้อมูลแนะนำ

## หมวดที่ 7 การประเมินและปรับปรุงการดำเนินการของรายวิชา

### 1. กลยุทธ์การประเมินประสิทธิผลของรายวิชาโดยนิสิต
ประเมินอาจารย์ผู้สอนรายวิชาโดยนิสิต ผ่านเว็บไซต์ ของมหาวิทยาลัย

### 2. กลยุทธ์การประเมินการสอน
ประเมินการสอนจากแบบบันทึกหลังการสอนของผู้สอน หรือทีมผู้สอน และผลการเรียนของนิสิต

### 3. การปรับปรุงการสอน
การจัดประชุมทีมผู้สอนเพื่อพัฒนาการเรียนการสอน

### 4. การทวนสอบมาตรฐานผลสัมฤทธิ์ของนิสิตในรายวิชา
ทวนสอบจากคะแนนข้อสอบ หรืองานที่มอบหมาย

### 5. การดำเนินการทบทวนและการวางแผนปรับปรุงประสิทธิผลของรายวิชา

นำข้อมูลที่ได้จากการประเมินข้อ 1 กลยุทธ์การประเมินประสิทธิผลของรายวิชา โดยนิสิต และข้อ 2

กลยุทธ์การประเมินการสอนมาวางแผนเพื่อปรับปรุงคุณภาพของรายวิชา เนื้อหา แบบทดสอบ

สื่อและเอกสารประกอบการเรียน

# Appendix O The coding book for document analysis

| Theme | Sub-theme | Code/Sub-code | | Definition |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. **Beliefs about ELT** | | | | All beliefs of the participants that are relevant to teaching English language |
| | 1.1 Beliefs about ELT in relation to the NESs' norms | BEL/NESs | | All beliefs of teachers that relate to norms of English use of native English speakers |
| | | BEL/NESs = RULE | | Beliefs about ELT that relate to native English speakers' rules of English language such as accents, pronunciation, and their standard |
| | 1.2 Beliefs about ELT in relation to the GE perspective | BEL/GE | | Beliefs about ELT that conform to GE |
| | | | BEL/GE = WEs | Beliefs that relate to World Englishes or varieties of English language |
| | | | BEL/GE = ELF | Beliefs that relate to English as a lingua franca |
| 2. **Factors influencing beliefs about ELT** | | | | All factors that influenced the Participants' beliefs |
| | 2.1 External factors | FACT/EXT | | Factors residing out the participants' brain |
| | | | FACT/EXT = POL | Factors about policy, regulations, or documents that the participants have to follow |

# Appendix P  Participant information sheet

**UNIVERSITY OF Southampton**

Participant Information Sheet (Face to Face)

**Study Title**: Thai university teachers' beliefs about ELT and their awareness
of Global Englishes:  A study of relationship and impact on
teaching practices

**Researcher**:  Rutthaphak Huttayavilaiphan        **Ethics number**: 24584

**Please read this information carefully before deciding to take part in this
research. If you are happy to participate you will be asked to sign a
consent form.**

**What is the research about?**

I am a PhD student in Applied Linguistics: English Language Teaching at the
University of Southampton, United Kingdom. I am awarded a full PhD
scholarship from University of Phayao, Thailand where is my workplace. This
research project is part of my programme's requirement. It aims to explore
belief about English language teaching (ELT), awareness of Global Englishes
(GE), and ELT practices of Thai teachers of English language. In addition, it
aims to investigate the relationship among these mental constructs and see
to what extent they are influential to each other in ELT classrooms.

**Why have I been chosen?**

Due to your professional status and experience as a teacher teaching English
as a foreign language (EFL) for Thai learners, your given information is
perceived to provide an insight into a realistic and specific phenomenon of
ELT which is useful for driving and improving English language education in
Thailand.  The participants in this study are selected by means of purposive
sampling. That is, there are a number of criteria used for the process of
participant selection, such as their educational and professional experiences,
and research interests.

Appendix P

**What will happen to me if I take part?**

If you are happy to participate in this study and are satisfied with the explanations from the researcher, a consent form will be sent to you to confirm that you agree to take part in the study. The period of data collection will be four to five months, and the process of data collection consists of a number of data collection methods. This includes a survey of teacher's background information, three individual interview sessions (via face to face), a session of focus-group interview, and teachers' teaching document analysis.

To generate a clear understanding about the data collection methods, the survey, which will be given to you before the process of data collection, will ask for your educational and professional backgrounds, and your opinions towards English language teaching and learning in the current period. This means, it is used as a research method for the purposes of participant sampling and prompted data for other research methods. If you are then asked to take part in the interview, the three individual sessions of interview will focus on different issues (e.g. teachers' previous teaching experiences, teachers' current teaching activities, and teachers' clarification of meaning of their first two interviews). They will be held in different periods of time depending on your convenience. This is different from the focus-group interview, which you will also be asked to take part in, if you are asked to complete the interview. The focus group will be held only once (ideally at the end of the semester or after the completion of the individual interviews). In this focus-group session, there will have a total of five participants who will discuss a number of topics related to ELT practices. What should be noted for you is that both types of interview will last approximately thirty to sixty minutes and will be audio recorded for further analysis. Finally, the researcher will ask for your permission to observe and collect your teaching documents (e.g. course syllabus, textbooks, handouts, and feedbacks for students) to analyse and use as a supplementary data for other research methods. The process of document observation and collection will happen since the beginning until the end of the semester.

Appendix P

**Are there any benefits in my taking part?**

Taking part in this study may provide some benefits for you. For example, the narration of your experiences about ELT practices to other people both in the individual and the focus-group interviews may help you to reflect your own way of teaching which is important for professional development. In addition, your provided data may benefit other people who share the same professional status with you (e.g. other teachers of English language) and who are interested to develop English language education (e.g. educationalists and policy makers).

**Are there any risks involved?**

The study involves no physical risks at all, as all the data collection procedures will be taken place in the safe and public places like in the university's meeting room and the department of English. There will have no session of data collection that will be taken place in the personal places or outside the university. In terms of mental risks, due to the researcher's familiarity with the research setting and participants (as a colleague), the data collection will be conducted in a friendly and careful manner, with the awareness of sensitivity of topics in discussions and interviews.

**Will my participation be confidential?**

Your participation into the study will be totally confidential and your name will not be disclosed publicly. Each participant will have either a pseudo name or codified number. We will be in compliance with the Data Protection Act/University Policy and we will store the data on a password protected computer to ensure that they will remain confidential. The information you provide will not be shared with third parties except with supervisor of the project. Any published finding from this study or public presentations (e.g. conference presentations) which only make use of anonymised data.

# UNIVERSITY OF
# Southampton

All the information recorded will be strictly confidential and kept in accordance with the Data Protection Act/ University Policy. The data given will be stored on a password protected computer to ensure that they will remain confidential. The information provided will not be shared with third parties except with supervisor of the project. You can also be assured of anonymity, and non-traceability.

**What happens if I change my mind?**

You have the right to withdraw from this study at any stages without any excuse.

**What happens if something goes wrong?**

In the unlikely case of concern or complaint, you can consult the independent contact person whose phone number and email address are offered in the subsequent lines.

Chair of the Faculty Ethics Committee
Prof. Denis McManus (D.Mcmanus@soton.ac.uk)

**Where can I get more information?**

Rutthaphak Huttayavilaiphan    (+447510970437, rh2e14@soton.ac.uk)

# Appendix Q Consent form

**UNIVERSITY OF Southampton**

## CONSENT FORM

**Study title**: Thai university teachers' beliefs about ELT and their awareness of Global Englishes: A study of relationship and impact on teaching practices

**Researcher name**: Rutthaphak Huttayavilaiphan
**Staff/Student number**: 27066428
**ERGO reference number**: 24584

*Please initial the box(es) if you agree with the statement(s):*

I have read and understood the information sheet (insert date /version no. of participant information sheet) and have had the opportunity to ask questions about the study.

I agree to take part in this research project and agree for my data to be used for the purpose of this study

I understand my participation is voluntary and I may withdraw at any time without my legal rights being affected

*Data Protection*
*I understand that information collected about me during my participation in this study will be stored on a password protected computer and that this information will only be used for the purpose of this study. All files containing any personal data will be made anonymous.*

Name of participant (print name).............................................................

Signature of participant.................................................................…..…..

Date...............................................................................................

# Appendix R Research protocol

UNIVERSITY OF
**Southampton**

**FACULTY OF HUMANITIES**

**OUTLINE OF PROPOSED RESEARCH WITH HUMAN PARTICIPANTS, TO BE SUBMITTED via ERGO FOR ETHICAL COMMITTEE APPROVAL**

**STUDENTS PLEASE NOTE:** You will need to discuss this form with your Supervisor. In particular, you should ask him/her to advise you about all relevant ethical guidelines relating to your area of research, which you must read and understand.

**ALL RESEARCHERS PLEASE NOTE:** You must not begin your study until Faculty of Humanities ethical approval and Research Governance Office approval have been obtained through the ERGO system. Failure to comply with this policy could constitute a disciplinary breach.

1. **Name(s):** Rutthaphak Huttayavilaiphan

2. **Start date:** 16/01/2017 **End date:** 10/06/2017

3. **Supervisor (student research only):** Dr. Will Baker

4. **How may you be contacted (e-mail and/or phone number)?**
Rutthaphak Huttayavilaiphan (+447510970437, rh2e14@soton.ac.uk)

5. **Into which category does your research fall? Delete or add as appropriate.**
IPhD research

| 6 | **Title of project** Thai university teachers' beliefs about ELT and their awareness of Global Englishes: A study of relationship and impact on teaching practices |
|---|---|
| 7 | **Briefly describe the rationale for carrying out this project, and the specific aims and research questions**<br><br>This study has three aims. First, it seeks to explore the beliefs about English language teaching (ELT) of Thai teachers of English language. Second, it aims to investigate the awareness of Global Englishes (GE) of these teachers. Finally, it aims to study the relationship among teachers' beliefs about ELT, teachers' awareness of GE, and teachers' ELT practices.<br><br>It seeks to answer the following questions |

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| | |
|---|---|
| | 1. What are beliefs about ELT of Thai teachers of English language?<br><br>    1.1 What are their beliefs about English language, language teaching, and teaching English language?<br><br>    1.2 What are factors influencing teachers' beliefs about ELT?<br><br>2. Do Thai teachers of English language have awareness of GE?<br><br>    2.1 To what extent they have awareness of GE and how do they understand GE?<br><br>3. What is/are the relationship among teachers' beliefs about ELT, teachers' awareness of GE, and teachers' ELT practices?<br><br>    3.1 How and to what extent can these constructs affect each other? |
| 8 | **What is the overall design of the study?**<br><br>This study is based on qualitative methods. It aims to explore teachers' mental constructs (beliefs about ELT and awareness of GE) that can be influential for teachers' ELT practices, and to investigate the relationship among these constructs. To achieve these aims, four research methods are used. They include survey of teacher's background information, semi-structure interview, focus groups, and document analysis. It is expected to start on 16 January 2017 and end on 10 June 2017. |
| 9. | **What research procedures will be used?**<br><br>After receiving ethical approval from the University of Southampton, there will have a pilot study with a number of Thai teachers of English language who are studying in the department of Modern Languages of University of Southampton. This is to check for the sensitivity and possibility of the research methods which include survey, interview, and focus group. Once these methods are confirmed to be possible, the researcher will come to contact with the potential participants to invite them to participate in this study.<br><br>In the very first weeks of the fieldwork (since 16th January 2017), the researcher will ask a total number of 35 Thai teachers of English language in the target university (University of Phayao, Thailand) to complete a survey of teacher's background information which consists of three parts; educational background, professional background, and teacher's attitudes towards ELT in the current period. The data gained from this research method will be used as a criterion to select the main participants (10 teachers) for the main study. In addition, the data can be used as a prompt for other research methods. In addition, within this period, there will have the first individual interview session which mainly focuses on teacher's previous teaching experiences in order to elicit as much biological information as possible. |

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In the second month, there will have the second interview session which has a different focus from the first interview. That is, in this session, the participants will be asked about their current teaching activities. Furthermore, the researcher aims to use the approach of problem-centered discussion in order to contribute to the issue of problems in Thai ELT and possible solutions.

The third interview session will be conducted in the third month of the fieldwork. The focus of this session will relate to the participants' reflection of meaning. That is, the interview will be based on the past and present events and activities produced by the participants in the first two interviews. In addition, at this stage, the researcher will take more roles to ask the participants to reflect and clarify of their data as well as to provide opinions and evaluations on what happened in the past and what is going on in the present.

In the fourth month, the focus-group interview will be conducted. As the data from this method is planned to be used as a supplementary for the individual interviews, it will happen only once for each two group of five participants (5 senior teachers and 5 junior teachers). There will not have many questions in the focus-group interviews as the nature of this research method is driven by the data that emerges from the group discussion. What is more, for this session, the researcher will take a role of the leader of the discussion.

In addition to interviews and focus groups, the researcher will ask for permission from the 10 participants to observe and collect their uses of teaching documents which may include course syllabus, textbooks, handouts, exam papers, and feedbacks on students' works and exam answers. This research method will happen since after the participants agree to take part until the end of this study.

| 10 | **Who are the participants?** |
|---|---|

The participants in my study will be 9 pilot participants and 10 main participants. The 9 pilot participants will be Thai teachers of English language who are doing a PhD in Applied Linguistics for English language teaching in the Department of Modern Languages, University of Southampton. Although some of them have some knowledge about the topic of my study, their provided information is still valuable especially in terms of checking for clarification of research methods' questions and topics. All of these 9 participants will be asked to complete the survey of teacher's background information in order to check the possibility and sensitivity of the questions. Then, only 5 of them (who are not members of the centre for Global Englishes [CGE] of University of Southampton) will be asked to take part in interviews and focus groups. This is to avoid bias information that may be provided by the CGE members who are familiar with the issues of Global Englishes.

The 10 main participants will be selected out from the total amount of 35 Thai teachers of English language who are teaching in the University of Phayao, Thailand. This means, in the first stage, the 35 participants will be asked to complete the survey of teacher's background information. Then, only 10 of them will be selected purposively based on their provided information for the

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Appendix R

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| | survey. The researcher is familiar with these participants as he is also working in this university. Thus, it is convenient to access to these participants and research setting.<br><br>It should be noted here that both the participants for the pilot and the main study are all mature adults (18+). When they are happy to participate in this study, they will be sent a consent form to confirm that they agree to take part in the study. |
| 11 | **How will you obtain the consent of participants, and (if appropriate) that of their parents or guardians?**<br><br>Prior to give the consent forms to both the pilot and main participants, there will have a chance for them to discuss about the details of the study with the researcher. Once understand the concepts and aims of the study, they will be given consent forms by hand. After this, they will be allowed to spend time to think about their participation before signing and sending the forms back to the researcher. |
| 12 | **Is there any reason to believe participants may not be able to give full informed consent? If yes, what steps do you propose to take to safeguard their interests?**<br><br>No |
| 13 | **Detail any possible discomfort, inconvenience or other adverse effects the participants may experience arising from the study, and how this will be dealt with.**<br><br>Nothing significant. They may feel uncomfortable during the interviews but the questions should not be difficult or particularly personal. |
| 14 | **How will it be made clear to participants that they may withdraw consent to participate at any time without penalty?**<br><br>I will explain to the participants their rights to withdraw from this study at any stages when giving them the consent forms. Contact information of the ethical committee in ERGO in case they prefer to check the ethical issues or in case they would like to withdraw from the study. |
| 15 | **How will information obtained from or about participants be protected?**<br>The researcher and supervisor are the only people who have the right to look at the data, and the participants' personal information will not be given out. |
| 16 | **If this research involves work with children, has a CRB check been carried out?**<br><br>N/A |
| 17 | **Outline any other information you feel may be relevant to this submission.** |

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# Appendix S  Risk assessment form

**RISK ASSESSMENT FORM**

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**Faculty of Humanities**

To be completed in accordance with the attached guidelines

**Activity:**

I am conducting a research study as a requirement of doing a PhD in the Faculty of Humanities in the field of Applied Linguistics: English Language Teaching (ELT), University of Southampton. The topic of the study is 'Thai university teachers' beliefs about ELT and their awareness of Global Englishes (GE): A study of relationship and impact on teaching practices'.

I would like to explore the beliefs about ELT of Thai teachers of English language in order to gain their insight into their perspectives towards English language, language teaching, and teaching English language which are perceived to be helpful for an understanding of their ELT practices. In addition, I aim to investigate the awareness of GE of these teachers with an attempt to understand to what extent they are aware of the global phenomenon of English language use. It is believed that the output of this attempt can provide the essential information including factors that influence their awareness of GE which seems to be important for an implementation of the GE-orientation into their ELT practices. Finally, I also perceive that the three aspects including teachers' beliefs about ELT, teachers' awareness of GE, and teachers' ELT practices have some effects on each other. Thus, the third aim is to investigate their relationship and measure to what extent they are influential to each other in ELT classrooms.

There will have a total number of 19 participants in this study; 9 pilot participants and 10 main participants. The 9 pilot participants will be Thai teachers of English language who are doing a PhD in Applied Linguistics for English language teaching in the Department of Modern Languages, University of Southampton, and the 10 main participants will be Thai teachers of English language who are teaching in the target research setting (University of Phayao, Thailand). The main participants will be selected purposively based on their provided information for the survey of teacher's background information. The researcher is familiar with these participants as he is also working in this university. Thus, it is convenient to access to these participants and research setting. Notably, all the participants for this study are all mature adults (18+). When they are happy to participate in this study, they will be sent a consent form to confirm that they agree to take part in the study.

In this study, there will have four research instruments. The first is the survey of teacher's background information. Data from this instrument will be used as a criterion for the selection of participants and prompts for other research methods. The second instrument is semi-structure interview which will use to gain information of teachers' beliefs about ELT and their awareness of GE. This interview method will be conducted three times since the first until the third month of the fieldwork. The third research instrument is focus-group interview. Its data will be used a supplementary for individual interviews. Only once session will be conducted for focus-groups (ideally in the last month of the fieldwork) with each two group of five participants. The fourth instrument is teachers' teaching document analysis. The documents used may include course syllabus, textbooks, handouts, exam papers, and feedbacks on students' works and exam answers. They will be observed and collected throughout the fieldwork period.

The data collected will be later analysed based on the theoretical frameworks presented in the literature review section. After the data are analysed, the conclusion of this study will be drawn and discussed objectively based on the evidence found and data collected.

**Locations:** This pilot study will be taken place in the University of Southampton, UK, and the main study will be in the University of Phayao, Thailand.

**Potential risks:**

The study involves no physical risks at all, as all the data collection procedures will be taken place in the safe and public places like in the university's meeting room and library. There will have no session of data collection that will be taken place in the personal places or outside the university. In terms of mental risks, due to the researcher's familiarity with the research setting and participants (as a colleague), the data collection will be conducted in a friendly and careful manner, with the awareness of sensitivity of topics in discussions and interviews. None of the topics covered in this research are particularly sensitive.

**Who might be exposed/ affected?**
The individual participant might be exposed to this risk.

**How will these risks be minimised?**
I will try to explain in every single detail to make the participants clear as much as possible. Additionally, I will provide them with contact information of The Chair of the Faculty Ethics Committee in case they prefer to talk to someone to make sure that their status will be confidential.

**Risk evaluation:** <u>Low</u> / Medium / High

**Can the risk be further reduced?** Yes / <u>No</u>

**Further controls required:**

**Date by which further controls will be implemented:**

**Are the controls satisfactory:** Yes / No

**Date for reassessment:**

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Completed by:** | Rutthaphak Huttayavilaiphan | Rutthaphak | 22/11/16 |
| | Name | Signature | date |
| **Supervisor/manager:** If applicable | Will Baker | Will Baker | 23/11/16 |
| | Name | Signature | date |
| **Reviewed by:** | | | |
| | Name | Signature | date |

# Appendix T  Student research project ethics checklist

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**Student Research Project Ethics Checklist 2016/17**

This checklist should be completed by the student (with the advice of their thesis/ dissertation supervisor) for all research projects.

Student name: Rutthaphak Huttayavilaiphan          Student ID: 27066428

Supervisor name: Dr. Will Baker          Discipline: Faculty of Humanities

Programme of study: Applied Linguistics: English Language Teaching

Project title: Thai university teachers' beliefs about ELT and their awareness of Global Englishes: A study of relationship and impact on teaching practices

|   |   | YES | NO |
|---|---|-----|-----|
| 1 | Will your study involve living human participants? | ✕ | |
| 2 | Does the study involve children under 16? | | ✕ |
| 3 | Does the study involve adults who are specially vulnerable and/or unable to give informed consent?(e.g. people with learning difficulties, adults with dementia) | | ✕ |
| 4 | Will the study require the cooperation of a third party/ an advocate for access to possible participants? (e.g. students at school, residents of nursing home) | ✕ | |
| 5 | Does your research require collection and/ or storage of sensitive and/or personal data on any individual? (e.g. date of birth, criminal offences) | | ✕ |
| 6 | Could your research induce psychological stress or anxiety, or have negative consequences for participants, beyond the risks of everyday life? | | ✕ |
| 7 | Will it be necessary for participants to take part in the study without their knowledge and consent at the time? (e.g. covert observation of people) | | ✕ |
| 8 | Will the study involve discussion of sensitive topics? (e.g. sexual activity, drug use) | | ✕ |
| 9 | Will financial inducements (other than reasonable expenses or compensation of time) be offered to participants? | | ✕ |
| 10 | Are there any problems with participants' rights to remain anonymous, and/or ensuring that the information they provide is non-identifiable? | | ✕ |
| 11 | Will you have any difficulty communicating and assuring the right of participants to freely withdraw from the project at any time? | | ✕ |
| 12 | If you are working in a cross cultural setting, will you need to gain additional knowledge about the setting to work effectively? (e.g. gender roles, language use) | | ✕ |
| 13 | Are there potential risks to your own health and safety in conducting the study? (e.g. lone interviewing in other than public spaces) | | ✕ |
| 14 | Will the study involve recruitment of patients or staff through the NHS? | | ✕ |
| 15 | Does the research project involve working with human tissue, organs, bones etc that are less than 100 years old? | | ✕ |

Please refer to the Research Project Ethics Guidance Notes for help in completing this checklist.

Appendix T

If you have answered NO to all of the above questions, discussed the form with your supervisor and had it signed and dated by both parties (see over), you may proceed with your research. A copy of the Checklist should be included in your eventual report/ dissertation/ thesis.

If you have answered YES to any of the questions, i.e. if your research involves human participants in any way, you will need to provide further information for consideration by the Humanities Ethics Committee and/or the university Research Governance Office. This information needs to be provided via the Electronic Research Governance Online (ERGO) system, available at www.ergo.soton.ac.uk.

CHOOSE ONE STATEMENT:

☐ I have completed the Ethics Checklist and confirm that my research does not involve human participants (nor human tissues etc).

☑ I have completed the Ethics Checklist and confirm that my research will involve human participants. I understand that this research needs to be reported and approved through the ERGO system, before the research commences.

Signature of student: ......Rutthaphak Huttayavilaiphan...........     Date:.......22/11/2016.............

Signature of supervisor:  ...............Will Baker........................     Date: ......22/11/2016...........

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