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Target language avoidance by Thai teachers of English: Thai teachers' beliefs

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USE OF THESIS

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TARGET LANGUAGE AVOIDANCE BY THAI TEACHERS OF

ENGLISH: THAI TEACHERS' BELIEFS

by

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ABSTRACT

Interactionist theories of second language acquisition (SLA) claim that both comprehensible input and modified interaction in the target language are necessary for language learning. In the foreign language context, little opportunity exists for such input simply through exposure to the target language outside the classroom. Therefore, the quantity as well as quality of input within classrooms is especially important. However in spite of this fact many non-native teachers of second language, including English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers, tend to avoid using the target language in their classrooms. This has serious pedagogic implications. Thai teachers are typical of many EFL teachers in that they appear to avoid using English in the classroom. While suggestions have been made as to why this might be the case, to date there has been no direct research to examine this issue.

This study aims to investigate some of the factors that may prevent Thai teachers from using English in their classroom. In the first stage of the study, data were collected from primary and secondary Thai teachers of English in both private and public schools. The teachers were interviewed using focus group discussions which were audio-recorded. Key issues emerging from this data were used to develop a questionnaire for the second stage of the study. A representative sample of teachers was then selected from a range of schools and surveyed using this instrument. Finally, in the third stage, the results of the questionnaire were presented to the original focus groups to validate the responses and to explore possible reasons for the outcomes.

The analysis of focus group interviews was based on the interview transcripts. For the questionnaire results, the data from questionnaires were analysed using Multivariate analysis (MANOVA). Findings of the primary and secondary teachers were compared, as were the private and public school teachers. In addition, post-hoc Scheffé tests ($p = .05$) on the univariate F-ratios were performed to determine if there were significant differences between the groups.

Findings from the focus group interviews showed that the most significant influences on Thai teachers' use of English in their classes included the low proficiency level of teachers and students, teachers' language anxiety and students' objectives for studying English. The results from the questionnaires were slightly different from the focus group interviews. They indicated that exams, the curriculum focus on grammar, the low proficiency of both teachers and students, and pre-service teacher training were the major reasons for "target language avoidance". There were significant differences between the private and public school teachers. There were also significant differences in the responses of primary and secondary teachers. All teachers suggested a variety of ways they could be encouraged to use more English. Finally, this study offers suggestions for further research concerning teachers' beliefs regarding classroom language use.

DECLARATION

I certify that this thesis does not, to the best of my knowledge and belief:

(i)   incorporate without acknowledgement any material previously submitted

        for a degree or diploma in any institution of higher education;

(ii)   contain any material previously published or written by another person

        except where due reference is made in the text; or

(iii)   contain any defamatory material.

Signature____._____

Date _____21 / 12 / 2000____

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The ability to communicate effectively requires more than just understanding the structure of the language, or being able to read and write in the target language (Widdowson, 1978). Language teaching and learning which is communicative generally develops proficiency in oral skills, that is, the students' ability to understand and make themselves understood in spoken English (Green & Hecth, 1992). To learn a foreign language, the learner must be exposed to it, and although it may be possible to learn a foreign language through the medium of the mother tongue, such teaching does not prepare the learner for face-to-face communication. In fact a number of researchers suggest that it is extremely important that the medium of instruction in the language classroom is the target language (Duff & Polio, 1990; Higgs, 1982; Kalivoda, 1988; Kalivoda, 1990; Polio & Duff, 1994; Satchwell, 1997).

Despite this, in Thailand teachers continue to use a traditional teaching approach. Language learning in Thailand is rarely communicative but is based on the meticulous use of a textbook methodology. The emphasis in English classes is on accuracy and grammatical rules. Perfection is sought through an understanding of every language item and memorisation is the main learning technique. As a result, learners' interpersonal interactions are not adequately valued.

Within Second Language Acquisition (SLA) literature, it is now widely accepted that by providing opportunities for language learners to access comprehensible input (Krashen, 1980b; 1983; 1982; 1985), to negotiate meaning through interaction (Long, 1980; 1981; 1983b; 1996) and to push out comprehensible

output (Swain, 1985; 1985) language acquisition can be facilitated. The theoretical constructs of comprehensible input (ie., Krashen's Input Hypothesis), the negotiation of meaning (ie., Long's Interaction Hypothesis) and comprehensible output (ie., Swain's Output Hypothesis) are central to SLA research. In the foreign language context, the classroom is one of the main places where comprehensible input and modified interaction are available.

In Thailand, English is the foreign language that is most often used in areas such as business and tourism. With an increase in exports to other Asian and international countries, the status of English as the language for trade and communication has gained more importance in Thailand. In addition, English is the major foreign language used in the Thai tourist industry. At the same time, however, the increasing demand for proficient English speakers has not translated into practice. For example, Horey (1991) states that English proficiency of Thai tourism workers needs to be improved, particularly in speaking and listening skills. Similarly there is a dearth of Thai people who can speak English sufficiently well enough to conduct business in this important foreign language. Although many changes have been instigated to improve English in Thailand through educational measures, the outcomes of such have, to date, been less than successful. Even after 12 years of schooling where English is taught in every year level, most students exit with a very low level of proficiency in the language (Prisananantakul, 2000; Punyarachun, 1996). Thus there is a real need to examine ways for improving English teaching in Thailand.

But, although English is the dominant foreign language in Thailand and is now being used in a variety of popular media such as videos, pop music and

computer games, English language students have limited exposure to, and opportunity for, practising their English. In general, activities for the acquisition of English are only available within language classrooms. As such, Thai teachers have an important role in providing an appropriate language learning environment. And yet, it seems evident that Thai teachers, like many EFL teachers, are unable to do this (Jongusa, 1987; Ratanapreedakul, 1981; Reves & Medgyes, 1994; Sukchun, 1979). Instead, they often use the students' first language to explain or organise a task, or to manage student behaviour, perhaps in the belief that this will bring about a more successful lesson. In doing so, however, they deprive their students of opportunities to learn and use the target language.

In Thailand, most English teachers are native speakers of Thai, not of English. Further, often they are not fluent in the target language, therefore the language most often used in the classroom is Thai, the students' first language. This means that, students receive little target language input, even in the second language classroom. As a result, students are hindered in their attempts to acquire the target language.

The problem of lack of input is compounded by apparently ineffective teaching methods. For example, the approach used in most Thai classrooms emphasises a formal, traditional style of language learning. Memorisation or rote learning, involving a high degree of teacher-centeredness, is a long established technique.

While Thai schools are currently looking at various resources such as computers, tape players and video players to support communicative methods in language classrooms, the fact remains that teaching English requires teachers to speak and use English as often as possible (Willis, 1983). In other words, it means

establishing English as the main language of communication between students and teachers in the language classroom.

Researchers claim that language teaching and learning in Thailand is unsuccessful for many reasons. This includes reasons such as the student's poor self-esteem (Srituptim, 1986; Suwankitti, 1979) and social anxiety (Suwankitti, 1979). When Hayes (1996) interviewed Thai teachers of English in Thailand, he found that most interviewees considered their initial teacher-training to be of little relevance to their classroom experiences. A further reason for unsuccessful English language learning in Thailand has been teachers' focus on grammar rules in reading and writing (Sawasdiwong, 1992). Most importantly, however, Thai teachers' own failure to use English may be the main contributing factor. If Thai teachers do not feel comfortable speaking English, it is difficult to imagine how the students themselves can become competent speakers of it. Indeed, the use of the mother tongue rather than the target language has been seen (by Jongusa, 1987; Ratanapreedakul, 1981) to detract from their students' possible success by limiting their exposure to an English speaking environment.

Thai teachers are not alone in their lack of English usage. Researchers consistently show that target language avoidance by teachers is common in many other foreign language settings and they have suggested a number of reasons why this is so. Twenty years ago, Allen and Valette (1977) noted that the majority of foreign language teachers whose native language is English do not possess near-native fluency in the second language. More recently, Brosh (1996) reaffirmed Allen and Valette's statement that reality shows that the language knowledge of some language

teachers is insufficient and only slightly exceeds the level at which they teach. Thus, the teacher's linguistic ability may affect how they teach.

Likewise, Klinghammer (1990) argues that competence in the foreign language of the teachers could be an important factor when making choices about language teaching approaches. Teachers may decide to use the first language simply because it increases the ease of classroom management (Franklin, 1990). Horwitz (1996) asserts that teachers may be acutely aware of their linguistic deficiencies, and may privilege the use of first language in their classrooms as one way of compensating for their less than native target language proficiency. Several researchers including Nolasco and Arthur (1986) also propose that the level of student motivation may have some affect on teachers' language choice in the classroom. They suggest that when teachers mainly use the target language in their classrooms, students seem to lose interest in learning it. Other researchers suggest mixed-ability classrooms, student behaviour (Franklin, 1990), lesson content and materials (such as textbooks) (Polio & Duff, 1994) and departmental policies (Duff & Polio, 1990) are also potential impediments.

Whilst these explanations seem plausible, it has not been established empirically exactly why Thai teachers do not use English. Target language avoidance by Thai teachers has serious implications for foreign language learning as the students encounter little English oral communication use outside their classes.

1.1 The Purpose of this Study

Freeman and Richards (1996, p.1) assert that "to better understand language teaching, we need to know more about language teachers: what they do, how they think, what they know, how they learn". This study investigates these factors. It addresses the beliefs that influence Thai English teachers use of Thai and the target language in classroom instruction. In particular it seeks to determine the main reasons that prevent them from using English in EFL language classrooms.

CHAPTER 2

EDUCATION AND ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING IN

THAILAND

2.1 Education in Thailand

2.1.1 National Scheme of Education

In Thailand, it is compulsory for children who are 4 years of age to commence their schooling in Year 1 and continue to the end of Year 6. Post-compulsory education includes Years 7 to 12 and higher education. Thai education is currently provided on the basis of the 1992 National Scheme of Education and the Eighth National Education Development Plan 1997-2001. The Eighth Plan contains educational objectives and policies to be implemented by operational units during the period of the Plan.

Accordingly, the Eighth National Education Development Plan (1997-2001) has been introduced with the following objectives, policies and major programs for educational development: 1) to expand an extensive and equal provision of basic education for all people; and 2) to extend basic education to secondary education level. The specific aims are:

- To improve the equality of education and its relevance to the needs of individuals, communities and the nation, and to enable learners to achieve their full potential for self-development;
- To enhance Thai education in strengthening the national potential for self-reliance, and to contribute to national economic stabilisation and the role of Thailand in the global economy;
- To accelerate an extensive and equal expansion and further extension of high quality basic education services for all;
- To reform the teaching and learning system;
- To reform the teacher education system;

- To accelerate the production and development of middle-level skilled and higher-level skilled manpower; and
- To reform education administration and management;

The targets for educational development to guide the implementation have been grouped into nine major programs:

1) Promotion of basic Education for all;
2) Improvement of education quality;
3) Development of the teacher education system and process, and the development of in-service teacher education;
4) Production and development of manpower in the areas of science and technology and social sciences;
5) Research and development;
6) Improvement of administration and management;
7) Development of higher education;
8) Educational resource mobilisation; and
9) Development of an educational information system.

(Office of the National Education Commission, 1998a).

2.1.2 The Thai Educational System

Education in Thailand is divided into four levels: pre-primary education, primary education, secondary education and higher education.

i) Pre-primary Education

Pre-primary education is provided in the form of childcare. It is not compulsory for all children. The aims of this level of education are to develop the physical, psychological, mental, emotional, personal, and social aspects of children between 3 - 5 years of age. Pre-primary education can be provided by various agencies, both public and private. The facilities offered can be classified into 3 types: child development centres, kindergartens and pre-school classes.

The curriculum for pre-primary education is developed by each agency in accordance with principles and guidelines stated in the National Scheme of

Education. Normally, facilities are required to provide learning experiences which promote the development of children through everyday activities.

ii) Primary Education

Primary education, which is compulsory for children from 6-11 years old, incorporates 6 years of study. Most public primary schools in the Bangkok area are organised by the Ministry of Education (MOE) through the Office of the National Primary Education Commission (ONPEC), but some schools are under the responsibility of Ministry of Interior (MOI) through Bangkok Metropolitan Administration (BMA). The municipality schools in each rural province are administrated by the Ministry of Interior (MOI), through the Bureau of Local Education Administration. The private primary schools are administered under the auspices of MOE through the Office of the Private Education Commission (OPEC). There are also the demonstration schools of various universities which are administered under Ministry of University Affairs (MUA), but these also follow the national standard curriculum.

The curriculum for all public primary schools was revised in 1990 and was first implemented in Year 1 in 1991 and came into full effect in all years in 1996. The curriculum does not teach subject areas as individual courses, but it is made up of five learning experience groupings as follows:

1) Basic Skills Group, comprising Thai language and mathematics as the core subjects;
2) Life Experiences, dealing with the process of solving social and daily life problems with an emphasis on scientific process skills for better living;
3) Character Development, dealing with activities necessary for developing desirable habits, values, attitudes and behaviour, which will lead to a desirable character;
4) Work-Oriented Experiences, dealing with general practical work experiences and basic knowledge for career preparation; and

5) Special Experience, dealing with activities based on learners' interests. The learning activities in the area of special experiences can be organised by each school according to learners' needs and interests and may include knowledge and skills selected from the other four groups such as English for everyday life.

(Office of the National Education Commission, 1998a)

iii) Secondary Education

Secondary education is divided into two parts: lower secondary education and upper secondary education. Each part requires three years of study.

Lower secondary education aims to enable children from 12-14 years of age to identify their needs and interests and to be aware of their aptitude both in general and vocational education, and to develop their ability for work and occupational practices relevant to their age.

Lower Secondary Education is mainly provided by the Ministry of Education (MOE) in the Department of General Education (DGE) through the Office of the National Primary Education Commission (ONPEC), and by private schools under the supervision of the Office of the Private Education Commission (OPEC). There are also demonstration schools of various universities which are under Ministry of University Affairs (MUA), and they also follow the national standard curriculum.

Upper secondary education aims to enable learners from 15 - 17 years old to acquire the basics either for going further into higher education or for a career suitable for their ability.

Upper Secondary Education is divided into two parallel tracks: the general or academic track, and the vocational track. Public upper secondary education in the general or academic stream is mainly the responsibility of the DGE; the rest of the students in this stream are provided for by private schools which are organised by

OPEC and demonstration schools within universities which are administered by the MAU. Public vocational education at upper secondary level is provided by the Department of Vocational Education (DOVE), the Department of Fine Arts (DFA), and the Rajamangala Institute of Technology (RIT). In addition, King Mongkut's Institute of Technology, North Bangkok, under the Ministry of University Affairs (MUA), also offers courses at upper secondary level in industrial technology.

The structure of lower and upper secondary school curricula includes four components:

1) Core subjects: basic subjects that correspond to life and society in general and must be taken by all students. All of these subjects are prepared by the Department of Curriculum and Instruction Development, MOE;
2) Prescribed elective subjects: basic subjects that are different according to local condition and needs. The local authorities are given an opportunity to choose the subjects offered according to the number of credits, or the local authorities can prepare the subjects offered by themselves in addition to those prescribed by the Department of Curriculum and Instruction Development;
3) Free elective subjects: subjects that are open for learners to choose according to their interests, aptitude and needs. Students can choose either the subjects prepared by the Department of Curriculum and Instruction Development or those created by the local authorities;
4) Activities: All schools are required to organise three types of activities for learners: those organised in accordance with the regulations of the MOE; guidance, remedial teaching or academic development activities; and independent activities of learners.

(Office of the National Education Commission, 1998a)

iv) Higher Education

Higher education is mainly under the responsibility of the MOE and the MUA. In addition, other ministries and agencies also provide education at this level for their specific needs, which will be mentioned later in this chapter. Higher education is offered at three major levels: "อนุปริญญา" (A-nu-pa-rin-ya) a level lower than bachelor's degree, undergraduate, and graduate levels.

Apart from formal education, lifelong learning is organised to enable those who have missed formal schooling to have a second chance at education. Non-formal education and vocational training as well as informal education services are provided to those outside the school system by both public and private bodies. In addition to the Department of Non-Formal Education (DNFE), there are other government departments and ministries that have been carrying out non-formal education activities. Private voluntary agencies and various foundations have also been involved in the provision of non-formal education. For example, industries have organised non-formal education programs for their employees.

At present, non-formal education activities can be classified into three categories (Department of Non-Formal Education, 1999):

1) General Education: In this category, the program has been designed for those who wish to obtain a school equivalence certificate comparable to primary, lower secondary and upper secondary education;

2) Vocational Education Programs: These programs are conducted by the DNFE and other agencies, both public and private, using different courses of training prepared by those agencies. The DNFE accepts credits earned outside as part of the requirements for completion of the certificate of general education as specified in the above category;

3) Education for Quality of Life Improvement: Training programs other than those in the first two categories are offered in different fields. Such programs are conducted by various agencies, both public and private. The DNFE accepts credits earned from such training courses as part of the requirements for completion of the certificate as specified in the first category.

2.2 University Entrance Examination

The universities in Thailand can be classified as: 1) public universities that include Limited Admission Universities and Open Universities; and 2) private universities. Most students aim to attend the limited admission universities. In order

to gain entrance to these universities, a candidate must successfully pass the national university entrance examination which is organised by a committee consisting of representatives from public universities and the Office of Permanent Secretary for University Affairs. Students who cannot get into these more prestigious universities can either take an entrance examination at each private university or go to the open universities which do not require entrance exams.

Entrance to public limited admission universities is very competitive. According to ONEC (1998), 430,889 students graduated from upper secondary schools in 1997, but the public limited admission universities could only offer 53,983 undergraduate places for 1998 (Ministry of University Affairs, 1999b). As a consequence of this competition, upper secondary students pay a great deal of attention to preparing themselves for the national university entrance examinations.

The national university entrance examination system was developed in 1997. In this new selection and placement process, "combined sets of evidence" of each student's achievement are considered. These include achievement records from secondary school; the university exam which is divided into test scores in the main subjects and special test scores for certain professional programs (if any); and interviews and physical examinations. Weighting is given to each achievement component as follows:

1. Scores from secondary school   5%
2. University entrance exam   90%
   - Scores in main subjects
   - Special subjects (if any)
3. Interview/Physical examination   Pass/Fail

All students sit exams in Thai language, English language, and Social Studies. Other main subjects may also be included depending on the faculty and area to which the candidates apply e.g., Chemistry, Biology, Physics, Mathematics, General science, French language, German language, Pali language, Arabian language, Chinese language, and Japanese language.

The minimum scores required in each subject differs according to the student's chosen course. For instance, candidates who apply to Faculty of Education (Arts in secondary education) are required to take 5 main subjects: Thai language; English language; Social study; General science; and one of the following – Mathematics 2, French language, or German language, whilst candidates who apply to Faculty of Engineering are required to take six main subjects: Thai language; English language; Social study; Chemistry; Biology; and Mathematics 1.

2.2.1 The English Examination

The content of test items for the English national exam covers the curriculum of Years 10-12 in regular secondary schools. The exam has a multiple choice format based on vocabulary usage, grammar rules and reading comprehension (See Appendix A for the sample of the examination). This is in spite of the fact that the 1996 curriculum for upper secondary level emphasises the development of interpersonal communication skills.

2.3 English Language Teaching and Learning in Thailand

2.3.1 English Curriculum

In 1996, English become a compulsory subject in all schools (government and private, primary and secondary) and the MOE developed a Standard English Curriculum. When the new English national curriculum was introduced, each school was required to start teaching English in Year 1 (The Secretariat of The Prime Minister, 1995). Worawan (1996) argued that by starting at Year 1 and Year 2, the emphasis would shift to developing speaking and listening skills; skill areas previously overlooked in Thailand. This was supported by Punyarachun (1996) who claimed at the international seminar: "Expanding Horizons in English Language Teaching" that language teaching and learning should begin at the lower primary level and should focus on communicative language learning rather than a grammar-translation method. Similarly, Prisananantakul (2000) argued that the new policy of English teaching would focus on listening and speaking rather than grammar and spelling.

Therefore, according to the curriculum document, the main goal of compulsory English teaching in Thailand, at least in terms of the official education policy, is to develop students' oral language proficiency. As a consequence, this emphasis on oral communicative language skills is stated quite explicitly in the 1996 English Curriculum (Department of Curriculum and Instruction Development, 1996).

2.3.1.1 The English Curriculum (Primary Level)

In the introduction of this Ministry of Education document, it is stated that the English language is important and a good means of communication because it is now

used around the world as an international language. This document also suggests ways to improve English pedagogy. For example, methods of teaching and learning that are deemed to develop English proficiency are clearly and explicitly stated. In addition, guidelines for presenting the English curriculum within the classroom are specified. These relate to developing communicative ability in English, including the appropriate use of English in different situations, and the teaching of aspects of society and culture.

The structure of the English curriculum in the primary level is organised according to the experience of the groups and, as such the teaching and learning of English in the beginner Level is arranged into three levels. These are:

1) Preparatory level – This occurs in the second semester of Year 1 and for the whole school year in Year 2. At this level, listening and speaking are emphasised through activities which encourage the learner to become familiar with the English language in a positive environment.

2) Literacy level – This level relates to students in Years 3 and 4. At this level, mixed activities in reading, writing and spelling are combined, and speaking and listening tasks are also conducted to provide a foundation in learning English in all four macro skill areas.

3) Beginner Fundamental level – This is for students in Year 5 (Fundamental 1-2) and 6 (Fundamental 3-4). It focuses on the consolidation of the English taught through to Year 4.

The specified time ratio for learning English in Thai schools is:

Year 1- 4 = not less than 6 periods (120 minutes) per week.
             Lessons should occur throughout the whole week.
Year 5-6 = not less then 15 periods (300 minutes) per week.
             English tuition should occur every day.

This time structure is illustrated in the following figure.

Figure 2.1   Curriculum structure elementary level and time ratio

Preparatory Level		Literacy Level		Beginner Fundamental Level	
Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4	Year 5	Year 6
6 periods/week	6 periods/week	6 periods/week	6 periods/week	15 periods/week	15 periods/week
Start – 2nd Sem.	240periods/year	240periods/year	240periods/year	600periods/year	600periods/year

Note: 1 period = 20 minutes

According to the guidelines in the English curriculum, English teaching and learning should occur in a "learner-centred" manner. Opportunities should be provided for the learners to communicate in different, but real situations. It is also suggested that lessons be conducted in such a way that learners at the literacy level can practice reading, writing and spelling words and at Beginner Fundamental level by practicing sending and receiving information through listening, speaking, reading and writing.

The desire for the Ministry of Education to have teachers use a communicative approach is evident in the types of teaching and learning materials suggested in the document. Apart from textbooks, exercises, teacher's manuals and recording tapes, the use of authentic English materials is also promoted. For example, it suggests that teachers use newspapers, different forms of letters, graphs, and posters and other "real things" that can be found inside and outside the school. This includes the use of modern technology such as computers, videos, and self-learning centres.

The curriculum document suggests that teachers can select what to use or they can construct materials suitable for their own teaching-learning situations and classroom conditions.

2.3.1.2 The English Curriculum (Secondary Level)

The guidelines to be used in the teaching and learning of English in secondary schools are based on those used in the elementary levels. Once again, emphasis is placed on the learners' ability to use English language for involving oneself in the society, but this time at a much higher level, such as for future study and work situations. As with the elementary curriculum, the secondary curriculum document recommends that teaching and learning activities should be conducted in a "learner-centred" way allowing the learners to socialise in English by using a variety of teaching and learning materials. It is also suggested that teachers should use measurement and assessment procedures which conform to the aims of the curriculum. Therefore, the emphasis is on the development of the learners' ability to communicate in English in realistic situations, at the same time as experiencing English in a positive environment so that confidence is enhanced.

The curriculum structure of English at a Secondary level includes a) an Intermediate Level taught in Years 7-9 and, b) an Advanced Level that is taught in Years 10-12. Within both of these two levels there are two streams of English pedagogy. These are taught to all students in Years 7-12. The secondary curriculum consists of two groups:

1) Fundamental English with a total of 12 specific subjects which are grouped into:

    i)   Intermediate Fundamental English 5 – 10 for Year 7-9, and

    ii)   Advanced Fundamental English 11-16 for Year 10-12.

2) English for English concentration which is an elective which consisting of two parts:

    i)   English Language Improvement – which aims to improve the student's ability in English in all four macro-skills.

Courses offered for lower secondary level:
a) English listening-speaking;
b) English reading-writing;
c) English project work.

Courses offered for upper secondary level:
a) English listening-speaking;
b) English reading-writing;
c) English critical reading;
d) English creative writing;
e) Introduction to English translation;
f) English project work.

    ii)   English from Independent Experience – which aims to develop students' skills in their individual areas of interest.

Courses offered for lower and upper secondary level:
a) English from individual experience;
b) English on the job;
c) Information technology English;
d) Thematic English.

These two parts are not a continuation of Fundamental English. The learner can choose these courses for two periods per week in each semester. According to Ministry of Education, policy schools can conduct several of the optional courses depending on the needs and interests of learners.

According to the curriculum document of 1996, English teaching in Thailand should be based on communicative approach which allows students to develop in all four macro-skill areas. Further, it advocates that teachers should provide students with an opportunity to communicate in the real situations by way of interaction in the target language.

2.3.2 Assessment

The communicative approach is also apparent in the measurement and assessment procedures recommended in the "curriculum's global statements". It is suggested that assessment should be undertaken according to the learners' ability. Learners should use the language for involvement within society and in a culturally appropriate way. They should be able to translate information correctly according to the fundamentals of the language and it should be done in a manner which is suitable to particular situations, and according to their general ability to communicate in English. It is also suggested that the results of teachers' evaluations and assessments should be used for the continuous development of the learners.

The assessment guidelines specified in the curriculum include evaluation before learning, while learning and after learning. The curriculum document also recommends the use of different forms of assessment, such as testing, observation, evaluation of performance, and worksheets. Continuous evaluation is proposed to allow the learner to develop at his or her own rate. The tools used in measurement and assessment should indicate the result of the knowledge attained by the learner and should reflect the teaching/learning preparations done by the teacher. Standardised tools should also be used to assess the language of the learners.

2.3.3 Teaching methods

English language teachers in Thailand are provided with guidelines for the context of teaching, however guidance about specific teaching methods is not provided. As a result, teachers have a substantial amount of freedom in the way they conduct their lessons. The Thai tradition of language teaching and learning focuses on memorisation of grammatical rules. Teachers expect the students to receive rather than to construct and perfection is sought through the understanding of every language item. In addition, teacher and student relationships are very formal. As a consequence, there is a high degree of teacher-centerness in the way lessons are conducted.

According to 1996 curriculum, English teaching aims to develop four language skills: oral proficiency; listening comprehension; reading comprehension; and written proficiency. However, the highly centralised national university examination is a powerful influence in educational practice in Thailand. High school teachers in particular appear strongly aware of their students' university entrance examination which emphasises grammar and reading comprehension. As a result, this exam produces a strong washback effect with teachers teaching to the test which in turn affects the activities and content of English lesson in schools.

Summary

In 1996, the Ministry of Education in Thailand developed a new English curriculum. This document emphasises the importance English as a world language. The new national curriculum has made it possible for young students to commence learning English in the first year of their primary education. The main objective of

this curriculum is to develop students' oral language ability, the so-called "communicative language skill". Further, the document indicates that language teaching and learning should occur in a "learner-centred" manner which enables learners to communicate in real situations. The teachers should extend their use of materials from textbooks, to videos, audio tapes, and computers in order to promote learning. The curriculum document also recommends that assessment procedures should reflect this communicative approach.

CHAPTER 3

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter will begin with a review of some of the findings on second language acquisition theory, focussing on the interactionist perspective. Then, it will examine the factors seen to be necessary for successful second language acquisition. Finally, it will review literature relating to target language avoidance by teachers in language classrooms.

3.1 Second language acquisition

In order for second language acquisition to take place, second language data must be available. Regardless of theoretical position this includes comprehensible input, and according to one's perspective it may also include other things such as interaction and feedback and internal learner mechanisms, which allow the data to be processed. The primary value of input in second language acquisition is undisputed, however its role is viewed differently according to three different theoretical perspectives.

Behaviourists view the learner as a "language-producing machine"(Ellis, 1986). Behaviourist learning theory (e.g., Skinner, 1957) rejected the importance of internal processing that takes place inside the learner. For them, input consists of stimuli and feedback. The stimulus is important and an emphasis is placed on the need to adjust the input by grading it into a series of small steps. Each step establishes the necessary level of difficulty for the learner. Feedback is used to indicate to the learner how effective he/she has been at producing the second language. It is

presented in the form of reinforcement when the utterances are correct, or by correcting when the utterances are ill-formed.

This model of learning supposes that imitation is a necessary precondition for language learning. Learners would receive language input through listening as stimulus, and learn through imitation of this input. Imitation, together with the effects of corrective feedback acting as a reinforcement, would lead to the successful internalisation of new language items which would be added to the learner's grammar. Listening had a key role in the behaviourist view of language learning, both as the channel for the input of the stimulus, and also for the reinforcement of learning. However, generally, the behaviourist position has been discredited in SLA.

Those first to argue against the behaviourist position were the nativists, such as Chomsky (1959). Nativists maintain a somewhat contentious position. They view the learner as a "grand initiator" (Ellis, 1986). According to this theoretical position, learners are equipped with innate knowledge of the language. This view emphasises learner-internal factors. At the same time input still has an important role. It is seen as a trigger which activates the internal language processing (Cook, 1989). The information from the input helps the learner reach a new level to produce the correct forms.

Finally, there is the third theoretical position held by the interactionists who argue that the acquisition of language is the result of an interaction between the learner's mental abilities and his/her linguistic environment. Their view is that the important data is not just the utterances produced by the learner, but also the discourse which the learner and interlocutor jointly construct. Whilst nativist and interactionist agree that comprehensible input is necessary in order to acquire

language, interactionist believe that on its own input is not sufficient. For example, Long (1980; 1983a; 1983b; 1996) suggests that modified interaction is also necessary. Even so, input as part of the linguistic environment (i.e. opportunities to interact in the target language) is still vitally important.

In addition, and regardless of theoretical perspective, it is well accepted that learning to use a second language involves a great deal more than just acquiring some grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation. It involves the competence to choose and use language that is suitable for the situation (Broughton, Brumfit, Flavell, & Pincas, 1980). Further, with regard to learning a foreign language, it seems evident that the communication which takes place in language classrooms is important. It provides opportunities for real communication, as the interactions deal with ordinary, everyday matters (Margaret, 1986). From an interactionist perspective, classrooms are also important as they are the places where input and interaction can be made readily available, particularly when there are not abundant opportunities outside the school environment.

3.1.1 Input

In second language acquisition, input refers to language addressed to the second language learner by a native speaker or another learner (Ellis, 1986). It has been defined as "...the potentially processable language data which are made available by chance or by design, to the language learner" (Sharwood Smith 1993, p. 167). As has already been stated, it is widely accepted that input is necessary for second language acquisition. Wagner-Gough and Hatch (1975) note that learners often incorporate unanalysed chunks of input into their own speech. Larsen-Freeman (1976) noted a correlation between the frequency of morphemes in input to learners

and the order in which learners acquire them. Research into comprehensible input evolved from descriptions of language as social interaction, and of discourse as a semiotic system for the making and exchange of meanings (Halliday, 1978). Analyses of interactions between native and non-native speakers e.g., Hatch (1978b, 1978c) looked at how comprehension was achieved. Others, such as Scollon (1979) examined how comprehension lead to acquisition or as he described it how the 'vertical constructions' of caregiver-child discourse were incorporated as syntactic structures in children's first language development. Similarly, Hatch (1983) and Ellis (1986) suggest that second language learners' early syntax develops out of the question-and-answer patterns of the instructional discourse in which they participate. Ellis (1994) states that "second language acquisition can only take place when the learner has access to input in the second language" (p. 26).

In communicative situations, native speakers of English often adjust or modify their speech in order to make it more comprehensible to non-native speakers (Chiang & Dunkel, 1992; Krashen, 1981; Long, 1983a). Similar modifications are made by teachers in language classrooms in order to provide learners with a clear understanding of what is being said to them (eg. Chaudron, 1988; Freed, 1980; Hatch, 1983; Henzl, 1979; Scaraella & Higa, 1981; Long & Sato, 1983; Oliver, 1996). It is has also been suggested that these modifications help develop rapport between teachers and their students.

It is believed that "mere exposure to L2 input does not ensure comprehension and intake of the L2 information; rather learners need to have comprehensible input for second language comprehension and acquisition to occur" (Chiang & Dunkel, 1992, p.347). At the beginning stage, the teacher may make the input comprehensible

by associating it with visual cues and/or demonstrated actions. Paraphrasing, the repetition of key points, and acting out meanings are some other ways teachers can help convey meaning and make the input more understandable (Peregoy & Boyle, 1997; Pica, 1994a).

Some researchers such as Krashen (1982; 1985; 1980b; 1983), Long (1985) and Pica, Young and Doughty (1987) have tried to identify what makes input comprehensible to the learners. One kind of comprehensible input is the speech used by native speakers with non-native speakers. This is called foreigner talk. This is the input that has been modified or simplified by repeating and paraphrasing words, phrases, or sentences. It also involves a restricted vocabulary, one that uses only common or familiar items. Syntactically, it is also simplified by reducing the sentence length and the complexity, and by the avoiding the use of subordinate clauses. Foreigner talk is similar to caretaker speech in first-language acquisition and to teacher talk in the classroom. The purpose is similar for all these three registers to provide input that is easily comprehensible to learners. However, the language to which the learner is primarily exposed also must be interesting and relevant for learning to take place. It must also be meaningful as well as comprehensible (Chiang & Dunkel, 1992; Krashen, 1998; Richard-Amato, 1996). In addition, the input must be appropriate to the learner's current level of development (Krashen, 1982; Richard-Amato, 1996).

The most influential theory to date of the role of input in SLA is Krashen's input hypothesis (1980a; 1982; 1985). He examined the importance of simplified input, drawing on studies of caretaker speech with first language learners, teacher talk with students and native speaker talk with foreigners. He states:

> If caretaker speech is helpful for first language acquisition, it may be the cause that simple codes are useful in much the same way. The teacher, the more advanced second language performer, and the native speaker in casual conversation, in attempting to communicate with the second language acquirer, may unconsciously make the '100 or 1000 alterations' in speech that provide the acquirer with optimal input for language acquisition
>
> (Krashen, 1980, p.14)

Krashen has claimed that comprehensible input is the necessary and sufficient condition for language learning (Krashen, 1980; 1985; 1992; 1994). He calls this the 'Input Hypothesis', and it is a key component of his theory of language acquisition. Krashen believes that comprehensible input is the crucial factor in language acquisition. Further, he claims that it has consistently been shown to lead to language acquisition even without interaction, output or attention to second language form (Krashen, 1992; 1994).

Similarly, Krashen (1981) and Krashen and Terrell (1983) suggest that linguistic input by the teacher is all that is necessary for acquisition to occur in the classroom. According to Krashen, for successful language acquisition to occur, teachers need to provide linguistic input at the appropriate level: input at or below the students' level of proficiency will not advance their language acquisition, and input far beyond the learner' levels of competence will not be beneficial either. Krashen uses the concept of i+1 to represent the optimal level of complexity which teachers should provide for learners to acquire second language. In this, "i" represents the learners' level of acquisition, "i + 1" is the level above the current level of acquisition which teacher should transfer via classroom input for learners in order for acquisition to occur.

Krashen's distinction between language acquisition and language learning has also influenced foreign language teaching practice. Krashen defines acquisition as

individuals' application of the inborn abilities they have for first language acquisition to the acquisition of another language. He describes learning as gaining knowledge of the language that results from formal instruction, in particular the knowledge of grammatical rules. Krashen argues that, in oral communication, speakers can derive only from what they have acquired, not what they have learned, and further, learned knowledge is useful only in terms of its potential to help speakers observe their linguistic output for errors.

Atkinson (1987) claims that Krashen's distinction between acquisition and learning has served to deprive students of the use of their first language in foreign language teaching, and to dismiss the importance of teaching structure of the target language. Atkinson asserts that teachers may prevent the development of linguistic knowledge that might helpful in their acquisition of the target language. Sharwood Smith (1993) supports this view by claiming that the development of linguistic knowledge in the improvement of language acquisition will be justified only when it has been proven that "it has a facilitative effect on the development of non-metaknowledge of skill" (p.175). However, Duff and Polio (1990) and Polio and Duff (1994) point out that classroom input in the target language is often the only source of target language input for second language learners and that the use of first language by teachers only reduces the amount of target language input, thus delaying acquisition.

In conclusion, Krashen's input hypothesis proposes that learners can acquire language simply through input. Krashen further claims that contextual cues in the message, together with students' knowledge of the world, will help them understand

language which includes some structures that are just beyond their current level of competence.

However, not all researchers are convinced by the Input Hypothesis. White (1987), for instance, notes that in the case of some syntactic structures, it is not necessary for input to be comprehensible to bring about the acquisition of a new rule. She argues that "...the driving force for grammar change is that input is incomprehensible, rather than comprehensible..." (p. 95). She also claims that certain aspects of grammar are internally driven, and that the Input Hypothesis fails to consider cases of acquisition in which the input does not help at all. Despite these counter claims, the general consensus in the literature is that input is necessary for acquisition to occur (Ellis, 1994).

Others have also criticised the Input Hypothesis. Swain (1985), for example, concluded from evidence gathered in immersion classes that learners lacked skills in the second language even though comprehensible input was provided (Krashen, 1985). She has argued, therefore, that comprehensible input is not sufficient for native-like performance in the second language and has proposed that output also plays an important role. Krashen, however, questions whether more "comprehensible output" leads to more acquisition. He refers to research from both first and second language acquisition to support his argument that only the comprehensible input has been shown to consistently lead to language acquisition. He states,

> Only comprehensible input is consistently effective in increasing proficiency; in other words, more comprehensible input results in more language acquisition and literacy development. More skill-building, more correction, and more output do not consistently result in more proficiency.
>
> (Krashen, 1994, p. 48)

Using a different approach, Long examined how input is made comprehensible for learners (Long, 1985). He has hypothesised that it was not input alone, but rather than input gained through interaction that facilitates SLA (see 3.1.2). This was later supported in studies by others, such as Pica, Young, and Doughty (1987). In this study, 16 learners were placed in one of three experimental groups. Subjects in each group received one type of input: unmodified (input which was not adjusted for NNSs), pre-modified (input which was adjusted for NNSs prior to the treatment being given), or interactionally modified (input which was adjusted in the course of interaction). Learners in the interactionally modified input group showed the highest levels of comprehension. However, whilst such a study suggested a facilitative role for interaction, it did not show a direct link between interaction and SLA.

Two other studies tried to make a more direct connection between comprehensible input and SLA by examining comprehension. Loschky (1989) examined the acquisition of vocabulary items in Japanese as a second language. Second language acquisition was operationalised as vocabulary recognition and sentence verification. The result showed that learners in the interaction group had greater comprehension than did learners in either of the non-interaction groups. Learners in all three groups showed vocabulary retention from the pre-test to the post-test; learners in the interaction group did not show significantly greater vocabulary retention than learners in the other two groups. As in the studies previously described, this study was also not able to show a direct link between comprehension and SLA. Loschky and Bley-Vroman in a review of the study (Loschky & Bley-Vroman, 1993)

suggested that the results might have been more closely connected to the way the task drew learners' attention to the necessary forms than to comprehension.

Even so, the sufficiency of comprehensible input has been disputed by others in the field, although the necessity of input, specifically within the foreign language classroom, remains a "given" in the acquisition equation.

3.1.2 Interaction

According to Ellis (1986, p.127), interaction consists of "the discourse jointly constructed by the learner and his interlocutors; input, therefore, is the result of interaction". In 1978, Hatch published two papers on language learning and interaction (Hatch, 1978a; 1978b). She used a discourse analysis approach to study naturally occurring interactions involving child and adult L2 learners. Hatch concluded that the regularities show how learners acquire the grammar of L2, and that these were the direct result of the interaction in which they participated.

The interaction hypothesis is most clearly associated with the work of Long (1980; 1981; 1983b; 1996). He claims that interaction facilitates second-language development. He also asserts that learners receive comprehensible input by actively negotiating meaning with their conversational partners. As meaning is negotiated, nonnative speakers can cause their partners to provide input that is more comprehensible to them (Gass, 1997; Long, 1983b, 1996; Oliver, 1998).

In one of his first studies, Long (1980) reported on the input and interactional features of 48 native speaker talk to sixteen non-native speakers in pair-work tasks. The input features included various linguistic aspects of foreigner talk such as vocabulary and simplified syntax. Interactional features included the communicative aspects of foreigner talk such as temporal marking and various discourse and topic-

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incorporation functions. Long suggested that foreigner talk entailed few input modifications, but contained abundant interactional adjustments. Long argues that we should separate interaction factors from input factors. He also claims that interaction factors such as confirmation checks, comprehension checks, clarification requests and repetitions can occur without input modifications, such as those involving temporal variables (such as longer pauses) and adjustments in the length, syntactic complexity and vocabulary of an utterance. Long, therefore, proposes that it is modified interaction rather than modified input that facilitates second language acquisition.

Other researchers also argued that interactions present optimal language learning opportunities because conversational partners can make use of various resources including repetition and facial expression. As a result, comprehensibility and subsequent acquisition are more likely through modified interaction than through modified input (Chiang & Dunkel, 1992; Ellis, Tanaka, Yamasaki, 1994; Johnstone, 1995; Loschky, 1994; Rubin, 1994).

Long (1983b) also emphasises the importance of a major feature of conversations involving second language learners and native speakers. This is the way that the learner and native speaker jointly endeavour to overcome communicative difficulties which are likely to arise because of the learner's limited target language resources. This has become known as the negotiation of meaning.

Negotiation of meaning occurs in interactions when one or both interlocutors perceive that there is, or there is the potential for, a misunderstanding – that is a break down in communication. When there is negotiation for meaning, opportunities for comprehensible input - or for input to become comprehensible - tend to occur. Participation in interaction involving negotiation may facilitate second language

development as it can draw the language learner's attention not only to second language form but also to meaning. In face-to-face communication this happens when the normal conversational interaction is halted and then modified because of communication breakdowns.

Negotiation of meaning as conceptualised by Long (1996) is the process of comprehending imperfectly but then, identifying these instances of flawed communication and trying to resolve them. When second language learners interact with native speakers or other learners, they often experience considerable difficulty in communicating. This leads to substantial efforts by the conversational partners to secure mutual understanding. Therefore, the learners engage in the conversational function of negotiation to assist comprehension, establish mutual understanding, and to overcome communication difficulties. This type of negotiated interaction may involve the clarification, confirmation, modification and repetition of utterances which the second language learner does not understand (Berducci, 1993; Pica, 1994a; Pica, 1994b; Pica et al., 1987). Clarification requests are those utterances made by the listener to clarify what the speaker has said. Confirmation checks are utterances made by the listener to establish whether the preceding utterance has been heard and understood correctly. Comprehension checks, on the other hand, are the utterances made by the speaker to check whether the preceding utterance has been correctly understood by the listener (Long, 1983b). As meaning is negotiated, non-native speakers can strive to gain control over the communication process by causing their partners to provide input that is more comprehensible (Gass, 1997; Long, 1983b; 1996; Oliver, 1998; Oliver, 2000; Pica, Lincoln-Porter, Paninos, & Linnell, 1996).

In a study of negotiation, Pica et al. (1987) found that learners in a treatment condition which allowed negotiation of meaning through interaction demonstrated greater comprehension than learners in treatment conditions which did not. Their analysis of the NS-NNS interactions showed that NSs made the input more comprehensible to NNSs through the use of various interactional adjustments, or moves. These moves included comprehension and confirmation checks, clarification requests, and repetition. Their study did not look at second language development or outcomes but at negotiation and increased comprehension.

A number of other studies have been undertaken to explore which conditions promote negotiation for meaning. For example, Long (1981) demonstrated that communication tasks involving a two-way exchange of information contained more conversational adjustments than did one-way tasks. He asserts that a two-way exchange of information provides more comprehensible input and promotes acquisition more effectively because learners are engaged in more negotiation and thus can obtain more comprehensible input. Long's 1981 paper was the beginning of an extensive line of research into such negotiated interactions which have been shown to have a positive effect on second-language comprehension and production (e.g.,Gass & Varonis, 1994; Loschky, 1994; Mackey & Philip, 1998; Oliver, 1995b; Oliver, 1998; 2000; Pica, 1992; Pica et al., 1987).

In his most recent updated Interaction Hypothesis, Long (1996) suggests that "negotiation work that triggers interactional adjustments by the NS or more competent interlocutor, facilitates acquisition because it connects input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways" (pp. 451-452). There are three possible interpretations as to how such interactions assist

language learning: (1) they make input more comprehensible; (2) they draw attention to L2 form; and (3) they help provide negative evidence to learners, that is, information as to the inappropriateness of certain linguistic forms (Long, 1996).

Other studies have also been undertaken extending the database into classrooms. For example, two studies looked at when and how conversational modifications occurred in different tasks in classroom setting (Doughty & Pica, 1986; Pica & Doughty, 1985). Taken together theses studies showed that conversational modifications did occur in classrooms, but they were influenced by the task type and the classroom pattern (teacher-fronted/student small group).

In more recent works, Lyster and Ranta (1997) propose that the feedback-uptake sequence of interaction in the classroom context may provide learners with the opportunity to negotiate language form. They describe this as:

> the negotiation of form involves corrective feedback that employs either elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification requests, or teacher repetition of error, followed by uptake in the form of peer- or self-repair, or student utterances still in need of repair that allow for additional feedback (p.58).

According to Lyster and Ranta, the negotiation of form is the didactic function of negotiation as it involves corrective feedback to the second language learner. The other function of negotiation is conversational as it entails the negotiation of meaning (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Pica (1994b) contends that the "two fold potential of negotiation - to assist L2 comprehension and draw attention to L2 form - affords it a ...powerful role in L2 learning" (p.508).

Not only do conversational modifications occur in interaction between NNS and NS or between students and their teachers, Gass and Varonis (Gass & Varonis, 1985; Varonis & Gass, 1985) have also found that they occur in conversations between NNS and NSS. Similarly, a study by Pica, Lincoln-Porter, Paninos, &

Linnell (1996) show that not only do learner-learner interactions provide opportunities for negotiation (and potentially for SLA) but that learners do in fact provide each other with conversational modification and thus input, feedback, and output opportunities. In addition, Pica et al. (1996) found that these NNS-NNS interactions were comparable with NS-NNS interactions in their provision of opportunities for modified output; however, they did not always provide equivalent opportunities (as compared with NS-NNS interactions) for modified input and models of target language morph syntax.

Chiang and Dunkel (1992) found that elaborations made to input during negotiated interaction provided learners with greater comprehension than did simplified input. Nevertheless, modifications of interaction are only effective when learners are having difficulty in understanding information; they are considered excessive if input is easily understood (Ellis et al., 1994). Several studies further emphasise that the relationship between interaction, comprehension, and second-language acquisition is one in which interaction allows learners to comprehend input and in which comprehended input promotes acquisition (Gass, Mackey and Pica 1998).

Particularly pertinent for the current research, Pica (1987) asserts that the social context, including the interlocutors' relationship is an important element of interactional modification. She states that the need for shared understanding and the opportunity to modify and restructure social interaction comes about because, although the learners and their interlocutors are aware of their unequal linguistic proficiency in the second language, they still see themselves as having equivalent status as conversational participants.

Therefore from the studies outlined above it is clear that there is a connection between conversational modifications and SLA. There is support for the view that negotiation of meaning is beneficial because negotiated interactions fulfil the proposed conditions for SLA (Pica, 1994a), that is comprehensible input, pushed output, and attention to second language form, as well as providing three input-processing conditions-positive input, negative input, and enhanced input.

Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) summarise the role of conversational modifications on SLA as a necessary but not sufficient condition for acquisition. The role it plays in negotiation for meaning helps to make input comprehensible.

Thus the Interactional Hypothesis, as summarised by Ellis (1991) encapsulates the following:

1. Comprehensible input facilitates second language acquisition, but is neither necessary nor sufficient.
2. Modifications to input, especially those which take place in the process of negotiation a communication problem make acquisition possible providing that the learners:
   (a) comprehend the input;
   (b) notice new features in it and compare what is noticed with their own output.
3. Interaction that requires learners to modify their initial output facilitates the process of integration.

(p.203)

In conclusion comprehensible input is necessary for language acquisition. Even though simplifications may facilitate comprehension, it is also widely agreed that interactional modifications, such as those that occurs through the negotiation of meaning contribute to the comprehension of input. They also provide opportunities for comprehensible output and feedback on such attempts. These conditions are seen as important for SLA

3.1.3 Feedback and Negotiated Interaction

Part of the process of negotiation includes learners getting feedback. Such feedback is the information that provides them with communicative and/or metalinguistic information on the clarity, accuracy, and comprehensibility on their output (Schachter, 1983; 1984; 1986; 1991). Successful second language learning not only requires opportunities for students to receive comprehensible input and produce comprehensible output but also for them to obtain ample feedback. Learners can be pushed by their interlocutors' feedback to produce more comprehensible, sociolinguistically appropriate, and correct target language output (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Oliver, 1995a; 1995b; 1998; 2000; Pica, 1994b; Pica, Holliday, Lewis, Berducci, & Newman, 1991; Pica, Holliday, Lewis, & Morgenthaler, 1989; Swain, 1985; 1995). Also, Long (1996) points out that from the SLA studies conducted so far that implicit negative feedback does indeed facilitate SLA.

The benefits of feedback are demonstrated in a study by Carroll & Swain (1993). This study was conducted in a classroom setting, and focused on the acquisition by 100 adult Spanish speakers enrolled in ESL classes. Group A participants received explicit metalinguistic information (semantic or phonological explanations); group B participants were told when their answer was wrong without any specific explanation; group C participants received the appropriate correction following a mistake along with implicit negative evidence; group D participants were simply asked if they were sure of their answer whenever they made a mistake; and finally, the control group did not receive any type of feedback. The results of initial feedback session and two post-tests (at a one week interval) revealed significant

differences between all groups who received explicit and implicit negative feedback and the control group.

Kubota (1994) also investigated the acquisition of English by Japanese college students under four different feedback conditions. The results indicated that group C (modeling and explicit negative feedback) and group A (explicit metalinguistic information: participants were told the rule) outperformed group B (explicit utterance rejection: participants were told when their answers were wrong) and D (indirect metalinguistic feedback: participants were asked if their answer was correct). Group B was the least successful of the four experimental groups. The group acting as control did not receive any negative feedback and experienced no learning. Therefore, based on these results, it was suggested that teaching grammatical rules explicitly and providing learners with implicit negative feedback in the form of modeling are effective in instructed second language learning.

Doughty & Varela (1998) extended such feedback studies into the classroom. They studied 34 middle school students from two EFL intermediate level content-based science classes. These were divided into two groups: the treatment group who received focus-on-form instruction in addition to science content instruction, while the control group was only instructed on science. The instructional tasks elicited the spontaneous and natural use of past tense and conditional forms. The teacher was available to monitor the students' tasks (oral and written reports) in order to immediately draw their attention to past tense and conditional errors and provide a corrective recast. The results of an immediate post-test with oral and written measures showed that learners who received feedback in the form of recasts outperformed the

learners who did not. The results of a delayed post-test revealed that the gains were maintained, but more so for the oral measures than the written measures.

Oliver's study (2000) on negative feedback in child and adult second language learners in teacher-fronted lesson and in pair work tasks, found that not only were learners provided with negative feedback to their non-targetlike utterances in classroom, but that both child and adults often used the feedback in their subsequent language production when it was appropriate. In contrast to these results, Lyster & Ranta (1997) found less positive outcomes for implicit feedback and specifically for recasts. They conducted a study in four immersion classes (French and English) with students at the primary level. In spite of the teachers' tendency to use recasts (55% of the teacher turns) as the most common form of negative feedback, it was found that other types of feedback - elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification requests, and repetition - were most conducive to students' self-corrections. Recasts generated the least uptake, as measured by immediate learner repair, which may suggest that the implicit nature of recasts is problematic, as argued in Lyster (1998). Analysing the data used in Lyster & Ranta (1997), Lyster concludes that "recasts did not lead to any student-generated forms of repair because recasts already provide correct forms to learners" (p. 53). According to Lyster, most recasts, as used by immersion teachers, are not likely to be noticed or negotiated by children, and therefore fail to provide learners with any indication that their utterance contained an error.

However, as Mackey & Phillip (1998) suggest noticing, as indicated by immediate incorporation, may in fact be a 'red herring'. They used a pre-test, post-test and delayed post test design to test the effectiveness of intensive recasts in the development of question forms in adult ESL learners. Two groups of learners

participated in interactions with NSs, but one group also received intensive recasts. The latter treatment resulted in a greater production of question forms, but only by learners at higher levels of proficiency, supporting the claim for 'readiness' made by Pienemann (1992) and for fixed developmental stages as suggested by Pienemann and Johnston (1987) and Pienemann, Johnston, and Brindley (1988).

The studies cited here suggest a facilitate role for feedback. However, the utility of such feedback to help improve in learner's output seems to be influenced by how the feedback was provided by his or her interlocutor.

3.1.4. Comprehensible Output

Krashen (1981; 1985; 1989) claims that comprehensible input is a major factor in second language acquisition, however others, such as Long, argue that while input is necessary, it is not sufficient and that interaction, where meaning is negotiated, is also important (Long, 1983b; Long, 1996; Pica et al., 1987; Varonis & Gass, 1985). Swain (1985; 1995) adds a third dimension; she suggests that comprehensible output is also necessary. According to Swain (1985), "Being 'pushed' in output … is a concept parallel to that of the i + 1 of comprehensible input. Indeed, she calls this the 'comprehensible output' hypothesis" (p. 249).

Swain's emphasis on comprehensible output is not on the comprehensibility of the message to an interlocutor but rather on the cognitive processes of the learner. Swain describes comprehensible output as where "learners may notice a gap between what they want to say and what they can say" (1995, p. 126) or where the learner is "pushed to use alternative means to get his or her message across" (Swain, 1985, p. 248). The latter is very similar, but not identical, to the term 'modified output' used

by Pica to describe output which the learner must rephrase in order to be more comprehensible (Pica, 1988).

Output represents the product of language knowledge; it is a part of the complete language process (Gass, 1997). Output is defined by Faerch and Kasper as "the interlanguage data which the learner produces"(1980, p.65). Swain (1985; 1995) believes that acquisition is assisted whenever learners have the opportunity to restructure their output in a meaningful context during conversation, especially during interactions where learners are stretched or "pushed" to make their output comprehensible. Thus, the learner is able to try various phrases, words, and syntactic structures and see if they work. Also, output may be the trigger that forces the learner to pay attention to the means of expression needed in order to convey the intended meaning.

Swain developed her hypothesis from her observations of the second language learning situation in immersion classrooms in Canada. Whilst Krashen claims immersion classroom are the most efficient for acquisition because of the abundant comprehensible input made available to learners, Swain found that this was in fact not the case. She found that comprehensible input did not result in native-like competence on the part of learners, even after many years of exposure. She argues that "It is not input per se that is important to second language acquisition but input that occurs in interaction where meaning is negotiated" (Swain, 1985, p. 246). She proposes that when the second language learner receives negative input in the form of confirmation checks and other repairs, he/she is given a reason to seek alternative ways to get meaning across. Swain concludes that comprehensible output is essential for acquisition and is independent of comprehensible input. Its role is to provide

opportunities for contextualised, meaningful target language use, to test out hypotheses about the target language, and to move the learner from a semantic analysis to a syntactic analysis of language.

According to Swain (1995; 1998), pushed output aids second language learners in three ways

1) It helps learners to notice the gap between what they want to say and what they can say. This 'noticing' (Schmidt, 1990; Schmidt & Frota, 1986) may trigger cognitive processes that lead to language learning.

2) It helps learners to test hypotheses about their own language, and may sometimes lead to feedback which can help learners modify their output, and thus "stretch their interlanguage to meet their communicative needs" (Swain, 1998), p.68).

3) It helps learners reflect on their own language use through metatalk, possibly helping them to internalise new linguistic knowledge.

These functions facilitate acquisition. This is somewhat analogous to Long's original proposal for the possible utility of interaction: interaction facilitates comprehensible input, and comprehensible input is necessary for SLA (Long, 1985).

In a study using a think-aloud protocol, Swain and Lapkin (1995) examined student comments to try to gain information about whether or not output led them to notice gaps in linguistic knowledge. Their results showed that learners did notice gaps in their knowledge. Some of the time, learners dealt with these gaps by modifying their output. An interesting component of the study was that learners worked alone, not with an interlocutor. However, a direct connection between output and learning outcomes was not shown in the study by Swain and Lapkin (1995).

Nevertheless, one small-scale study of output and second language outcomes has been carried out. It showed the mixed results for outcomes in output students. Nobuyoshi and Ellis (1993) found that two out of three learners in their study increased in accuracy of past tense production; the third learner did not. The researchers suggested that some learners might benefit from output more than others depending on their learning style. They noted, however, that it is difficult to draw conclusions from such a small-scale study.

It is also possible that different opportunities for learner output can be created by different types of signals from the NS. Pica et al. (1989) found that NNSs were more likely to modify their output in response to clarification requests than in response to confirmation checks. Their study, therefore, seemed to place output within the framework of interaction and negotiation. This is in contrast to Swain's original comments about the role of negotiation. She stated that negotiation leads to continued exchanges in which the learner comprehends the input; then, if the message is understood, the learner can focus on form (Swain, 1985), p. 148). Her view seems to be that negotiation can facilitate comprehensible input and attention to second language form, but output leads learners to 'notice the gap' in their own ability or knowledge and to test hypotheses.

The importance of output has also been also demonstrated by Ellis and He (1999) who have shown that the modification of output conditions produces better learning results than the modification of input conditions. This was the case regardless of whether the input was premodified or interactionally modified.

3.1.5 Teacher-Learner Interaction in the Second Language Classroom

"People of all ages learn languages best, inside or outside a classroom, not by treating the languages as an object of study but by experiencing them as a medium of communication" (Long & Robinson, 1998, p. 22). One of the benefits of the language classroom is that teachers can modify and manage interaction, thus providing opportunities for input and output, and giving feedback on their learners' attempts. Further, recent studies claim that the inclusion of 'focus on form' in classrooms that are primarily focussed on meaning and communication is especially helpful in promoting accuracy in second language acquisition (Long, 1991; Long & Robinson, 1998).

Despite these claims, earlier classroom studies questioned amount of interactional opportunities that occurred. For instance, when Schinke-Llano (1983) investigated the verbal interactions that occurred between twelve native English-speaking teachers and their students in public school classrooms. She found that the number of opportunities the LEP students had to interact with their teachers were also limited. In each class, some students were native speakers of English, other students were non-native speakers that were fluent in English and a further group of students were non-native speakers with limited English proficiency (LEP). Schinke-Llano found that the teachers interacted less often with the Spanish-speaking LEP students than with the non-LEP students. Overall, the non-LEP students received 64.9% of the instructional content-based interactions and the LEP students received 39.1%. Schinke-Llano argued that the cumulative consequences of such differential treatment could hinder the LEP students' second language development.

Through a study on the amount of interaction opportunities available to ESL learners in three classrooms, Berducci (1993) expected to find that more than half of the classroom interaction time "would be spent using the participation structures in which negotiated interaction could take place" (p.13). The findings revealed 86% of the time in one class and 80% of the time in another was spent in participation structures in which negotiated interaction could occur. A conversation-only class spent only 3% of the time in activities in which negotiated interaction could occur. Even though there was interaction in each class, hardly any of it consisted of meaning being negotiated and only an insignificant amount of negotiated interaction occurred between the students themselves. Moreover, the results indicated that it was primarily the teachers who negotiated with the students.

Although the teachers observed in Berducci's study acknowledged the need to replace more traditional teaching methods with a curriculum based on a practical communicative approach, which capitalised on interaction activities to promote language learning, this was rarely translated practice. The findings were very revealing in this regard, especially as one would anticipate that if teachers claim to use a Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach there would be considerable evidence of this in classroom interactions. This raises a number of interesting questions. Firstly, if negotiated interaction is crucial for second language acquisition then why was there so little time spent giving students the opportunity to engage in negotiation with the teacher and other students? Secondly, when negotiated interaction occurred, who received the opportunities to engage in it? Thirdly, are Berducci's findings an indication of the interactional nature of other classes? Furthermore, it poses the challenge for teachers of ESL students to find out more

about the types of interaction that occur in their classrooms, and to also reflect on teaching practice and curriculum implementation which have the potential to facilitate second language development in the classroom context (Foster, 1998).

The provision of corrective feedback during interactions in classroom can highlight relevant language forms and make them more salient for the second language learners. Moreover, the use of feedback can provide opportunities for learner uptake involving the repair of errors and an awareness of utterances needing repair. However, it is conceivable that ESL learners who receive limited opportunities to interact and obtain corrective feedback from their teachers or native English-speaking peers may be restricted in their acquisition of the target language (Lyster, 1998).

3.2 Teachers' Attitudes and Beliefs

Rokeach (1968) has advanced seminal work on the formation of belief systems, arguing that belief systems contain "every one of a person's countless beliefs about physical and social reality" (p.2) while exercising a profound influence on a person's knowledge base and all one's feelings and actions. Nespor (1987) argues that a person's beliefs involve several components: feelings, emotions, and affective reactions. According to Nespor, these emotional aspects of belief systems influence the storage of beliefs in memory, as well as the recall of these beliefs from memory in the process known as reconstruction.

Applied to teaching, emotions and memory may affect the formation of teachers' beliefs about teaching, and teachers' views about different kinds of classroom practices. Nespor (1987, p.320) noted that "affect...can thus be (an

important regulator) or the amount of energy teachers will put into (classroom) activities and how they will expend energy on an activity." Grossman (1990, p.10) confirms that "many of teachers' ideas of how to teach particular topics can be traced back to their memories of how their own teachers approached these topics."

Clark and Peterson (1986) talk about teachers' thought processes. They argue that thinking plays an important part in teaching. Teachers do have thoughts and they make decisions frequently during their teaching. Teachers do have theories and belief systems that influence their perception, plans and actions. They argue that teachers' action are directed by beliefs and principles that they personally hold. They consider teachers' beliefs as part of teachers' prior knowledge through which they perceive, process and act in their classrooms. They argue that innovations that take teachers' beliefs into consideration are likely to be regarded by teachers with enthusiasm, persistence and thoroughness. They consider beliefs as the basis for teachers' practice and decision-making.

Pajares (1992) draws on the work of Rokeach (1968) in proposing ideas about how teachers' beliefs and practices originate. Pajares traces the acquisition of a person's core beliefs to the process known as cultural transmission, by which individuals discover the foundation upon which their social worlds are built. These core beliefs shape people's behaviour and perceptions, and help a person to construct an understanding of the world. Due to the formation of these core beliefs early in life, they are most central to a person's identity, and hence the most impervious to change.

Teachers' professional beliefs, according to Pajares (1992), constitute a subset of their overall beliefs about the world. Consistent with his assertions about how people construct their overall belief systems, Pajares maintains that the formation of

teachers' professional beliefs commences at the time teachers begin their socialisation into the educational system during early childhood. Certainly by the time pre-service teachers enter teacher education programs and begin the study of teaching methodology, their ideas about how people learn are well established and difficult to modify. These ideas may originate with influential teachers early in a student's career, or with some critical experience during early schooling that, in turn, results in a deep-seated memory that serves as a catalyst for the evolution of the student's own teaching practices. Grossman (1990) asserts that these ideas then serve as a "conceptual map" (p.86) for teachers' decisions about how to proceed with classroom instruction.

Evidence supporting this claim can be found in a number of studies that investigated the impact of past experiences or pre-existing beliefs on both pre-service and in-service teachers' current instructional practices (Almarza, 1996; Ashari, 1994; Bailey, 1996). For instance, Ashari (1994) studied the relationship between the beliefs and practices of Malaysian ESL teachers and found that her subjects taught English in the same way they themselves learned it. That is, their instructional practices were found to be led by their own individual learning experiences rather their professional education.

Also, Johnson (1994) observes that existing research on teacher beliefs possesses three common characteristics. Firstly, she asserts that teachers' beliefs exert great influence on what they say or did in the classroom, consistent with Rokeach's description of the general effect of individuals' belief systems on their behaviour and thoughts. Secondly, Johnson notes that teachers' beliefs profoundly affect how they assimilate new information about teaching and learning, and how they incorporate

such information into their classroom practice. Thirdly, she emphasises that the development of an understanding of teachers' beliefs represents an important prerequisite for improvement of teacher practices and teacher development programs.

In accordance with the teachers' beliefs and practice, Menges and Rando (1989) suggest that research on beliefs and practice will help teachers to achieve consistency between their beliefs and practices. Moreover, the research will enable those involved in teaching to develop new theories which may facilitate the continuing renewal of their instructional practices. Likewise, Richards (1996) proposes that teachers must become aware of their personal principles and how they affect classroom practice if teachers are to understand the relationship between their beliefs and practices. These principles are based on several factors: teachers' professional education, their professional experience, their belief systems, and cultural variables. Grossman (1990) adds to this list teachers' subject-matter knowledge and their beliefs about their students.

In a study examining the beliefs and practices of four pre-service teachers of English as a second language, Johnson (1992; 1994) concluded that teachers' theoretical orientations are often not reflected in their classroom practice. Menges and Rando (1989) refer to this gap as the difference between "exposed theory and theory-in-use" (p.57). Johnson (1994) suggests this lack of congruence may result from the conflict between deeply held prior beliefs that evolve during a teacher's early schooling, and new ideas to which teachers do not receive exposure until their matriculation in teacher development programs, consistent with the previously cited assertions of Grossman (1990) and Pajares (1992).

Beliefs central to a teacher's personal identity continue to exert great influence on their classroom practices, despite the conflicts between these beliefs and ideas to which pre-service teachers first receive exposure in methodology courses, pre-service practical, and other early professional experiences. In a study of university students, Menges and Kulieke(1984) suggest another possible benefit of encouraging teachers to develop congruence between their beliefs and practices. In that study students reported greater satisfaction when they perceived a clear relationship between their teachers' classroom behaviours and the teachers' professed beliefs.

Most recently, some attention has been directed towards teachers' beliefs and philosophies (Ashari, 1994; Johnson, 1994; Mohd-Asraf, 1995). This research has focused on the beliefs and theoretical orientations of ESL teachers about how language is learned, how it should be taught, and the relationship with classroom practices. The assumption is that teachers develop certain beliefs and assumptions about language learning and teaching through various stages of their lives, and that such beliefs will have a strong impact on their instructional practices in the classroom. Teachers unconsciously internalise beliefs about language throughout their lives. They also may be influenced by the many theories of second language acquisition they have been introduced to during their language education programs. Such conceptions about what is language, how it works, and how people learn, influence their behaviour in the classroom. The prevalent thought regarding the nature of these beliefs and assumptions is that they are based on theory of language learning and teaching (Johnson, 1992; Stern, 1983).

However, Morris (1997) studied the beliefs and practices of four university teaching assistants of French as a second language to find out relationship between their beliefs about language learning and teaching and their classroom instructional practices. He has found a link between teachers' beliefs and their practices in their classroom. However, their beliefs were not based on or reflect the current theories of second language learning and teaching, but by their individual learning experiences, how they themselves learned the second language and also how they were taught. That is, the findings suggest that teachers' beliefs and classroom practices are primarily based on their personal learning experiences rather than the theories about language learning and teaching.

3.3 Role of the Teacher in Target Language Usage

In the foreign language context, the classroom is one place where there can be real communication in the target language and where there are opportunities for abundant comprehensible input, comprehensible output and modified interaction. Therefore, what goes on inside the language classroom is very important (Krashen, 1980a; 1982). The logical conclusion of this premise is that it is the responsibility of the teacher to facilitate the use of the target language in the classroom. Higgs (1982), for example, argues that the teacher's role is:

> presenting the best possible model of the language, providing feedback, guidance, and reinforcement, and making available target-language data in terms of comprehensible input, that is, the natural unconstrained use of the target language in the classroom.
>
> (p.8).

Similarly, Allwright (1984) asserts that "everything that happens in the classroom happens through a process of face-face interaction" (p.156). He calls interaction in classroom acquisition "the fundamental fact of pedagogy".

Likewise, Chaudron (1988) claims that the foreign language classroom is the place where the fullest competence in the target language is achieved by way of the teacher providing input and opportunities for interaction - that is a rich, target language environment. This is particularly true in the context of foreign language learning as the classroom may be the only situation in which the target language is available. As such, Franklin (1990) claims that "it is extremely important that the medium of instruction in the language classroom be the target language" (p. 20).

According to Halliwell and Jones (1991), there are three main reasons why teaching in the target language is helpful. Firstly, they suggest that students need to experience the target language as a real means of communication. Secondly, if we teach students in the target language, we give them a chance to develop their own in-built language learning system. Thirdly, by teaching through the target language, a bridge is made between what is otherwise a wide gap between carefully controlled secure classroom environment and the unpredictability of real language encounters.

Willis (1983) promotes the teaching of English through English, that is, by speaking and using English as often as possible, for example, when organising teaching activities or chatting to students socially. In other words he suggests establishing English as the main language of communication in the classroom.

Many researchers claim that the target language usage is not only feasible, but also preferable (Duff & Polio, 1990; Kalivoda, 1988; Kalivoda, 1990; Polio & Duff, 1994; Satchwell, 1997). They argue that if teachers use the student's first language

they deprive students of opportunities to process the linguistic input needed for successful language acquisition. They further maintain that even the occasional use of the learners' native language reduces the role of the target language as the primary medium for communication in the foreign language classroom.

This issue was borne out in a study by Carroll (1967) of the foreign language attainment of American college and university students. She established that one of the important variables affecting higher achievement in foreign language tests was the extent to which the teachers and learners used the foreign language rather than first language in class. Carroll found that students in classes where the target language was frequently used received the higher marks in their language tests than those in classes where the students' first language was used for instruction.

Similar results were attained in a study by Burstall, Jamieson, Cohen and Hargreaves (1974) when they investigated the effectiveness of teaching French in primary schools throughout England and Wales. They concluded that in language classes where little or no use was made of mother tongue language by the teacher, both the students' level of achievement in target language and the teacher's linguistic proficiency was rated significantly higher than in language classes where the teacher made frequent use of the first language. Also, in language classes where the students themselves made little or no use of their first language, their own proficiency in target language was rated significantly higher than in classes where the students made frequent use of first language. In other words both the teachers' and students' use of the target language were positively correlated with student achievement.

Thus, numerous foreign language educators strongly advocate exclusive or near exclusive use of the target language in the classroom (Duff & Polio, 1990;

Kalivoda, 1988; Kalivoda, 1990; Polio & Duff, 1994). In fact, there are many who claim that it is detrimental not to do so. For example, Kalivoda (1988; 1990) maintains that the use of the first language restricts student opportunities for the development of their listening comprehension abilities. In turn, this limits the development of their oral production and often results in the students disregarding the teachers' use of the target language. The students learn to ignore the target language because they know they will hear the same information in the first language. As a consequence they have less practice at understanding the target language.

Duff and Polio (1990) and Polio and Duff (1994) assert, moreover, that the classroom use of first language denies students the chance to resolve comprehension difficulties through the target language itself. It also prevents them from developing necessary skills for communicating in the target language culture. Further these researchers suggest that any use of first language by teachers results in a reduction in the amount of target language input, thus delaying students' acquisition. They conclude, therefore, that classroom input in the target language represents for most students, the only feasible source of target language input for second language acquisition.

Similarly, Harbord (1992) outlines some of the problems involved in the excessive use of the first language in the foreign language classroom. For example, the teacher's overuse of the first language may cause students to believe that they must translate lexical items into the first language in order to understand them. They may fail to notice semantic equivalences, and pragmatic contrasts between the first language and the target language. Students may continue to use the first language

because of ease in communication, and may not realise that they need to use the target

language in order to develop greater proficiency in the language.

Several researchers (Duff & Polio, 1990; Massey, 1994; Polio & Duff, 1994)

argue that students express greater satisfaction with foreign language teaching where

teachers use the target language in the classroom. When examining the motivations of

Canadian secondary school foreign language students, Massey (1994) reported that,

in retrospect, students would have preferred greater use of French by teachers in the

classroom. Further, in another study by Zephir and Chirol (1993), 60% of French as a

second language (FSL) university students believed that the teachers' exclusive use of

French in the classroom would enhance their ability to comprehend and communicate

in the target language.

Several studies focus on the degree of use and description of the language

used by foreign language teachers in the classroom (Duff & Polio, 1990; Guthrie,

1984; Guthrie, 1987; Nerenz & Knop, 1982; Polio & Duff, 1994; Rollmann, 1994;

Wing, 1987). The general finding is that, although teachers use the target language,

they do so in conjunction with abundant use of the first language. For example,

Guthrie (1984; 1987) claims that very few of the university-teaching assistants of

French used the target language for more than 80% of class time. Moreover, they

reserved target language usage for certain purposes, so their utterances in the target

language were predictable and repetitive, and they are more likely to attend to the

forms of the language they are teaching rather than to the meaning of the utterance.

Similarly, in a study undertaken by Nerenz and Knop (1982), where teachers used the

target language for more than 90% of class time, students used the target language

primarily to demonstrate correct forms rather than to express their own ideas. Nerenz

and Knop consider that through the selective uses of the target language, students listen for specific cues which indicate teachers' expectations for their output. This enables them to follow class activities without having to process much of the teachers' target language.

According to Wing (1987), who investigated the patterns of target language use by secondary school Spanish teachers, target language use for instruction in linguistic form exceeded its use for actual communication. Overall, she found that the average teacher used the target language for 54% of class time, with only six of the fifteen teachers using the target language for more than two-thirds of the class time. In general, teachers devoted substantially more class time to the presentation and discussion of forms than to actual communication when speaking in the target language. Whether this is true for all language teachers is unclear as this point, and as some researchers claim, the use of the target language is highly dependent on the methodology used by the teachers (Celce-Murica, 1991; Klinghammer, 1990; Rollmann, 1994).

Related to the issue of target language use is the notion that teachers' use of the target language reflects the ultimate goals of the particular pedagogical approach. Some approaches aim to prepare students to read in the target language, whilst others focus on its grammar, and such methodologies may be less than communicative in their orientation. It would seem that approaches that emphasise the development of oral skills would strongly encourage the use of the target language in the classroom. In line with this, Celce-Murica (1991) reviewed various language teaching approaches and the teachers' use of the target language in the classroom. These are summarised in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1   Teaching approaches and target language use

Approach	Target language use by the language teacher	Goal of instruction
Grammar-Translation	Instruction in students' native language; little use of the target language; teachers do not need to be able to speak the target language.	Focus on grammar; develop ability in reading, particularly classical texts.
Direct	No use of students' native language is permitted. Teacher must be a native speaker or have native-like proficiency.	Development of the ability to use the target language for all four skills.
Reading	Teacher does not need to have oral proficiency in the target language.	Reading comprehension is the only skill emphasised.
Audiolingualism	Teacher must be proficient only in structures and vocabulary being taught due to controlled materials.	Particular emphasis on the development of oral-aural skills.
Situational	Only the target language is used in the classroom.	Spoken language mastery; structures and vocabulary related to particular everyday situations.
Cognitive	Teacher should be proficient in the target language, and have also the ability to analyse the target language.	Language learning viewed as acquisition of rules; emphasis on all four skills.
Affective-Humanistic	Teacher should be proficient in both target language and students' native language. Translation may be used initially to help students feel comfortable in class.	Learning a language seen as the students' self realisation; emphasis on personally meaningful communication.
Comprehension-Based	Teacher should be native or near-native speaker who principally uses the target language in the classroom.	Emphasis on listening comprehension as basic in allowing development of the other skills to develop.
Communicative	Teacher should be able to use the target language fluently and correctly.	Development emphases the ability of communicate in the target language.

Adapted from Celce-Murica (1991)

As Celce-Murica demonstrates, the communicative approach emphasises the development of oral skills focusing on preparing students to communicate in real situations. One way of obtaining this outcome is through the exclusive use of the target language in class.

Klinghammer (1990) reports on foreign language teachers' use of the target language in their classrooms from a qualitative perspective. She conducted case study research with five secondary school teachers of Spanish and German. She concludes that teachers' use of the target language represents an important indicator of the method that the teacher uses in the classroom. For example, in a grammar-translation class the teacher only used the students' native language, while teachers who used a direct method rarely used the students' native language.

Likewise, Rollmann (1994) compared teacher language usage in foreign language classes in 1976 and again in 1993. She claims an increase in the use of the first language in the classes she observed in 1993. According to Rollmann, the more current use of the communicative methodology enables students to communicate ideas, to pose questions, and ask for clarifications, however, she does not caution that this may also occur in their first language. As a consequence, teachers are more likely to respond to student comments in the first language.

Atkinson (1987), Medgyes (1983; 1986; 1992), and Reves and Medgyes (1994) question the notion advanced by proponents of communicative methodologies, that the first language should be prohibited in the foreign language classroom to the point that a monolingual environment is created. In Atkinson's view, it is misguided to expect teachers to create a monolingual environment in their classrooms without first considering the characteristics unique to the foreign language classroom which would include exclusive target language use by the teacher.

Others have questioned the appropriateness of communicative methodologies in certain learning environments. In a report based on high school teacher's classroom observations, Savignon (1991) notes that many teachers express doubts about the

whole idea of the communicative approach, and maintain that only highly motivated and committed students can achieve success with this kind of instruction. In addition, Li's (1998) survey of South Korean secondary schools, found that teachers had difficulty applying a communicative approach due to their own deficiency in spoken English as well as the low English proficiency of the students.

Medgyes (1983; 1986; 1992) and Reves and Medgyes (1994) assert that communicative methodologies place too much pressure on teachers who must simultaneously pay attention to an innumerable details: they must note both the attention and form of their own linguistic utterances and those of their students, give attention to each student, create communicative situations, act as language monitor and communicative partner with students, deal with student difficulties, and conduct the class in the target language. Such demands prove excessive for many language teachers.

Researchers argue that, in the EFL classroom, the use of the first language can promote students' understanding especially in the early stages (Atkinson, 1987; Brumfit, 1976; Rollmann, 1994). It can also act as a bridge to the second language and provide efficiency and expediency when presenting of new material (F. Chambers, 1991; G. Chambers, 1992; Danhua, 1995; Franklin, 1990; Mitchell & Redmond, 1993). In addition, it can be used as a learning strategy when other strategies have failed to facilitate comprehension and interpretation (Papaefthymiou-Lytra, 1987).

Other researchers consider the use of the learners' native language in language classroom to have several possible benefits: it makes it easier to set up communicative activities in elementary language classrooms where learners' level of

proficiency does not permit them to understand instructions given in the target language (Atkinson, 1987; Rollmann, 1994); and it may empower students to communicate in the classroom in the language in which they are most proficient (Atkinson, 1987; Blyth, 1995; Weschler, 1997).

Correspondingly, Tedick and Walker (1994) note other benefits of L1 use in language classrooms, citing three specific advantages. Firstly, they argue that L1 facilitates "ongoing L1 development in the L2 classroom" (p.302), emphasising that students' proficiency in L1 continues to improve through the study of a foreign language and this improvement establishes a worthy goal. Secondly, teacher use of first language also facilitates the teaching of culture and the "critical analysis of cultural phenomena" (p.302) from the target language culture. Finally, the exclusion of first language "limits the degree to which teachers can set and achieve sophisticated pedagogical goals" (p.302). Tedick and Walker assert that many teachers do not use L1 for fear of being judged "pedagogically incorrect" by advocates of the communicative approach.

3.4 Target Language Avoidance by the Teacher

Despite research advocating first language use in foreign language classrooms, the fact remains that to learn the target language one must be exposed to it. For, although it is possible to learn foreign language through the medium of the mother tongue, such teaching does not generally prepare learners for face-to-face-communication. Gritter (1977) differentiates between "proper" and "improper" uses of the mother tongue. He states that:

...any use of first language that leads to more efficient and intensive practice in the foreign language by the students is good use of first language; any use of first language that leads the student away from the target language or tends to make a passive listener is bad use of first language.

(p. 155)

Reves and Medgyes (1994) surveyed non-native English teachers from ten countries. They found that non-native teachers use "bookish" language (p.367), spoke poor English, focused on forms rather than meaning, and emphasised the printed word rather oral skills. Non-native teachers also used more of the students' first language, than the target language.

Polio and Duff (1994) suggest that one of the main reasons for lack of success in learning foreign language learning is that students are not engaged in any meaningful interactions in the foreign language during class time. In addition, teachers sometimes use the students' first language to explain and to manage behaviour, as they believe that it will better facilitate the lesson. Ellis (1984) and Margaret (1986) argue that by doing so, teachers deprive the students of valuable target language input. Even though these claims are well known, both in the literature and even among practitioners themselves (Savignon, 1991) many foreign language teachers, especially non-native speakers avoid using the target language (Wing, 1987). Some possible reasons for this will be explained in the following sections.

3.4.1 Teacher's Target Language Proficiency.

A number of researchers question whether the proficiency of the average foreign language teacher is sufficient to maintain exclusive use of the target language in the classroom (Allen & Valette, 1977; Brosh, 1996; F. Chambers, 1991; G. Chambers, 1992; Dickson, 1996; Harbord, 1992; Horwitz, 1996; Medgyes, 1983; Medgyes,

1986; Medgyes, 1992; Medgyes, 1996; Reves & Medgyes, 1994). They propose that competence in the target language was important for maximising target language use, there was stronger evidence to suggest that it was just one of the many factors which affected their judgments about the appropriate balance of target language and native language.

Non-native teachers often have poor target language proficiency. For them, it is impossible to communicate in the same way as in their first language. Horwitz (1996) claims that "It is appropriate to think of a great number of language teachers as language learners–albeit advanced ones" (p.366). F. Chambers (1991) and G. Chambers (1992) refer to foreign language teachers being plagued by feelings of guilt over their target language shortcomings, and F. Chambers (1991) claims that these feelings of guilt do nothing to improve the classroom performance of teachers.

Moreover, teachers who think that it takes them too long to get their point across in the target language, possibly due to their lack of second language proficiency, seem to use the target language less (Duff & Polio, 1990).

3.4.2 Foreign Language Anxiety.

Horwitz (1996) argues that most non-native language teachers are likely to have uncomfortable moments speaking the target language. Those who suffer from higher levels of language anxiety will tend to use the target language less in the classroom.

According to research undertaken by Franklin (1990), in which 201 teachers of French as a foreign language were surveyed, 83% of the teachers believed that their lack of confidence in speaking French affected their use of the target language in classrooms.

Horwitz (1992; 1993) also interviewed several groups of non-native teachers, including pre-service foreign language teachers, certified practicing and non-practicing Russian teachers and pre-service English teachers (primarily from Korea and Taiwan). She found that in every group the majority of subjects reported considerable levels of foreign language anxiety. Also, these teachers actually avoided, either consciously or unconsciously, using the target language due to their feeling of anxiety.

Accordingly, when language teachers are not comfortable using the target language, they may either shield themselves from using it in class or communicate negative messages about language learning to the students. If the teacher does not seem to use the language comfortably, it is difficult for students to believe that they will be able to use that language confidently (Horwitz, 1996).

According to Schulz (1991), the use of the target language does not mean that teachers must have native speaker competence. However, they must be able to speak a language fluently and accurately enough to feel comfortable in using it as a means of communication whether for instructional purposes, classroom management, or social interaction.

3.4.3 Attitudes and Beliefs.

Teachers' attitudes also affect the use of the target language. Several researchers (Duff & Polio, 1990; Ellis, 1984; Nolasco & Arthur, 1986; Polio & Duff, 1994; Savignon, 1991) have demonstrated that teachers' unwillingness to use the target language is attributable to their beliefs that students will not understand grammatical explanations unless translated into the students' native language.

3.4.4 Students' Target Language Proficiency

Some teachers also believe that in some lessons the content is too difficult (Duff &

Polio, 1990). Franklin (1990) argues that students with learning difficulties cannot

learn or understand the foreign language when it is spoken to them, and may react by

misbehaving and so teachers do not use the target language. Likewise, Eldridge

(1996) notes that foreign language students often revert to using their native

languages when they fail to understand, or are misunderstanding the target language.

As a consequence, teachers decide to use the first language instead of the target one

(Dickson, 1996).

3.4.5 Behaviour of Students

Franklin (1990) also concluded from his survey that the major problem facing

teachers implementing communicative methodology and using the target language is

the problem of discipline. In her research, 95% of respondents identified behaviour

and discipline as reasons for not maintaining the target language as the medium of

instruction. This factor is most strongly influencing teachers' judgments about use of

the target language. In such circumstance, persistent use of the target language was

thought to alienate students and to limit opportunities for learning. Native language

was therefore used to restore good behaviour and maintain pupils' interest (Dickson,

1996).

3.4.6 Mixed-ability Classrooms

Some believe that it is difficult to make the use of the target language as a

medium of language instruction in mixed-ability classes. Low ability students cannot

learn and cannot understand the foreign language when the teacher speaks to them

(Franklin, 1990). For example, Franklin surveyed 267 teachers of French in Scotland. He found that the behaviour and the mixed-abilities of students were potential impediments to using the target language.

3.4.7 Student Expectations about Teachers' Classroom Language Use

Several researchers (Atkinson, 1987; Franklin, 1990; Rollmann, 1994) have suggested that students prefer that their teachers incorporate some of their first language into their instruction. Their explanation is that teachers' exclusive or near-exclusive use of the target language may overwhelm the students, leading to feelings of discouragement. In turn, these researchers argue, that such feelings cause students to place pressure on their teachers to speak their native language.

However, other researchers (Duff & Polio, 1990; Massey, 1994; Polio & Duff, 1994; Zephir & Chirol, 1993) have reported results of studies involving secondary school and university foreign language students who report satisfaction with their teachers' language use where the target language predominates.

3.4.8 Departmental Policies

The departmental policy within a school is an important variable for the use of the target language. Some teachers' claim that the amount of first language to be used in the classroom is never mentioned by their supervisors. Therefore they believe, rightly or wrongly, that they can use the first language to give instructions in the foreign language classrooms (Duff & Polio, 1990). In addition, several researchers such as F. Chambers (1991), G. Chambers (1992) and Harbord (1992) have suggested that "target language only" policies are imposed by supervisors against teachers' wishes. These researchers propose that such policies contribute to teachers' feelings

of guilt when they use students' first language in their instruction, assuming that they are doing something wrong by engaging in such language use.

3.4.9 Materials

The choice of textbooks used in the language classroom may also affect the amount the target language used. Duff and Polio (1990) argue that some textbooks provide all the rules of grammar and also list all necessary vocabularies, along with the meanings in first language. Therefore it becomes unnecessary for teachers to explain these language points again in the target language.

Mitchell and Redmond (1993) observe that the foreign language textbook presents additional difficulties for enhancing the use of the target language. They claim that texts that contain explanations, instructions, and other directives in the first language make it difficult for teachers to maintain their own target language usage in the classroom. They also assert that such material stimulates further discussion in the first language and this further restricts the use of the target language.

3.4.10 Content Focus on Grammar

Atkinson (1987) asserts that it is important to teach students about the structure of the target language and to use the students' native language in order to do so, on the grounds that it is difficult for students to understand the complexities of the target language grammar when delivered in that language. If this is the case, then it is to the detriment of target language use. In addition, Dickson (1996) and Neil (1997) state that the only language activity which is carried out mostly in students' first language is the teaching of grammar.

Summary

In order to acquire a second or foreign language, input must be made comprehensible to learners. Modified interaction not only provides opportunities for making input comprehensible to learners, but also it provides opportunities for learners to push out or make comprehensible output; and then to receive feedback on their attempts.

In foreign language learning settings, students often do not have much opportunity to use the target language outside the classroom, therefore classroom interaction in general and with teachers, in particular, is the most important resource for target language learning. At the same time, teaching through the medium of the target language might be a problem for teachers, especially non-native speakers. The overuse of the mother tongue language in the language classroom presents a very real danger to success in language acquisition for learners.

Examination of foreign language teachers' beliefs and practices regarding their language use in the classroom may also have important ramifications for the content of teacher education programs. Teachers who feel anxious about speaking in the target language may learn new ways to exploit the target language for pedagogical purposes. Such teacher development programs may also help to raise novice teachers' consciousness of their beliefs, and how these beliefs impact their practices.

Therefore, it has been concluded that an exploratory study examining foreign language instructors' beliefs and practices about their instructional language use is required. A variety of reasons for target language avoidance have been suggested. However, it remains unclear exactly which reasons could explain the current situation in Thailand. The study described in the following chapters attempts to determine what

reasons prevent Thai teachers of English from using English in EFL language classrooms in Thailand.

3.4 Research Questions for this Study

3.4.1 General Research Question

What factors hinder Thai teachers of English in Thailand, from using English in their EFL classrooms?

3.4.2 Specific Questions

1. What are the reasons that Thai teachers give for or for not using English in their EFL classrooms?

2. What would encourage Thai teachers of English to speak English in the classroom?

3. Do Thai teachers of English at primary schools have different reasons for not speaking English in their classrooms compared with secondary school teachers?

4. Do Thai teachers of English in private schools have different reasons for not speaking English in their classrooms compared with those teaching in public schools?

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY

The methodology used in this research was based on survey methods, which
contained three steps: two stages of focus group interviews and a large-scale
questionnaire. The information obtained from the initial focus group was used to
inform the design of the questionnaire. The second stage of focus group interviews
was then used to clarify the results of the questionnaire. The reason for interviewing
at this stage was to clarify both the ideas that emerged from the first interviews and
the data obtained from questionnaire survey. A qualitative thematic analysis was
used with the interviews and a quantitative analysis was undertaken with the data
from the questionnaire.

The diagram below provides a summary of research methodology and shows
how triangulation was achieved.

Initial focus group interview (20 participants)
(Data from this used to inform the questionnaire design)

Questionnaire surveys
(200 participants)

Focus group interview phase two
(to consider questionnaire responses)
(The same 20 participants from
first round interview)
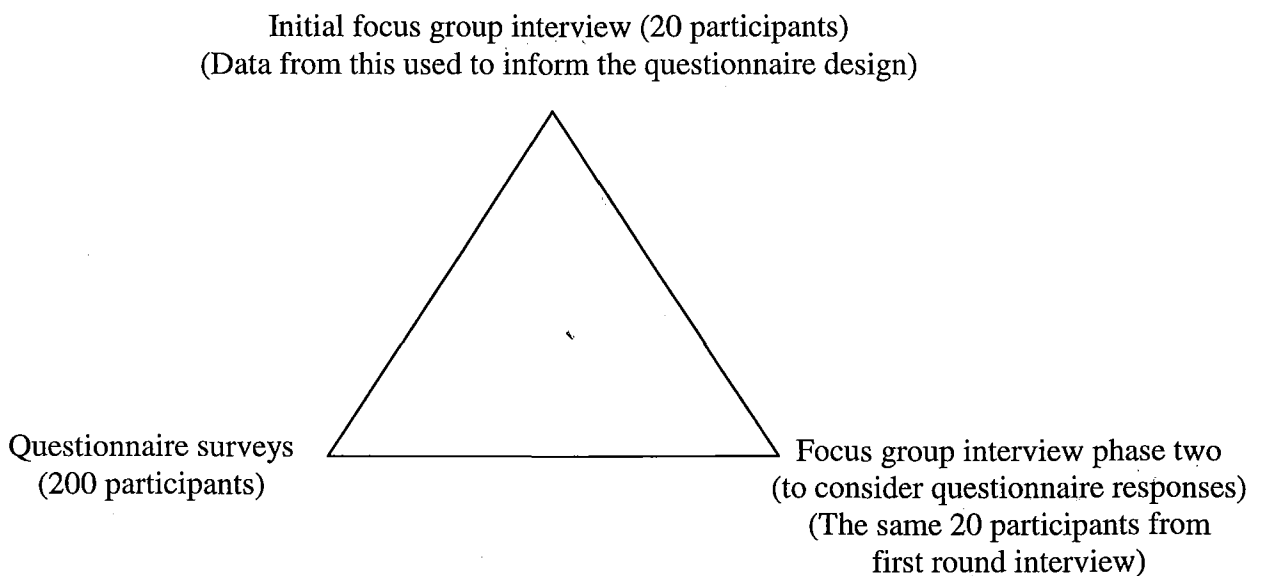
4.1 Focus Group Interview: Phase One

In this research, focus group interviews were selected as the most appropriate initial data collection procedure because, as Stewart and Shamdasani (1990) claim, focus groups are useful for exploratory research where little is known about the phenomenon of interest. In addition the methodology offers several advantages as noted by Hess (1968). For instance, it allows respondents to react to and build upon the responses of other group members which may result in much broader and deeper data: One individual's comment may often trigger a chain of responses from the other participants. Also, the participant can find some comfort in the fact that his or her feelings are not greatly different from those of peers. In addition, a participant needs only to speak when he or she has feels strongly about a subject and not because a question requires a response, as is the case in a one-to-one interview.

Another benefit is that focus groups elicit information in a way which allows researchers to find out why an issue is salient, as well as what is salient about it (Morgan, 1988). That is, an issue which is claimed by multiple participants can imply as an important factor. If multiple understandings and meanings are revealed by participants, multiple explanations of their behaviour and attitudes will be more readily articulated. As a result, the gap between what people say and what they do can be better understood (Lankshear, 1993).

Although focus group research has many advantages, as with all research methods, there are limitations. Some can be overcome by careful planning and moderating, but others are unavoidable and peculiar to this approach. The researcher, for example, has less control over the data produced (Morgan, 1988) than in either quantitative studies or one-to-one interviewing. The researcher has to allow

participants to talk to each other, ask questions and express doubts and opinions, while having very little control over the interaction other than generally keeping participants focused on the topic. By its nature focus group research is open-ended and cannot be entirely predetermined.

It could not be assumed that the individuals in a focus group are expressing their own definitive individual view. They are speaking in a specific context, within a specific culture, and so sometimes it may be difficult for the researcher to clearly identify an individual message. This too is a potential limitation of focus groups.

Focus groups can be difficult to assemble. It may not be easy to get a representative sample and focus groups may discourage certain people from participating, for example those who are not very articulate or confident, and those who have communication problems or special needs (Morgan & Kreuger, 1993). The method of focus group discussion may also discourage some people from trusting others with sensitive or personal information. Finally, focus groups are not fully confidential or anonymous, because the material is shared with other participants in the group.

Although a number of ways have been suggested in the literature to overcome these problems, such as blind exit questionnaire pooling responses to focus 'group themes' to ascertain how far the individuals agreed with the group, this was not done in the current study. It was felt that further demands on the participants might prove awkward and discourage them from further participation, particularly after the first interview, and thus, endanger the completion of the data collection. In this study, the researcher attempted to reduce the limitations inherent in this type of research by explaining to the participants from the beginning the procedure for focus group

discussions as well as ensuring that each participant was put at ease and was comfortable to share his or her ideas. In addition, the researcher was unknown to the participants and not connected in any way to their employment or teaching situation. Also, all participants met each other for the first time when the interview occurred. None of them knew each other's background, names, and schools at which they were employed. Each teacher was asked to sign the consent form in order to make sure that they agreed to participate and that they clearly understood the procedure of collecting the data of this research and that all information associating them to the data would remain confidential.

The main purpose of this research is to gain information about Thai teachers' views and experiences of target language avoidance. Therefore, focus group interviews were used to draw upon respondents' attitudes, feelings, beliefs, experiences and reactions in a way in which would not have been feasible using other methods, for example through observation, one-to-one interviewing, or questionnaire surveys. These attitudes, feelings and beliefs may be partially independent of a group or its social setting, but are more likely to be revealed via the social gathering and the interaction which being in a focus group entails. Compared to individual interviews, which aim to obtain individual attitudes, beliefs and feelings, focus groups elicit a multiplicity of views and emotional processes within a group context. Compared to observation, a focus group enables the researcher to gain a larger amount of information in a shorter period of time. Observational methods tend to depend on waiting for things to happen, whereas in a focus group the researcher follows an interview guide. In this sense focus groups are not natural but organised events.

Therefore, this research is designed in such a way to gain information from the participants in ways that one both efficient and effective.

4.1.1 The Interview Schedule

The focus group interviews schedule were constructed based on the research questions which are "What are the reasons that Thai teachers give for or for not using English in their EFL classrooms?" If it was found that they do not use English in the classroom, the next main question is "what would encourage them to do so?"

According to Stewart and Shamdasani (1990), in order to construct the questions, two principles must be considered:

1. that questions be ordered from the more general to the more specific;
2. questions of greater importance should be placed early, near the top of the guide, while those of a lesser significance should be placed near the end.

(1990, p.61).

As these two principles appear to be conflicting, the researcher can start with general questions, move to specific questions and then back to a set of more general questions (Stewart & Shamdasani, 1990). The funnel approach (from general to specific) is one way of engaging the interest of participants quickly. Very specific questions about the topic towards the beginning may set the discussion on a track that is too focussed and narrow.

Number of Questions

Kreuger (1988) suggests that a focused interview should include less than ten questions and often around five or six. Stewart and Shamdasani (1990) propose that most interview guides consist of fewer than 12 questions.

<u>Types of Questions</u>

Unstructured, open-ended questions allow respondents to answer from a variety of dimensions. Questions must be carefully selected and phrased in advance to elicit maximum responses by all participants. "Questions that include words such as how, why, under what conditions, and similar probes suggest to respondents that the researcher is interested in complexity and facilitating discussion" (Stewart & Shamdasani, 1990, p.65). However, Kreuger argues that why questions should be rarely used in a focus group as they force participants to provide quick answers that seem rational or appropriate to the situation (1988, p.62).

Some examples of general open-ended questions include:

"What did you think about the program?"
"How did you feel about the conference?"
"Where do you get new information?"
"What did you like best about the proposed program?"

(Kreuger, 1988. p.60)

Therefore, in this study, the interview questions consist of three parts: part one was introductory in nature and covered information relating to the teachers' experience in teaching English; part two consisted of questions about target language usage; and part three was a closure, in which the participant were encouraged to express any additional comments:

<u>4.1.2 Focus Group Interviews Guide</u>

<u>Give an explanation</u>
สวัสดีค่ะ ก่อนอื่นต้องขอขอบคุณคุณครูทุกท่านที่มาร่วมในวันนี้ ดิฉันชื่อศศิธร วัชรสกุณี เป็นนักศึกษา ปริญญาเอก ของมหาวิทยาลัยอีดิธ โคแวน ประเทศออสเตรเลีย ในส่วนหนึ่งของการเรียน ดิฉันได้ทำ วิทยานิพนธ์เกี่ยวกับการใช้ ภาษาอังกฤษในการสอนของครูไทย

Good morning/ afternoon/ evening. Thank you for coming. My name is Sasithorn Vacharaskunee. I am a PhD student of Edith Cowan University, Australia.

As a part of my study, I'm doing research regarding target language use by Thai teachers of English.

<u>Present the purpose</u>

ดิฉันอยากขออธิบายรายละเอียดเกี่ยวกับงานวิจัยครั้งนี้ จุดมุ่งหมายของการทำวิจัยนี้ เพื่อ ศึกษาเกี่ยวกับ การใช้ ภาษาอังกฤษของครูในห้องเรียนวิชาภาษาอังกฤษ โดยวิจัยนี้ จะนำไปสู่การ พัฒนาการสอนภาษาอังกฤษอีกทั้งจะเป็นแรงผลักดัน ให้ครูผู้สอน ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ ในการสอนมากขึ้น ดิฉันมาที่นี่ไม่ได้เพื่อจะมา นำเสนอข้อมูล แต่ในทางตรงข้ามข้อมูลจากคุณครูทุกท่านเป็นสิ่งจำเป็นมาก จะไม่มีการผิดหรือถูก สำหรับ ทุกๆข้อคิดเห็น คุณครู สามารถที่จะขัดแย้งถ้าคุณครูมี ความคิดเห็นที่ ต่างไปจากในกลุ่ม ดิฉันอยากให้คุณครูรู้สึกเป็นกันเอง กรุณาพูดและ แสดงความคิดเห็น ที่คุณครูรู้สึก จริงๆ

I would like to explain some more details about this research. The aim of this research is to examine the use of English in English as a foreign language or EFL classrooms in Thailand. This research may lead to an improvement in the teaching of English in Thailand and in particular to support teachers to be able to do this. Further, it will provide a base line for future studies to explore ways of increasing positive outcomes in EFL contexts. I am not here to share information, or to give you my opinions. Your perceptions are what matter. There are no right or wrong or desirable or undesirable answers. You can disagree with each other, and you can change your mind. I would like you to feel comfortable to say what you really think and how you really feel.

<u>Discuss procedure</u>

การพูดคุยของเราจะมีการอักเทปเพื่อที่ว่าดิฉันจะได้ไม่พลาดในสิ่งที่คุณครูพูด อย่างที่ดิฉันได้ เรียนคุณครู แล้วในจดหมายว่าทุกสิ่งจะเป็นความลับ จะไม่มีใครทราบว่าใคร เป็นผู้กล่าว ประโยคนั้น ๆ ดิฉันอยากให้คุณครู เห็นว่าการพูดคุยของเราเป็นลักษณะการสนทนาและเปลี่ยนความคิดเห็น คุณครู ไม่ต้องคอยให้ดิฉันเรียกชื่อ เพื่อพูด และดิฉันขอความกรุณาให้ครูครูพูดทีละท่านเราจะใช้เวลาประมาณ 1ชั่วโมง ดิฉันคิดว่าเรามีอะไรที่ จะพูดคุยกันอีกเยอะ ไม่ทราบว่าคุณครูท่านใดมีคำถามอะไรหรือไม่คะ ถ้าคุณครูมีความประสงค์ที่จะร่วม ขอความกรุณา ลงชื่อใน จดหมายตอบรับฉบับนี้เลยค่ะ

The discussion will be tape recorded so that I do not miss anything you have to say. I explained these procedures to you in the letter I previously sent you. As you know everything is confidential. No one will know who said what. I want this to be a group discussion, so feel free to respond to me and to other members in the group without waiting to be called on. However, I would appreciate it if only one person talks at a time. The discussion will last approximately one hour. There is a lot I want to discuss, so at times I may move us along a bit. If you have any questions, please feel free to ask me. If you feel comfortable to participate please sign the consent form.

<u>Participants introduction</u>

คุณครูสอนภาษาอังกฤษมานานกี่ปีแล้ว

How long have you been teaching English?

คุณครูสนุกกับการสอนภาษาอังกฤษหรือไม่

Do you enjoy teaching English?

คุณครูมีปัญหาในการสอนภาษาอังกฤษเด็กระดับนี้หรือไม่

Do you have any difficulties teaching English to students at this level?

ปัญหาของคุณครูคืออะไร

Probes: What are the problems?

<u>Focus group interviews</u>

ในความคิดของคุณครู คุณครูคิดว่าอะไรเป็นปัจจัยในการเรียนรู้ภาษาอังกฤษ

In your opinion, what are the important factors for acquiring second language?

คุณครูคิดว่าตัวคุณครูมีบทบาทหรือไม่

Probes: If the 'teacher' was not mentioned – Do you think teacher has an important role?

If not – Why not?

คุณครูคิดว่าภาษาที่ใช้มีบทบาทในการเรียนรู้ภาษาอังกฤษหรือไม่

Do you think the language used in EFL classrooms play an important role in the acquisition process?

คุณครูช่วยอธิบายซักเล็กน้อยว่าทำไมหารใช้ภาษาอังกฤษถึงสำคัญ

Probes: Tell me more about why you think this is important.

คุณครูช่วยอธิบายซักเล็กน้อยว่าทำไมภาษาอังกฤษไม่สำคัญ

If not – Please tell me why it is not important. How could it be more useful?

คุณครูใช้ภาษาใดในการสอนภาษาอังกฤษ

What is the main language you use in the language classroom?

คุณครูใช้ภาษานั้นสอนภาษาอังกฤษตลอดเวลาหรือ

Probes: Do you use that language all the time?

คุณครูใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในการสอนภาษาอังกฤษมากแค่ไหน

How much English language do you use in language classroom?

เมื่อใดที่คุณครูใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในการสอนภาษาอังกฤษ

Probes: When do you use it?

อะไรเป็นสิ่งที่กระตุ้นให้คุณครูใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในการสอนภาษาอังกฤษ

What would encourage you to use spoken English in the language classroom?

กรุณาอธิบายเพิ่มเติมค่ะ

Probes: Tell me more about that.

ในบทเรียนช่วงใดที่คุณครูสามารถใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในการสอนภาษาอังกฤษ

In what part of your lesson could you use spoken English?

ทำไมคุณครูคิดว่าสามารถใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในการสอนบทเรียนช่วงนั้น

Probes: Why do you think you could use it?

เมื่อใดที่คุณครูใช้ภาษาไทยในการสอนภาษาอังกฤษ

When do you use Thai language for instruction?

ทำไมคุณครูใช้ภาษาไทยในการสอนภาษาอังกฤษ

Probes: Why do you do this?

คุณครูคิดว่าคุณครูท่านอื่นๆใช้ภาษาไทยหรืออังกฤษในการสอนภาษาอังกฤษ

Do you believe other English teachers in Thailand use Thai or English in language classroom?

ในความคิดของคุณครู คุณครูคิดว่าทำไมคุณครูทั่วไปถึงใช้ภาษาไทยในการสอนภาษาอังกฤษ

Probes: In your opinion, what are reasons that Thai teachers use Thai when teaching English?

Closure

คุณครูมีข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติมเกี่ยวกับการใช้ภาษาไทยในการสอนภาษาอังกฤษอีกหรือไม่

Do you have any further comments about the use of Thai in English classrooms?

ขอบคุณคุณครูทุกท่านมากที่ให้เวลาในการพูดคุยในวันนี้ ข้อมูลของท่านล้วนแล้วแต่มีประโยชน์ทั้งสิ้น

Thank you very much for coming this morning/afternoon/evening. Your time is very much appreciated and your comments have been very helpful.

4.1.3 Participants

Focus group participation was voluntary. The participants included were 20 Thai teachers of English in Thailand, 19 females and one male. These teachers came from twenty schools (primary, secondary, private, public) in Bangkok, Thailand. The schools were randomly selected from all schools in Bangkok area. The primary means of communication initially was by telephone to ask permission from the principal of each school. Those teachers who expressed interest in participating in the focus groups were sent more information about the procedures and topics to be discussed along with a copy of the research proposal.

The participants consisted of: five primary teachers from private schools; five primary teachers from public schools; five secondary teachers from private schools; and five secondary teachers from public schools. Members of each focus group were randomly selected based on their experience and background in English teaching as well as other factors. As a result 13 of the teachers who volunteered to participate have a degree in EFL teaching, two have graduated in Thai language teaching (one primary private and one primary public teacher), two have a Social Studies teaching degree (both primary public teachers), one a Physical Education background (a primary public teacher), and one had previously been a nurse (a primary public teacher). Most of them had considerable experience in English teaching - 14 of the teachers have taught English for more than 15 years and one has taught English for three years, however, five had taught English for only one and a half years. Each of the members of the focus group were asked to sign an Informed Consent Form and each was asked to participate with as much or as little input as they felt comfortable in providing.

4.1.4 Procedure

The volunteer participants met the researcher at a hotel conference room. The hotel was located in central Bangkok. In order to maintain a relaxed atmosphere, tea, coffee, soft drink and light snacks were serve during the discussions. The time for interviewing each group was approximately one and a half to two hours.

For the focus groups the teachers were stratified into four groups according to the type of school in which they were employed (primary private, primary public, secondary private or secondary public). According to Morgan (1988) facilitators are the key to successful focus group interviews For this reason, each interview was guided by the researcher, who acted as a facilitator, whose role was to develop the group's exploration of a given topic. The questions and probe questions were given in Thai and the discussion also occurred in Thai to ensure a comfortable and relaxed atmosphere. The participants were asked to answer a series of semi-structured guide questions, although as with most focus group discussion conversation about other topics was also encouraged.

The participants were asked about their use of English, and their opinion regarding the factors that prevented them and other Thai teachers of English from using English in language classrooms. The data were transcribed and coded to help establish the content of the questionnaire. Four techniques were used for recording participants' responses: (1) using the tape recorder during the interviews (with the agreement of the participants), (2) taking notes during the interview, (3) taking notes immediately following the interview, and (4) transcribing the recorded raw data after the interview as soon as possible. A sample of a typical focus group discussion transcript appears in Appendix B.

4.1.4. Pilot Testing and Descriptive Validity

Securing valid discriptions, explanations, and interpretations of the experiences and perceptions of the participants is the major concern of this study. To ensure the quality and validity of the focus group interviews, a pilot testing of the interviews was conducted with five EFL teachers from Thailand. Their comments and suggestions provided a useful reference for the modifications of the interview questions so that the validity of the study could be increased.

4.2 Questionnaire

In order to receive responses from a large group of teachers in Bangkok, a questionnaire survey was used. The advantage of this is lower cost, in time as well as money. Questionnaires can be administered simultaneously to large groups. In addition, they provide a standardised data-gathering procedure and potential for human error can be minimised. The use of a questionnaire also eliminates any bias introduced by the feelings of the respondents towards the interviewer, or vice versa (Wiersma, 1995).

Moreover, it is generally believed that respondents will answer a questionnaire more frankly than they would answer an interviewer, because of a greater feeling of anonymity (Best & Khan, 1998). The respondent has no one to impress with his/her answers and need have no fear of anyone hearing them. Therefore, to maximise this feeling of privacy, it is important to guard, and emphasise, the respondent's anonymity (Best & Khan, 1998).

However, the primary disadvantages of the questionnaire are nonreturns, misinterpretation, and validity problems (Berdie, Anderson, & Niebuhr, 1986). Nonreturns are questionnaires or individual questions that are not answered by the people to whom they were sent. Oppenheim (1966) emphasises that "the important point about these low response rates is not the reduced size of the sample, which could easily be overcome by sending out more questionnaires, but the possibility of bias. Nonresponse is not a random process; it has its own determinants, which vary from survey to survey"(p 34).

Misinterpretation occurs when the respondent does not understand either the survey instructions or the survey questions. If respondents become confused, they

will either give up on the survey (becoming a nonreturn) or answer questions in terms of the way they understand it. In order to prevent this problem, the questionnaire in this research was firstly pilot tested to ensure that meaning was clear and it was also designed in such a way that space was allowed for comment, to each item, by the respondent, so that they had room to elaborate their meaning should they feel the need to do so.

In this study, the researcher tried to further minimise these disadvantages by incorporating three important portions in the questionnaire - the cover letter, the instructions, and the questions. The cover letter explained to the respondent the purpose of the survey and asked them to reply truthfully and quickly. It also explained why the survey is important for language teaching and learning in Thailand. Also the confidentiality of the results was strongly stressed. This was done to help minimise both nonreturn and validity problems. A clear set of instructions explained how to complete the survey and where to return it. The instructions were done in such a way that any questions or problems were, wherever possible, anticipated and attempts were made to prevent them from occurring. The questions were not ambiguous and were written to discourage feelings of frustration or anger that lead to nonreturns or validity problems.

4.2.1 Questionnaire Construction

In this present study, the data from the phase one focus group interviews, as well as from the literature review, were used to inform the design of a questionnaire. This follows the recommendation made by Converse (1986) and Rossi (1983) who claim that the most obvious way that focus groups can assist in questionnaire and scale construction is through providing evidence of how the respondents talk about

the topic. Also, and perhaps most importantly, the use of an introductory focus group interview was done to ensure that the researcher had as complete a picture of participants' thinking as possible (Morgan, 1988). Following the transcription and analysis of the phase one focus group interviews, a questionnaire was developed. This was pilot tested and amended accordingly (see 4.2.3).

4.2.2 Questionnaire Structure

The questionnaire consists of three parts. The first part contains 14 Likert-scale items, which relates to the teachers' general beliefs about language use in classroom. Part two consists of 56 Likert-scale statements concerning the teachers' language background and their language use in the classroom. Finally, part three included opened-ended questions inviting any further comments on instructional language use. In order to avoid the use of undecided responses, in part one and two, the participants were asked to indicate their agreement or disagreement along a four-point scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". Within each category, the questionnaire contains multiple items designed to evaluate the same construct. For example:

> Grammar content
> Question 32. I introduce new grammatical concepts in my classes in English.
> Question 42. I give instructions in Thai for English grammar lessons

During the focus group interviews, 20 issues of concern to the teachers about the target language avoidance emerged. For convenience in managing the data, these issues were broadly categorised into the following constructs. In the construction for the questionnaire, every attempt was made to order the questionnaire items in such a way that items from within a specific category were evenly distributed throughout the

instrument. Table 4.1 shows the distribution of each specific topic amongst the items of the questionnaire.

Table 4.1   The distribution of specific topics in the items of the questionnaire.

	Categories	No. of Questions	Items
Teachers' general beliefs about the value of the use of target language in the classroom.		14	1-14
Target language avoidance by teachers			
Teachers' self awareness	Teachers' language proficiency	2	27,31
	Teachers' language anxiety	3*	16,22,25
	Teachers' confidence in language use	2	17,21
	Fear of providing a poor model	2	23,29
Teachers background experience	The effects of teachers' own schooling on their classroom practice	3*	20,26,30
	Teacher training	3*	15,19,28
Issues pertaining to the students	Students' language proficiency	3*	36.38.47
	Age	3*	34,49,50
	Classroom management	2	48,59
	Students' inadequate background knowledge	2	41,57
	Students' expectation for teachers' language use	2	33,44
	Students' objective for studying language	2	45,56
Classroom	Class size	2	35,51
	Mixed ability classroom	2	40,55
Content	Grammar content	3*	32,42,52
	Translating difficult content	3*	54,58,60
	Content and time available	2	37,46
Examination	The focus on grammar	2	43,58
	The university entrance examination	2	39,53
Department	Departmental policy	2	18,24

*In most cases, each category was covered by two questions, however, the nature of some meant that three were required. (See Appendix C for questionnaire schedule)

4.2.3 Survey Pilot and Revision

The questionnaire was translated into Thai and pilot tested with a group of 30 teachers working in Bangkok. As a result some items were amended to make them more comprehensible to the participants. The data from the pilot test of the questionnaire were analysed for reliability. The reliability of the scales and their individual items was empirically examined through the calculation of Cronbach's Alpha coefficients using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS - version 9.0). Examination of Cronbach's Alpha provides information about the reliability of any given set of measures. Since Alpha is interpreted as a correlation coefficient, it ranges in values from 0.00 to 1.00. Generally, scales that obtain Alpha levels of 0.70 or greater are considered to be reliable (Nunnaly, 1978). The result of this was $r = 0.82$.

Professors from language studies and linguistics in the Education Faculty at Edith Cowan University provided initial input during the questionnaire development. They also reviewed the final test questions for appropriateness and content. In addition a native Australian, who has Thai as a second language, checked the linguistic structure of the document to ensure ease of understanding and that there were no problems with ambiguity and clarity. Several Thai teachers of English also provided review and commentary of the test.

4.2.4 Participants

Two hundred Thai teachers of English in the Bangkok area participated in this part of the study. The use of a stratified random sampling procedure was applied to ensure that a proportional representation of population subgroups were surveyed.

They represented the following groups:

1. 50 primary teachers from private schools;

2. 50 primary teachers from public schools;

3. 50 secondary teachers from private schools; and

4. 50 secondary teachers from public schools.

4.2.5 Procedure

Permission letters were randomly sent to 80 school principals – 20 of each school type and sector, 47 of whom replied with a nominal list of all teachers of English in their schools. After receiving permission from those principals, 286 questionnaires were sent to the schools. In this cohort were:

1. 15 primary public schools;

2. 10 secondary public schools;

3. 10 primary private schools; and

4. 12 secondary private schools.

    Of those sent the questionnaire, 227 responded, they were:

1. 54 from primary public schools;

2. 62 from secondary public school;

3. 59 from primary private schools; and

4. 52 from secondary private schools.

    Of the questionnaires returned 12 were not complete (one from primary public schools, seven from secondary public schools, and four from primary private schools) and were therefore excluded from the sample. Finally, to obtain a balanced sample, 50 from each type of school were randomly selected to be used in this research.

4.3 Focus Group Interview: Phase Two

Results from the questionnaire were then shared with the same 20 participants from the focus groups interviewed in phase one. The participants met the researcher at a hotel conference room where the first round interviews were taken place. Each of the interview lasted approximately one hour. The participants were first presented the results from the first round interview and questionnaire survey. Then they were then asked questions about the results and the contradiction between the information from the first round interview and the results from questionnaire surveys. All the discussion occurred in Thai to ensure that the participants would be comfortable to participate. Audiotape recordings were made of the interviews.

4.3.1 The interview schedule

After receiving the results from questionnaire survey, the interview schedule for phase two was developed. Firstly, the researcher returned to the questions asked in the initial focus group interviews. Then the researcher asked questions about the contradiction between the information from first round interview and the results from questionnaire surveys.

4.3.2 Focus Group Interviews Guide

Present the purpose:

สวัสดีคุณครูทุกท่าน ขอบคุณทุกท่านที่มาในวันนี้ ก่อนอื่นดิฉันขออธิบายรายละเอียดของการสัมภาษณ์ในครั้งนี้ การสัมภาษณ์ครั้งนี้เพื่อที่จะทำให้ความคิดเห็นที่ได้มาจากการสัมภาษณ์รอบแรก และข้อมูลจากแบบสอบถามให้ชัดเจนขึ้น

Good morning/ afternoon/ evening. Thank you for coming in again today. Firstly I would like to explain some of the details about this second round interview.

The reason for interviewing at this stage Is to clarify both the ideas that emerged from the first interviews and the data obtained from questionnaire survey.

Discuss procedure:

เช่นเดียวกันที่ดิฉันได้ทำเมื่อการสัภาษณ์ครั้งที่ 1 การสัทภาษณ์วันนี้จะทำการบันทึกเสียง ทุกสิ่งทุกอย่างที่ท่านพูดจะเป็นความลับ ดิฉันขอเริ่มจากการนำข้อมูลที่ได้จากการสัมภาษณ์ในรอบแรกมาเสนอ และจากนั้นผลที่ได้มาจากแบบสอบถาม หลังจากนั้นขอให้คุณครูทุกท่านโปรดแสดงความคิดเห็นได้ตามสะดวก จะไม่มีคำตอบที่ถูกหรือผิด ท่านสามารถเห็นด้วยหรือขัดแย้ง เราจะพูดคุยกันประมาณ 1 ชั่วโมงหากท่านมีข้อสงสัยข้อความกรุณาถามดิฉันได้

As I did the first time we met, today's discussion will be taped recorded, but As you know everything is confidential. To start with I would like to review the information we discussed during the first interview. Then I will show you the results from the questionnaire surveys. After that, I would like you to feel free to dicuss those results. Again, there is no right or wrong answer. You can agree or disagree with the results or with your colleagues. The discussion will last approximately one hour. If you have any questions, please feel free to ask me.

Review of the results from interview phase one:

สิ่งที่ดิฉันนำเสนอให้ท่าตอนนี้คือผลจากการสัมภาษณ์เมื่อครั้งที่แล้ว ในหน้าที่หนึ่งท่านจะเป็นหมวดของข้อเสนอโดยเรียกจากความคิดเห็นมากสุดถึงน้อยสุดตามลำดับ สิ่งแรกที่ทำให้ครูใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในห้องได้ไม่มากนักเนื่องจากปัญหาที่ความสามารถของครู และรองลงมาคือความเกรงกลัวการใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ ทุกข้อคิดเห็นได้ถูกจัดเป็นหมวดทั้งสิ้นเจ็ดหมวด ในหน้าที่สอง

What I am passing to you now is the results from the interview phase one (see appendix D) which were collected from 20 Thai teachers of English. On page one, you can see all categories of responses ranked by the highest agreement to the lowest agreement. As you can see, all teachers agree that teachers' low language proficiency make the use of English in class problematic. The second reason for target language avoidance is teachers' language anxiety. All responses from page one were classified under seven constructs as you can see on page two.

Presentation of the results from the questionnaire survey:

ตอนนี้ดิฉันอยากจะเสนอคุณครูถึงผลของแบบสอบถาม ที่คุณครูเห็นในหน้าที่สามในตาราง ผลปรกาฏว่าเหตุผลที่ครูใช้ภาษาอังกฤษน้อยเป็นเพราะข้อสอบเน้นไวยากรณ์ และเหตุผลอื่นๆตามมากคือ การสอนไวยากรณ์ ขนาดของห้องเรียนที่ใหญ่ นักเรียนอ่อน จุดมุ่งหมายของนักเรียนที่เรียนภาษาอังกฤษ การฝึกหัดครูไม่เพียงพอ และแบบอย่างของครูที่สอนครูตัวครูเอง

Now I would like to show you the result from the questionnaire survey. As you will see in the table on page three (see Table 5.2). It would seem that the strongest reason given be the respondents to the questionnaire for Thai teachers avoiding the use of English is because of the grammar - based entrance examinations. Other reasons they gave in descending order included impracticable to use English in grammar instruction, large class size, low proficiency students, students' objective for studying language, inadequate knowledge from teachers' training ,and effect of teachers' own schoolng on their classroom.

และคุณครูจะได้เห็นว่าภายใต้หัวข้อต่างๆนี้ ยังคงแสดงผลให้เห็นว่าครูในแต่ละประเภทโรงเรียนมีความ ชื่อที่ต่างกัน ดังที่แสดงในหน้าที่สี่ และในหน้าที่ห้า ท่านจะเห็นคำตอบที่ครูตอบในแบบสอบถามกับ คำถามที่ว่า อะไรเป็นปัจจัยที่ทำให้ครูใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในการสอน

It was also found that seven factors showed significant differences between the groups of the teachers.You can find this information on page four (see Table 5.4). The higher mean score shows the higher agreement, for example, the teachers in primary public schools agreed more strongly with the statement regarding the influence of their low English language proficiency on language instruction. On page five you will find another table (see Table 5.5) which is a summary of the responses to the question "What would encourage you to use English in language classroom?"

Focus group interviews

คุณครูมีความคิดเห็นอย่างไรกับผลที่ดิฉันนำเสนอ

What do you think about the results that I have shown you?

คุณครูช่วยกล่าวเพิ่มเติมได้หรือไม่

Probes: Could you tell me more about that?

ทำไมท่านไม่เห็นด้วย

If not agree: Why don't you agree with them?

คุณครูบอกดิฉันเมื่อครั้งที่แล้วว่า ปัญหาที่สำคัญที่สุดคือปัญหาความสามารถของครู ทำไมคุณครูถึงคิด อย่างนั้น

All of you told me last time that teachers' language ability is the strongest reason for teachers avoid using English in class, why do you think so?

คุณครูคิดว่าข้อสอบที่เน้นไวยากรณ์เป็นปัจจัยสำคัญที่ทำให้ครูหลีกเลี่ยงการใช้ภาษาอังกฤษหรือไม่

Do you believe that the grammar-based examination is the important factor for English language avoidance by the teachers?

ทำไมถึงไม่

Probe: If not - Why not?

คุณครูบอกดิฉันได้ไหมคะว่าคุณครูอย่างไรกับผลที่ขัดแย้งระหว่างการสัมภาษณ์รอบแรกและแบบสอบ
ถาม

Could you share with me some ideas about the reasons for the contradiction between the information from the first round interview and the results from questionnaire?

คุณครูคิดว่านอกจากนี้แล้วยังมีปัจจัยใดที่ทำให้ครูไทยไม่าใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ

From these results, do you think there are other factors that hinder Thai teachers of English from using English in language classroom?

คุณครูคิดว่าอะไรที่จะเป็นแรงกระตุ้นให้ครูใช้ภาษาอังกฤษมากขึ้น

What would encourage you to use English in language classroom?

Closure

คุณครูมีข้อเสอนแนะอื่นๆอีกหรือไม่

Do you have any further comments about the use of Thai in English language classrooms?

ดิฉันต้องขอบคุณคุณครูที่มาในวันนี้ คำตอบคุณครูเป็นประโยชน์อย่างยิ่ง

Thank you very much for coming thiS morning/afternoon/evening. Your time is very much appreciated and your comments have been very helpful.

4.4 Data Analysis

Following completion of the data collection in each stage of the study, an in-depth analysis of the data was undertaken.

Focus Groups Analysis

The information collected from a focus group discussion is raw data. The entire interview was transcribed in order to provide a complete record of the discussion and facilitate analysis of the data. The next step was to analyse the content of the discussion. The aim of this analysis was to look for trends and patterns that reappear within either a single focus group or among various focus groups. Kreuger (1988, p.109) suggests that content analysis begins with a comparison of the words used in the answer. Also, the emphasis or intensity of the respondents' comments would be considered. Other considerations relate to the consistency of comments and the specificity of responses in follow up probes.

According to Marczak and Sewell (1999), when conducting analysis for the focus groups, consideration should be given to five factors:

1. Words. Actual words and meanings of the words should be determined. One might make frequency counts of commonly used words. Cluster similar concepts together.

2. Context. Examine the context of words by finding the triggering stimulus and then interpret the comment in light of that context.

3. Internal consistency. Trace a flow of conversation and note changes or even reverses of position after interaction with others.

4. Specificity of responses. Responses that are specific and based on experiences should be given more weight than responses that are vague and impersonal. Greater weight should be given to responses in first person rather than third person hypothetical answers.

5. Find the big ideas. Look for trends or ideas that cut across the entire discussion.

In the process of analysis, the tape-recorded interviews were transcribed by researcher. These were then coded by key words, which were categorised by the wording of the teachers' responses. At this stage, the teachers' responses were considered by words and/or context, which was guided by the procedure of Marczak and Sewell (1999), discussed above. The key words were grouped and reviewed to see if there was category overlap or category relatedness. In addition, the constant comparative method (Glaser and Strauss, 1967) was utilised to analyse the interview data. This method consists of the following steps:

1. Comparing incidents applicable to each category: incidents in the data were coded into as many categories of analysis as possible. Furthermore, an incident for a category was coded and then compared with the previous incidents in the same and different groups.

2. Integrating theoretical properties of the categories: at this stage, a shift occurred from comparing incidents with other incidents in the same category to comparing incidents with the overall properties of the category.

3. Delimiting the theory: modifications to the categories become fewer and fewer as more and more data were processed, as such, the data became more select and focused.

4. Writing theory: in this phase, based on a series of written memos, the categories that had emerged from the data were described.

The computer software "NU*DIST" (version 4.0) was used to facilitate the ease of transcription and analysis. NU*DIST was originally designed to do what the acronym claims - to assist researchers handling non-numerical unstructured data by indexing, searching and theorising. According to manual NU*DIST allows researchers to manage documents and ideas easily, rigorously and flexibly, in symmetrical systems.

Finally, to increase the reliability of the analysis of the interviews, the peer examination technique was also utilised. Two Thai research consultants from Prasarnmit University in Bangkok were asked to read the transcriptions of the interviews and comment on the findings that had emerged from the study, particularly to determine the categorises they saw emerging from the data. In general, the catergorisation was very similar. In order to present the data, the transcriptions were translated to English by researcher and each of these were checked by a native speaker.

<u>Questionnaire Analysis</u>

The likert scale data from the questionnaires were analysed according to the frequency count and mean percentage calculations. Multivariate analysis (MANOVA) was also used to compare the findings from the primary and secondary teachers, and the private and public school teachers. Also post-hoc Scheffé tests ($p =$

.05) on the univariate F-ratios were performed to find any significant differences between the groups. Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS – version 9.0) was used for the analysis. Finally, the open-ended questions were individually analysed and the themes emerging from these categorised using NU*DIST to assist with this analysis.

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS

This chapter will present the results of the data analysis of the focus groups interview and questionnaire surveys. Firstly, a description will be provided of the phase one focus group interviews with particular attention given to the factors that impede Thai teachers of English in using target language in the classroom. Secondly, the results of the questionnaire will be reported using descriptive statistics relating to each dependent variable. The questionnaire results also include a MANOVA analysis used to examine whether there were any significant differences between the four groups of teachers. In addition, the results of a series of ANOVAs will be presented along, with supporting Scheffé tests, performed on the scores obtained for each dependent variable. Finally, a description of the data obtained in the phase two focus group interviews is reported.

5.1 Descriptive Results: Interview Phase One

The interviews were difficult, at first, as participants seemed to be somewhat uncomfortable with the topic. However, in accordance with Thai culture, they never gave up or withdrew from the interview, participating until it was finished. Although reluctant to respond initially, after it was explained once again[1] that the responses would be confidential, and that everyone was reassured that no judgement would be made based on their responses, most of the teachers were more willing to contribute

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[1] Informed consent had been gained from all the participants prior to participation in this study.

to the group discussion. Only one private secondary school teacher shared very few ideas, except when she was personally asked for her opinion.

Each interview started with a general discussion about such things as the participants' background in English teaching, problems they encountered, and teaching at their school. It took approximately 10 minutes to complete this section. Then the more general topic of language teaching was discussed, which then lead in turn to a more specific discussion about target language avoidance.

The interviews were conducted in form of conversational style. The issues that emerged were in response to all the questions and probes used by the researcher. In addition, the participants not only answered the researcher's questions but also introduced their own ideas, agreeing or disagreeing with others in the group. During the interview process, the researcher acted as a facilitator by listening and asking questions in order to encourage participants to share their ideas with the group as much as possible. As a result, all the issues that were emerged were those specifically identified by the participants, not by the researcher.

Repetition in the form of different structured questions and answers, confirmation, and peer-interaction and agreement provided evidence of corroboration. However, some ideas were suggested by only one teacher only (i.e. teachers' fear of providing the poor model, students' inadequate background knowledge, and the effects of teachers' own schooling on their classroom practice). However, it was deemed that these may have wider application and were therefore used to inform the questionnaire.

The following were the issues that emerged from these interviews with regard to Thai teachers' avoidance of English in language classrooms (See Appendix D for the categorises).

These responses were classified under seven constructs as follows:

1. Teachers' self awareness, including:

    i)   Low level of language proficiency,

    ii)   Language anxiety,

    iii)   Lack of confidence in the target language, and

    iv)   Fear of providing a poor model;

2. Teachers background experience, including:

    i)   The effect of teachers' own schooling on their classroom practice,

    ii)   Inadequate teacher training;

3. Issues pertaining to the students, including:

    i)   Low level of language proficiency,

    ii)   Age,

    iii)   Inadequate background knowledge,

    iv)   Students' expectations for teachers to use Thai, and

    v)   Students' own reasons for studying English;

4. Classroom management, including:

    i)   Large class sizes,

    ii)   Mixed ability classes, and

    iii)   Bad behaviour;

5. Content, including:

    i)   Grammar,

        ii)   Translating difficulties,

        iii)   Content and time;

6. Examinations, including:

        i)   The focus on grammar, and

        ii)   The grammar-based university entrance examination; and

7. Departmental policies, such as:

        i)   The lack of encouragement within the English language department

             for using English.

5.1.1 Teachers' Self Awareness

i) Low Level of Language Proficiency

All the teachers (n=20) said that they believed that English avoidance by Thai teachers was due to their low proficiency in English (See Appendix D). They felt that they did not have the ability to use English for communication. This was especially so for those who did not have specialist English teaching training and who believed that their poor proficiency is the sole reason for not using it. As one of the teachers commented:

"ครูบอกได้เลยว่าตัวครูเองแหละค่ะคือปัญหาที่ครูไม่มีความสามารถพอที่จะพูดสื่อสาร ภาษา
อังกฤษได้ตลอดเวลา"
"I can say...teachers themselves are the main problem. We don't have the ability to communicate in English all the time."

                                     (Teacher E)

The awareness that they, as teachers, struggled with English is also evident is in the following comment:

"หนูช่วยบอกพี่หน่อยเถอะว่าตัวอักษรตัวสุดท้ายของภาษาอังกฤษออกเสียงว่าอย่างไร เห็นไหม ละ พี่เองยังไม่รู้เลยว่าออกยังไง"

"How do you pronounce the last letter of the alphabet?...See? I don't even know how to pronounce it."

<div align="right">(Teacher S)</div>

ii) Language Anxiety

Teachers (n=16) revealed that they felt anxious when they had to speak in English in front of their students. They said they were afraid of making mistakes or losing face and that they did not want their students laughing at them. For example, one teacher said:

"ไม่รู้จะบอกยังไงดี คือมันไม่อยากเสียหน้านะ ไม่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษชะเลยจะง่ายกว่า"

"I don't know how to say it, but, I don't want to lose face. Not using English is easier."

<div align="right">(Teacher A)</div>

and another commented:

"บางครั้งเราก็ออกเสียงผิดบ้างนะนักเรียนก็หัวเราะกันสนุกสนานไม่ชอบเลยเวลาเจอเหตุการณ์ แบบนั้น"

"When I pronounce a word incorrectly, students laugh and make jokes with it. I don't like being in that situation."

<div align="right">(Teacher N)</div>

The teachers felt that everybody was judging their language, so they avoided using English in their classes. This is demonstrated in the follow extract taken from the focus group interviews.

"เด็กที่นี่จะรวยมากเขาก็จะไปต่างประเทศกันบ่อยบางครั้งเวลาพี่พูดคำบางคำออกไป เขาก็จะ
บอกว่า"ไม่ใช่ครูมันต้องอย่างนั้นไม่ใช่ครูมันต้องอย่างนี้มันน่าอายจริงๆ"

"The students are very rich and they go abroad very often. When I say
something, they say, "No, it's not that, it is this". It's embarrassing."

<div align="right">(Teacher L)</div>

This evidence supports Horwitz's (1996) claim that language anxiety is one
factor why in language classrooms discussions slip so easily from the target language
to the first language.

iii) Lack of Confidence in the Target Language

Related to the two previous categories is the issue of teacher confidence. It
would seem that some teachers (n=7) are inhibited by their lack of confidence in
speaking English, rather than their anxiety *per se*, although of course, there is a fine
line between two. The teachers explained that the difference between 'lack of
confidence' and 'language anxiety' is that language anxiety happens when one has to
speak English in any situation, but lack of confidence happens only when one has to
speak English in some specific situations, such as talking with native speakers or
teaching high-proficiency students.

For example

"พี่ไม่มั่นใจในตัวเองเวลาจะพูดภาษาอังกฤษกับนักเรียนที่เก่งๆ แต่กับนักเรียนอ่อนๆพี่กล้านะ"

"I'm not confident when I speak English with high proficiency students. But I
can do with low proficiency ones."

<div align="right">(Teacher O)</div>

Some teachers expressed a lack of confidence in their ability to say something
in English and as a consequence sometimes did not even try to speak English. For
instance:

"พี่ไม่กล้าเสี่ยงที่จะพูดกับพวกฝรั่งหน่ะ แต่กับเพื่อนครูพี่ไม่ค่อยอาย"
"I can speak English with my friends but not with native speakers."

iv) Fear of Providing a Poor Model

One private school primary teacher believed that to be a good teacher you must provide a good model and not teach something incorrectly. She felt that if she uses the inappropriate structure in English, students might remember the wrong pattern. This type of sentiment coincides with the statement by Schulz (1991) that teachers must speak the target language fluently and accurately. Thus teachers avoid using the target language, altogether, rather than provide a poor model. As one teacher said:

"พี่จะรู้สึกผิดถ้าเกิดว่าเราพูดอะไรผิดไปเพราะเด็กๆต้องการตัวอย่างที่ถูกต้องอย่างถ้าพี่พูดคำ หรือประโยคผิดๆออกไป นักเรียนก็จะจำในสิ่งผิดๆ มันไม่น่าให้อภัยสำหรับครูนะ"
"I feel guilty if I say something incorrectly. Students need a good model. If I say the wrong words or sentences, students might remember the wrong thing. That would be unforgivable for a teacher."

5.1.2 Teachers' Background Experience

i) The Effects of Teachers' Own Schooling on Their Classroom Practice

One teacher said that English teachers from her own schooling had influenced her classroom practice. She had never been taught using English in English classes, and consequently she felt that the use of Thai in language class is the norm. As she stated:

"ตอนที่เป็นเด็ก ครูพี่ก็ไม่เคยใช้ภาษาอังกฤษเลย ไม่เคยเลย พี่ก็เลยคิดว่านั่นเป็นวิธีสอน
ที่เหมาะแล้ว"

"When I was young my English teachers never used English in classes...never
at all. I think that it is a suitable way to teach."

<div align="right">(Teacher H)</div>

ii) Inadequate Teacher Training

It seems that most teachers (n=14) found that their initial teacher training did

not encourage the use of English in class. Those teachers who had studied English

teaching said that none of their university teachers used English or had discussed the

use of English as a medium of instruction e.g.,

"พี่จบเอกการสอนภาษาอังกฤษนะคะแต่อาจารย์พี่ไม่เคยพูดอะไรเกี่ยวกับการใช้ภาษา ในห้อง
เรียนเลย"

"I majored in English teaching, but my university teachers never mentioned
language use in classes at all."

<div align="right">(Teacher I)</div>

"พวกอาจารย์ไม่เคยสอนวิธีการสอนภาษาอังกฤษด้วยซ้ำ ไม่เคยบอกเลยว่าต้องใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ
ในห้อง บางทีเขาพูดไม่ได้ด้วยซ้ำเพราะก็ไม่เคยได้ยินอาจารย์พูดเหมือนกัน"

"The university teachers never even taught me how to teach English. They
never told me to use English in class either. Maybe they didn't know how to
speak English, because I never heard them."

<div align="right">(Teacher E)</div>

<div align="center">

5.1.3 Issues Pertaining to the Students

</div>

i) Low Level of Language Proficiency

The teachers (n=14) claimed that students with low proficiency could not

understand English when it was spoken to them. They felt that they must spend a long

time helping these students comprehend the lesson. Therefore, the teachers felt that

by using Thai they could help the students to better understand the content. For example, one teacher said:

"พวกนักเรียนที่อ่อนๆจะเข้าใจบทเรียนช้ามากแค่ภาษาไทยยังเอาตัวไม่รอดแล้วเราจะใช้ ภาษา อังกฤษ กับเขาได้อย่างไร"

"The low proficiency students are slow to understand the lesson. Even when I use Thai, they don't survive. How can we use English with them?"

(Teacher E)

Similarly another teacher explained the reason that she used Thai was because:

"พูดแค่คำเดียวเขายังไม่เข้าใจเลย อย่าไปลองใช้เลยภาษาอังกฤษน่ะ"

"Even if I speak one word, they don't understand. So, there is no point in using English with them."

(Teacher K)

ii) Age

The primary teachers (n=2) were very concerned that the age of their students affected their ability to comprehend. For example, one teacher said:

"ถ้าเป็นนักเรียนชั้นเล็กๆ เราก็ไม่สามารถใช้ภาษาอังกฤษมาก"

"We can not use much English with young children."

(Teacher K)

They felt that if students were too young, they would not readily understand a different language. They felt the use of Thai was necessary for translation purposes and to aid in the students understanding e.g.,

"เด็กเล็กๆนี่   ต้องระวังมาก บางครั้งเราก็ต้องใช้ภาษาไทยในการช่วยแปล"

"We have to be more careful with young children. Sometimes we have to use Thai for translation."

<div align="right">(Teacher N)</div>

Overall, the teachers felt that the use of English is just too difficult for beginning school students.

iii) Inadequate Background Knowledge

One teacher also expressed the opinion that the issue of what students had learned in their previous years at school should also be considered. In turn this provided justification for not always using English because the students do not always have the same background knowledge. As one teacher explained:

"โรงเรียนเราจะมีแต่ระดับมัธยม นักเรียนก็จะมาจากโรงเรียนประถมต่างที่กัน คนไหน ที่มาจากโรงเรียนเอกชนก็จะมีพื้นฐานมามาก แต่ถ้าใครที่มาจากโรงเรียนของกทม. หรือเทศบาล ก็จะอ่อนกว่า อันนี้ไม่ใช่เพราะความสามารถทางภาษาของเขาเอง แต่ขึ้นอยู่กับพื้นฐานมากกว่า"

"Our school only has the secondary level and students are from different primary schools. Those who come from private schools have a lot of background knowledge, but those who come from public schools may not. This is not because of their language ability, but it would depend on their background."

<div align="right">(Teacher E)</div>

iv) Students' Expectations for Teachers Using Thai

Some teachers (n=12) said that when they used English to explain the lesson, their students asked them to use Thai because it is more understandable. For example:

"นักเรียนเองบางทีก็ขอให้เราพูดภาษาไทย เพาะบางทีเขาพยายามแล้ว แต่ก็ยังไม่เข้าใจอยู่ดี"

"Students themselves sometimes ask teachers to use Thai because sometimes even when they try hard, they still don't understand."

<div align="right">(Teacher D)</div>

This is particularly evident amongst students who plan to attend university. They generally prefer Thai to English as they are mainly only interested in learning clear grammar rules and developing their reading skills. As one teacher commented:

"บางทีก็ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษกับพวกเขาเหมือนกัน แต่เขากลับบอกว่าให้ใช้ภาษาไทย เขาบอกว่าเข
าไม่อยากเสียเวลามานั่งฟังและก็ต้องมาคิดตามทำความเข้าใจกับเรา"

"Sometimes when I try to use English with them, they ask me to use Thai. They say they don't want to waste time by listening and trying to understand me."

(Teacher F)

v) Students' Own Reasons for Studying English

Teachers indicated that, for most of the students, their goal was to pass their examinations. Senior secondary school students in particularly were keen to attend university. The teachers reported that their students believe that the more they acquire grammatical knowledge, the higher their marks would be. Therefore, the teachers believe that the students are not concerned will developing their oral English communication skills. For instance, one teacher stated:

"ตอนนี้ เขาอาจจะยังไม่คิดว่าต้องพูดให้ได้ แค่เอาตัวรอดในการสอบก่อนก็พอแล้ว"

"They don't value being a good speaker at this stage, just passing the test is enough."

(Teacher L)

and another described how:

"นักเรียนที่อยู่ ม. ๔-๕-๖ จะห่วงก็แค่สอบเข้ามหาวิทยาลัย ถ้าเรามัวแต่ไปสอนอะไร ที่นอกเห
นือจากไวยากรณ์ เขาก็จะไม่สนใจแล้ว ดีไม่ดีเวลาพูดภาษาอังกฤษด้วย เขาทำเป็นไม่ได้ยินเ
สียอีก"

"The year 10 to year 12 students are especially concerned about entering university. If we focus on something other than grammar, they will not pay

any attention. Moreover, if we talk to them in English, they act like they don't hear us at all."

<div align="right">(Teacher A)</div>

So it can be inferred that teachers avoid using English as another way of appeasing student desires.

5.1.4 Classroom Management

i) Large Class Sizes

Classes in Thailand are very large compared to current Western Australian schools. There are generally 45 to 60 students in each class. Some of the teachers (n=9) claimed that class size is an important impediment for using English for instructional purposes. As one elementary teacher explained:

"ยิ่งห้องเรียนใหญ่แค่ไหน พี่ยิ่งใช้ภาษาไทยมากเท่านั้น ถ้าเราใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ ก็จะทำให้ ไม่ส ามารถช่วยอธิบายนักเรียนเป็นรายบุคคลได้ ก็คิดว่าใช้ภาษาไทยน่าจะเหมาะกว่า แล้วก็ภาวนา เอาว่านักเรียนจะเข้าใจ"

" The bigger the class size, the more I use Thai. If I use English, I can not help students individually to make them understand the lesson. I think that using Thai is more suitable and pray that they get what I say."

<div align="right">(Teacher H)</div>

They felt that whole class participation in activities was difficult, and this could lead to lack of discipline as well as other educational problems. For example:

"นี่ถ้าห้องหนึ่งมีนักเรียนแค่ ๗-๘ คนก็อาจจะทำได้ แต่นี่ ๕๐ คน โธ่..ไม่อยากนึกถึงมันเลย"
"If we have just 7 or 8 students in one class, we might possibly do that, but here…50…Wow…I don't want to think about it."

<div align="right">(Teacher N)</div>

ii) Mixed-ability Classroom

Many teachers (n=14) described their classes as being of mixed ability with students of different language proficiency levels. As a consequence, they felt that the use of English would prevent the whole class, particularly the low proficiency students, from understanding the lesson. For example:

"มันยากมากเลยที่ต้องสอนห้องเรียนที่คละความสามารถ ความรู้เขาไม่เท่ากัน ยิ่งถ้าพี่ใช้ภาษา
อังกฤษก็ไม่แน่ใจอีกว่านักเรียนอ่อนๆจะเข้าใจไหม"
"It is difficult to teach the mixed ability class. They are not the same levels. If I use English, I'm not sure the low proficiency students would understand."
(Teacher L)

"อย่างห้องเรียนที่คละ พี่จะใช้ภาษาไทยนะเพื่อให้มั่นใจว่านักเรียนทั้งห้องจะเข้าใจเรา"
"For the mixed ability class, I use Thai to make sure that the whole class understands."
(Teacher B)

iii) Bad Behaviour

The teachers (n=14) expressed quite strong opinions about the need to use Thai and not English for discipline in class. The following reaction to the question "As one of you mentioned the use of Thai for classroom management, why don't you use English for this purpose?" was common amongst the teachers:

"ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษควบคุมห้องเรียนเนี่ยนะ พูดเล่นรึเปล่าคะ"
"Manage discipline in English! Are you kidding?"
(Teacher N)

That is to say they believe that the used of Thai is more suitable for classroom management. One teacher exemplified this in the following way:

"ไม่มีทาง เราต้องใช้ภาษาไทย มันเป็นไปไม่ได้อย่างเนี่ยก็นับ หนึ่ง สอง สาม พวกเขาจะรู้เล
ยว่า ต้องหุบปากแล้วหลังจากนับสาม ไม่ใช้ one two three ต้องใช้ภาษาไทย"

"No way. We have to use Thai. It is impossible. I just count "หนึ่ง สอง สาม" they
know they have to shut up after three. Not *one, two, three*". I must use Thai."

(Teacher I)

Further the teachers claimed that if they use English in class, their students
would not understand and as a consequence they would behave badly.

<u>5.1.5 Content</u>

i) Grammar Content

Most teachers (n=14) considered Thai to be a more effective medium than
English for the introduction of important English grammar points and when making
grammatical explanations. For example, when asked "When do you use Thai
language for instruction?", some teachers responded:

"ต้องใช้ภาษาไทยนะ เวลาสอนพวกโครงสร้าง ไวยากรณ์ต่างๆ"
"I have to use Thai for teaching Grammar."

(Teacher H)

"ไวยากรณ์เป็นอะไรที่ซับซ้อนเกินกว่าจะใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ"
"English grammar is too complex."

(Teacher D)

ii) Translating Difficult Content

The use of translation was an issue was explored within the focus group
interviews.

"เวลาที่สอนพวกการอ่านและอธิบายพวกโครงสร้างยากๆเนี่ย ก็ต้องใช้ภาษาไทยช่วยแปลด้วย"

"When I teach reading and explain difficult grammar, I have to translate into Thai."

<div align="right">(Teacher I)</div>

This justification for translation is that it is leading the students to understanding. Further, some of the teachers (n=7) explained that the most common use of Thai is for translation, principally for vocabulary.

"ใช้ภาษาไทยในการแปลคำศัพท์ที่ยากค่ะ"

"I use Thai to translate some difficult words."

<div align="right">(Teacher D)</div>

The teachers also revealed that the method they employed in class was one in which they translated sentences from the target language into the mother tongue and then the students memorised these target language forms.

iii) Too Much Content for the Time Available

The textbooks used in English classes contain a lot of course material, which must be completed within one school year as a requirement of the education authority and the schools. Teachers (n=6) argued that the use of English might prevent them from covering all the subject matter in the required time. This sentiment is clear in the following interview extracts:

"ปกติแล้วเราต้องเร่งสอนเนื้อหาให้ทันกันเวลาที่มีใน 1 เทอม ถ้าใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ เราก็ต้องใช้เวลามากขึ้นในการอธิบาย แค่ตอนนี้ใช้ภาษาไทยสอนเร็วๆแล้ว เนื้อหายังเหลือทุกปี"

"We have to teach as fast as we can to finish the content within one semester. If we use English, we have to use more time for explanation. Even using Thai, we still have some content left over every year."

<div align="right">(Teacher C)</div>

"หนังสือเรียนเด็กหนามาก ถ้าครูใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ เล่มหนึ่ง ๖ ปี ไม่รู้ว่าจะจบไหมเลย"

"The books are very thick. If we use English, it would take six years to finish a book."

<div align="right">(Teacher I)</div>

5.1.6 Examinations

i) The Focus on Grammar

Within the Thai curriculum, English examinations have a strong focus on grammar. The teachers (n=14) revealed that the topics taught in English classes mostly emphasise language structure. Because of this, students learn language by memorising vocabulary and grammatical rules in order to pass the exams. As some teachers stated:

"ข้อสอบทุกฉบับวัดเด็กที่ไวยากรณ์แทบทั้งนั้น พี่ก็ต้องช่วยเด็กให้สอบผ่านนะคะ ก็เลยต้องสอนภาษาไทยมากๆ ก็อย่างที่บอกเวลาสอนไวยากรณ์ก็จะหมายถึงการใช้ภาษาไทย"

"All exams evaluate grammar. I have to help my students pass the exams, so I have to teach them more grammar. As we discussed before, teaching grammar means using Thai."

<div align="right">(Teacher J)</div>

"ข้อสอบวัดไวยากรณ์ แล้วเราจะสอนอย่างอื่นนอกเหนือจากนั้นได้อย่างไร ก็คิดว่าภาษาไทยนี่จะเหมาะที่สุดในการสอนไวยากรณ์"

"The examinations are on grammar. How can we teach something other than grammar? I think Thai is the best language to use for grammar instruction."

<div align="right">(Teacher K)</div>

ii) The Grammar-based University Entrance Examinations

Closely related to the previous issue is that of university entrance. In Thailand, after finishing Year 12, students who want to attend government universities must take a university entrance examination. All Thai students are nervous about this. The

English examination, which forms part of the university entry assessment, focuses mostly on grammar and reading skills. Most of the secondary school teachers (n=8) interviewed said that their school's main concern was for students to be able to attend university and, as such, each teacher had been preparing students since Year 7. Therefore, due to the influence of the university examinations, all English classes have grammar-based instruction, and teachers feel that the use of Thai is more practical to meet this end. For example:

"นักเรียนต้องผ่านการสอนเข้ามหาวิทยาลัย เขาเชื่อว่ามันคือการตัดสินชีวิตของพวกเขาเลย และสิ่งที่เขาต้องการก็คือไวยากรณ์และก็การฝึกการอ่าน เขาต้องการคำอธิบายที่ละเอียด ถ้าครูใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในห้องเขาก็จะรู้สึกว่ามันไร้สาระ ข้อสอบเข้ามหาวิทยาลัยไม่ได้วัด ความ สามารถทางการพูดหรือการฟัง นักเรียนไม่สนใจหรอก"

"The students must pass the university entrance exam. They believe it judges their life. What they need is grammar and reading skills. They really want a clear explanation. If I use English in class, they feel it is nonsense. The university entrance examination doesn't test any speaking or listening skills. So, they don't care about those."

(Teacher J)

"ถ้าเราสอนอะไรที่นอกเหนือจากข้อสอบเข้ามหาวิทยาลัย เขาก็จะรู้สึกเหมือนว่าไม่ได้รับอะไรเลย ข้อสอบวัดโครงสร้าง เลยต้องใช้ภาษาไทยอธิบาย

"If we do something other than university entrance exam preparation in our teaching, they feel that they get nothing. The exam is based on grammar. Again, using Thai is the most appropriate."

(Teacher H)

5.1.7 Departmental Policies

i) The Lack of Encouragement for Using English

Most teachers said that the language to be used in the classroom was never discussed by their program supervisor. Further, as their departments do not have a policy about the use of English, they believe that the use of Thai is acceptable.

"หัวหน้าหมวดไม่เคยกำหนดเลยว่าต้องใช้ภาษาอะไร ถ้าถูกบังคับให้ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษก็คงต้องใช้มากขึ้น"

" My head of English department never mentioned language use in class. If she forced me to use English, I might try more."

<div align="right">(Teacher B)</div>

"ถ้ามีกฎว่าต้องพูดภาษาอังกฤษในห้องตลอดเวลา ครูก็จะต้องระวังภาษาที่ใช้มากขึ้น"

"If they have a rule about using English all the time, teachers might be more aware of their use of Thai."

<div align="right">(Teacher M)</div>

Summary

The teachers in the initial focus groups cited many reasons why they consider the use of English in their classrooms to be impractical or unsuitable. They reported that variables, such as their low proficiency in English and their anxiety about using it prevented their use of English. Moreover, most teachers emphasised other variables that played a key role in preventing them from using English which included factors relating to the students, such as, their low proficiency, their behaviour and the reasons they decided to study English in the first place. In addition, they asserted that other factors prevented them from using English, for instance, the examinations they were required to prepare their students for, including the university entrance examinations, which are grammar-based, and that the use of Thai is best for clarity in the presentation of grammar. The teachers also expressed opinions that large class sizes and mixed ability classrooms also prevented them from using English. Some other factors reported included the content of the curriculum and insufficient time, departmental policies and the students' age. Despite this, all the twenty teachers participating in this study generally agreed that the use of English by teachers is an

efficient way to promote their students' acquisition of English and, as such, presents something of a conundrum for English pedagogical practices in Thailand.

These findings represent the views of 20 teachers. It remains unclear, however, how representative these views are for Thai teachers in general. Therefore, a much larger survey was required. This was done using a questionnaire developed on the basis of the above responses. The data collected by questionnaire is described in the following section.

5.2 Results from Questionnaire Survey

The results of the questionnaire will be presented in the following sections. In Parts one and two of the questionnaire, 200 teachers responded to 60 belief statements about language use, using a four point Likert scale which ranged from Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Disagree (D), and Strongly Disagree (SD) (See Appendix C for questionnaire schedule). These responses were converted to numerical scores in the following way: SA – 4, A – 3, D – 2, SD – 1. From this a descriptive analysis of the data was conducted. The "strongly agree" and "agree" responses were considered as "Agreement". The "disagree" and "strongly disagree" were classified as "Disagreement". Part one of the questionnaire relates to the teachers' beliefs about the importance of using the target language. The frequency count of agreement for each statement was converted to a percentage. Part two concerns the factors that prevent teachers from using English which related to teachers, students, the classroom, the English curriculum and its content, examinations, and the departmental policies. In part two the participants' responses were calculated as mean percentages in order to find out the highest agreement: the higher the mean, the higher agreement. Scores greater than two represented agreement and scores less than two represented disagreement. Next a comparison was made between the teachers employed in the two different types of schools (public and private) and between teachers working at the two levels of schooling (primary and secondary). Multivariate analysis (MANOVA) was used to compare the findings. Post-hoc Scheffé tests ($p = .05$) on the univariate F-ratios were performed to determine any significant differences between the groups.

5.2.1 Result from the Questionnaire: Part One

The results of Part one of the questionnaire are concerned with the agreement or disagreement of the teachers (n=200) about the importance of using the target language in their classes. The frequency data were converted to percentage scores. The frequency data and the percentage score of agreement and disagreement are shown in table 5.1.

Table 5.1   The frequency data and percentage of respondents' scores on the importance of using the target language.

Statements	Agreement		Disagreement	
	SA	A	D	SD
	(n=200)			
Q1. Teachers should present new grammar to students in English.	28	85	69	18
	(56.5%)		(43.5%)	
Q2. I believe instruction in Thai has a limited place in the English classroom.	67	99	30	4
	(83%)		(17%)	
Q3. Announcements about administrative matters should be made in English.	21	78	83	18
	(50.5%)		(49.5%)	
Q4. Teachers should respond in Thai to student questions about course material.	26	90	71	13
	(58%)		(42%)	
Q5. It is difficult for students to understand grammar presented in English.	19	87	82	12
	(53%)		(47%)	
Q6. New English vocabulary should be presented using Thai translations.	29	71	77	23
	(50%)		(50%)	
Q7. Material about English culture should be presented in English.	26	110	53	11
	(68%)		(32%)	
Q8. I believe English teachers should avoid the use of Thai in their classrooms.	55	107	32	6
	(81%)		(19%)	
Q9. It is better for teachers to present difficult English concepts first in Thai.	61	72	54	13
	(66.5%)		(33.5%)	
Q10. Teacher should answer student questions about administrative issues in Thai.	31	98	59	12
	(64.5%)		(35.5%)	
Q11. Using Thai does not have a place in the English classroom.	19	75	96	10
	(47%)		(53%)	

Table 5.1 (continued)

Statements	Agreement		Disagreement	
	SA	A	D	SD
		(n=200)		
Q12. The teachers should present new vocabulary exclusively in English.	26	89	81	4
		(57.5%)		(42.5%)
Q13. Material about English culture should be presented in Thai.	15	71	99	15
		(43%)		(57%)
Q14. It is appropriate for English teachers to use Thai in their classroom if the instructor considers it important.	75	106	13	6
		(90.5%)		(9.5%)

The results of part one of the questionnaire indicated that most teachers (81%) believe that English language teachers should avoid using Thai in classes (question number 8). At the same time, however, they apparently believe that the use of mother tongue helps students to understand English. This is especially true with regard to grammar teaching and administrative issues, for example, 53% of teachers reported that it is difficult for students to understand grammar presented in English, and 64.5% of the teachers felt that they should answer student questions about administrative issues in Thai. Less than half of the teachers (47%) considered that instruction in Thai does not have a place in the English classroom. However, 90.5% believe that it is appropriate for teachers to use Thai when they consider it necessary.

5.2.2 Results from the Questionnaire: Part Two

Part two of the questionnaire relates to those reasons the teachers give for their target language avoidance. The multiple items, which evaluated the same construct, were computed and calculated together. All responses of the participants were also calculated as mean percentages with higher mean scores representing a high level of agreement. Table 5.2 presents these mean scores and the standard deviations obtained for the responses. The factors are presented in descending order.

Table 5.2   Mean percentage of response to reasons for avoiding using English

Factors	X	SD
Examinations focus on grammar	3.21	.55
Impracticable to use English in grammar instruction	3.14	.38
Large class size	3.13	.72
Low proficiency students	3.04	.52
Students' objective for studying language	3.02	.50
Inadequate knowledge from teachers' training	2.92	.41
Effect of teachers' own schooling on their classroom	2.78	.46
Teachers' poor language ability	2.76	.49
Students' young age	2.73	.54
Use of Thai for translation	2.62	.61
Manage students' discipline	2.59	.62
Departmental policies have never encouraged of English use	2.58	.46
Students' expectations that teachers will use Thai	2.54	.57
Too much content for the time available	2.48	.54
Mixed ability classes	2.45	.56
Fear of providing poor model	2.43	.58
English university entrance examinations focus on grammar	2.42	.68
Teachers' not confident with English language use	2.40	.59
Teachers' language anxiety	2.35	.54
Students' inadequate background knowledge	2.14	.51

From Table 5.2, it would seem that the strongest reason why Thai teachers avoid using the target language is because of the grammar-based tertiary entrance examinations. A mean score of 3.21 showed that the teachers agreed that the English exams evaluate students' grammar ability. Supporting this are results that indicate that the teachers believe it is easier for students to understand grammatical concepts by introducing them in Thai (X=3.14). Therefore, the teachers strongly agree there is a need to teach grammar, and they also believe that the best way to do so is through the use of Thai, not English.

Another reason for why target language is avoided and receiving a high level of agreement from the teachers is the large class size (X=3.13). That is to say they believe that they cannot use English with large class sizes.

Although receiving less overall support, the response to the factor of low proficiency student also seems to influence teachers' target language use. They

agreed that the students with low proficiency would not understand content that is introduced in English ($\overline{X}$=3.04) believing that the use of Thai is more feasible.

From the results it would appear that teachers believe that students' reasons for studying English influence whether or not they use English for instruction ($\overline{X}$=3.02). They agreed that most students' objectives for learning English were to pass the exams which were grammar-based. As teachers thought that it was impracticable to teach grammar in English, they favoured the use of Thai. They also believed that students learned English to improve their reading skills as opposed to listening and speaking skills, therefore, the use of English for instruction was not necessary. Further, the teachers believed that the translation method was the best way to teach reading.

The results also indicate that the teachers' background, specifically their training, plays an important role in their target language avoidance according to the teachers ($\overline{X}$=2.92). For example, the teachers indicated that in their professional development they have never been discouraged from using Thai, so they believed that it is suitable to use in class. However, they did agree that they had, in fact, been encouraged to use both English and Thai in their teaching. Furthermore, the results revealed evidence that, in their professional development programs, the teaching of language was emphasised over the teaching of grammar.

Other factors that influenced teachers' choice of language in class were the effects of their own schooling ($\overline{X}$=2.78). Teachers said that they tended to imitate the practices of those who had taught them and that they believed that their own language teachers were positive role models for their own teaching. Most indicated, however, that their own language teachers had used Thai for instruction in English. Ability in

English was also a factor in preventing some of the respondents from using English in language classroom. Teachers generally agreed that they were not confident in their ability to communicate in English ($\bar{X}$=2.76), they also believed that they were not fluent enough to teach their classes without using Thai. Although there was a general agreement on this point (greater than 2), this response was not as strong as others.

The age of the students was seen as another reason for using Thai rather than English ($\bar{X}$=2.73). Teachers believed that younger students were not capable of understanding lessons presented in English. Primary teachers in particular generally agreed that the use of Thai was more suitable.

Other factors receiving agreement on a preference for using Thai, though less strong than those presented above, included the use of Thai for translation when explaining new reading stories and new English vocabulary ($\bar{X}$=2.62); classroom management ($\bar{X}$=2.59); departmental policies ($\bar{X}$=2.58); and students' expectation that teachers use Thai for instruction ($\bar{X}$= 2.54).

Receiving a somewhat lower level of general agreement were factors including the large amount of the content to cover in a limited time ($\bar{X}$=2.48); mixed ability classrooms ($\bar{X}$=2.45); fear of providing a poor model ($\bar{X}$=2.43); the focus of English university entrance examinations on grammar ($\bar{X}$=2.42); teachers' lack of confidence with the use of English ($\bar{X}$=2.40); teachers' language anxiety ($\bar{X}$=2.35); and students' inadequate background knowledge ($\bar{X}$=2.14).

5.3.2.1 The Effect of Type and Level of Schooling

A comparison was made between the teachers' responses according to the level of the schools in which they taught (primary and secondary) and according to the type of school in which they were employed (private and public). The mean

percentage of responses were compared using multivariate analysis (MANOVA) of

the data. This is presented in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3   The significant difference between variables

Dependent Variable	df	F	Sig.
Teachers' language ability	3	2.893	.037*
Teachers' language anxiety	3	1.627	.184
Teachers' confidence of language use	3	1.424	.237
Teachers fear of providing a poor model	3	1.538	.059
Teachers' training	3	2.787	.042*
Effects of teachers' own schooling	3	4.475	.005*
Low proficiency students	3	.281	.839
Age of students	3	3.868	.010*
Student's bad behaviour	3	2.569	.056
Student's inadequate background knowledge	3	2.011	.114
Students' expectations	3	.179	.911
Students' reasons for studying English	3	.950	.417
Class size	3	1.370	.253
Mixed ability classroom	3	3.445	.018*
Grammar	3	1.239	.297
Translation	3	2.656	.050
Content and time	3	1.574	.197
Examination focus on grammar	3	1.977	.119
University entrance examination	3	13.513	.000*
Departmental policies	3	3.982	.009*

*Groups are significantly different at the .050 level

Overall the results showed that there was a significant difference between

teachers working in different schools and sectors for seven of the variables. These

included the teachers' language ability, the effects of teachers' own schooling, their

teacher training, the age of their students, mixed ability classrooms, university

entrance examinations, and departmental policies. To investigate these differences,

post-hoc Scheffé tests (p = .05) on the univariate F-ratios were performed. Table 5.4

shows these comparison between the four groups.

Table 5.4   Mean percentage of the variables which shows significant differences between groups

Factors	Primary Private Schools		Primary Public Schools		Secondary Private Schools		Secondary Public Schools	
	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD
Teachers' language ability	2.80	0.36	2.89*	0.53	2.61*	0.49	2.72	0.52
Teacher's training	3.05*	0.47	2.97	0.35	2.82	0.40	2.75*	0.39
Effects of teachers' own schooling	2.97*	0.38	2.68*	0.51	2.74	0.46	2.70	0.39
Age of students	2.83	0.57	2.87*	0.54	2.54*	0.51	2.69	0.72
Mixed ability classroom	2.64*	0.55	2.62*	0.58	2.30*	0.49	2.38*	0.57
University entrance examination	2.18*	0.49	2.11*	0.60	2.64*	0.67	2.71*	0.58
Departmental policies	2.50*	0.40	2.75*	0.44	2.50*	0.51	2.77*	0.44

*Groups are significantly different at the .050 level

This is represented diagrammatically in Figure 5.1 below

Figure 5.1   Diagram of mean percentage of the variables which show significant differences between group
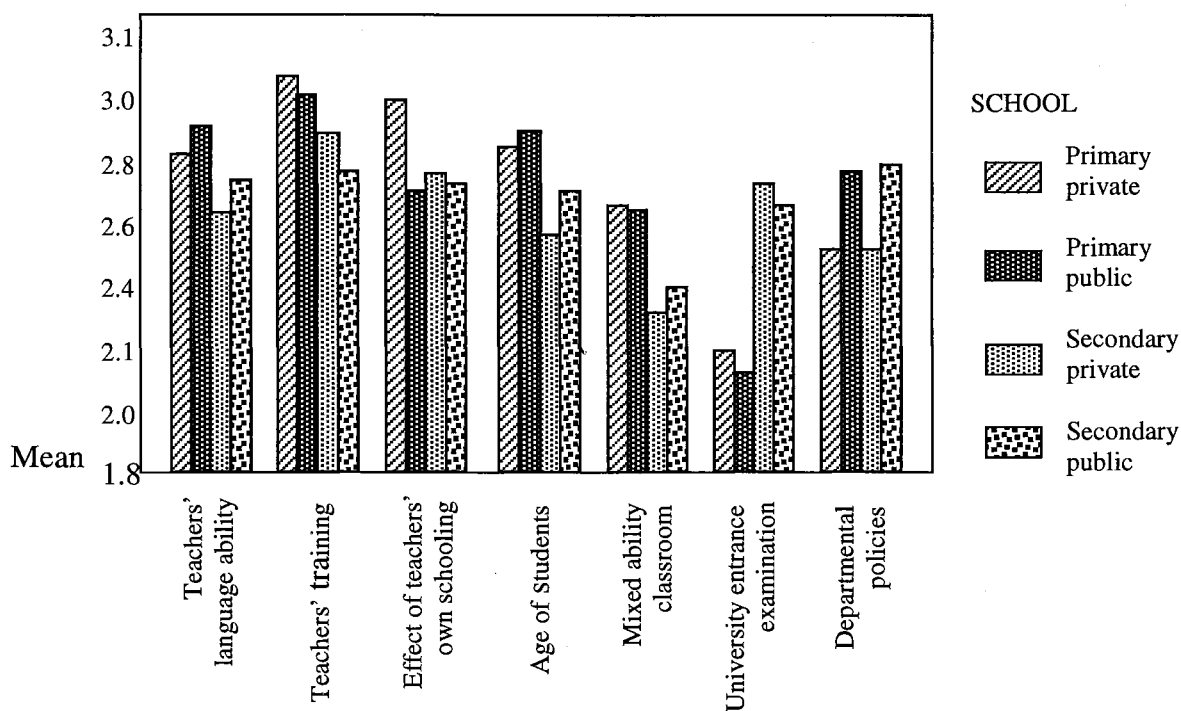
Results of the MANOVA show a significant difference ($p < .05$) between teachers' language ability and teachers working in different schools and sectors ($F=2.893$, df 3, $p=.037$). The post-hoc Scheffé test revealed the significant between primary public schools and secondary public schools. The teachers in primary public agreed more strongly with the statement regarding the influence of their low English language proficiency on language instruction (primary public $\overline{X}=2.89$, SD.= 0.53 versus secondary private $\overline{X}=2.61$, SD.=0.49).

Significant differences were also found between the teachers working in different sectors in relation to teachers' training ($F=2.787$, df=3, $p=.042$). The primary private school teachers agreed more strongly than did the group of secondary public teachers that in their own professional development, the teaching of language for communication was emphasised over the teaching of grammar, and that they had not been discouraged from using Thai in classroom instruction (primary private $\overline{X}=3.05$, SD.=0.47 versus secondary public $\overline{X}=2.75$, SD.=0.39).

They were significant differences between the effects of teachers' own schooling and groups of the teachers ($F=4.475$, df=3, $p=.005$). The result from post-hoc Scheffé test showed the significant occurred between teachers in primary private teachers and those in primary public schools. The primary private teachers, at $\overline{X}=2.97$, SD.=0.38 also had a higher level of agreement than did the teachers in primary public schools ($\overline{X}=2.68$, SD.=0.51) on the statement that they emulate the practice of their own teachers, and in doing so use Thai for their classroom instruction.

There were significant differences between the teachers in primary public schools and those in secondary private schools in respect of the influence of ages of the students ($F=3.868$, df=3, $p=.010$) The primary public teachers agreed more

strongly than did the group of secondary private (Primary public $\overline{X}$=2.87, SD.=0.53 versus secondary private $\overline{X}$=2.54, SD.=0.51), with regard to the statement that the use of Thai was required for young students.

With regard to question about mixed ability classrooms, significant differences were found (F=3.445, df=3, p=.018). It was revealed that the primary school teachers achieved a higher agreement score than the secondary school teachers to the statement that the mixed ability classroom effected the use of English in classes (primary private school $\overline{X}$=2.64, SD.=0.55, primary public school $\overline{X}$=2.62, SD.=0.58 versus secondary private $\overline{X}$=2.30, SD.=0.49 / secondary public $\overline{X}$=2.38, SD.=0.57).

Significant differences were also found (F=13.513, df=3, p=.000) with respect to the statement that the university entrance examination affects their use of English in classes. The post-hoc Scheffé test indicated the significant occurred between primary and secondary level teachers in both private and public schools. It showed that the secondary schools obtained significantly higher mean scores than did primary school levels (secondary private $\overline{X}$=2.64, SD.=0.67 / secondary public $\overline{X}$=2.71, SD.=0.58 versus primary private $\overline{X}$=2.18, SD. = 0.49 / primary public $\overline{X}$=2.11, SD.=0.60).

With regard to departmental policies, there were significant differences between the groups (F=3.982, df=3, p=.009). Specifically, the teachers in primary public and secondary public schools obtained the higher mean scores than those in primary private and secondary private school in the statement that their supervisors had never encouraged them to use English in classes (primary public $\overline{X}$=2.75, SD.=0.44 and secondary public $\overline{X}$=2.77, SD.=0.44 versus primary private $\overline{X}$=2.50, SD.=0.40 and secondary private $\overline{X}$=2.50, SD.=0.51).

5.2.3 Results from the Questionnaire: Part Three

In part three of the questionnaire, the teachers were asked open-ended questions. Only twenty-nine teachers answered the question "What would encourage you the use English in language classrooms?" This included primary private teachers, twelve primary public teachers, three secondary private teachers, and six secondary public teachers. None of the teachers answered the question "Do you have any further comments regard to language use by Thai teachers of English?" Table 5.5 is a summarise of the participants' responses.

Table 5.5   Responses of participants regarding the question about encourging of target language use

	Participants' responses	Primary Private	Primary Public	Secondary Private	Secondary Public
Preservice	More training in speaking and listening skills.	1	3	-	1
	Encourage the target language use in teaching.	-	4	1	-
Inservice	Travel in English-speaking countries	-	-	1	2
	Study in English-speaking countries for short term TESOL training	1	2	1	4
	Conversation classes with native speakers of English	1	3	-	-
	Visit schools in English-speaking countries to observe EFL teachers' classroom teaching.	2	1	-	3
	Seminar in improve teachers' own language ability.	3	2	1	1

As shown in table 5.5, teachers believe that the fundamental factor that would encourage English usage would be an improvement their English language

proficiency. Most of them suggested that the schools should implement teacher training to this end. Some also suggested that the schools should offer some form of scholarship for teachers to go aboard to an English-speaking country in order to develop their speaking ability. Others suggested that schools should provide the extra English classes for teachers to study under the instruction of native speakers, so that they can practice their oral English and in doing so reduce their language anxiety. Some typical responses were:

"โรงเรียนควรจะสนับสนุนครูโดยให้งบในการไปศึกษายังต่างประเทศเช่นอเมริกา อังกฤษ ออส เตรเลีย หรือนิวซีแลนด์"

"The school should support teachers to take some English courses in United States, England, Australia or New Zealand."

(Secondary public school teacher)

"โรงเรียนควรจัดหลักสูตรพิเศษในวิชาภาษาอังกฤษให้ครูผู้สอน โดยให้ชาวต่างชาติ มาสอนเกี่ ยวกับการพัฒนาทักษะการพูด"

"Schools should arrange an extra English course taught by Native speakers for teachers to improve speaking proficiency."

(Primary private school teacher)

Summary

From the survey of 200 Thai teachers of English, it would seem that teachers avoid using English because they "teach to the test", which, in the case of Thai schools, is the grammar-based examination. Therefore, the content of Thai English classes is focused mainly on grammar and this reduces the use of English.

Other reasons receiving a high level of support were large class sizes and the low proficiency of students. The teachers were also concerned about their own language ability. They felt that they required ways to help them develop their oral

language proficiency. This was particularly supported by the teachers' responses to the open-ended questions in the instrument. Thus, the results from this large-scale survey were slightly different from the first round interviews where much more emphasis was placed on teachers' language ability and teachers' language anxiety. To clarify these ideas the focus interviews for phase two were then conducted. These are described in following section.

5.3 Descriptive Results: Interview Phase Two

After the questionnaires were analysed, the results were presented to the original focus groups in order for them to discuss these and also to clarify the ideas that emerged from the first round interviews. Although researchers such as Best and Khan (1998) suggest that the anonymity of questionnaire will provide more truthful answers than interviewing, the respondents in the second phase focus group seemed to strongly disagree and suggested that the respondents of the questionnaire were not truthful and they suggested that this was because the respondents feared "loosing face". When the results were shown to the teachers, many were surprised. They maintained that they believed that the most important factor contributing to target language avoidance is the teachers' poor English language ability and language anxiety. The focus groups did not believe that the strongest reason was the examinations that focus on grammar. For example:

"ไม่น่าเป็นไปได้ ไม่จริง พวกเขาคงไม่ได้ตอบจากความรู้สึกจริงๆ ยังไงพี่ก็ยังมั่นใจว่า ปัญหา
หลักคือที่ตัวครูไม่สามารถพูดภาษาอังกฤษได้"
"It's not true…I don't think they answered you honestly, I still strongly agree
with the teachers that the lack of target language proficiency is the main
problem."

<div align="right">(Teacher J)</div>

They asserted that the questionnaire result was not the true reason and suggested that the result occurred because of Thai "style". They explained that Thai people rarely say something detrimental about themselves, particularly Thai teachers, as they like to protect their status as English teachers.

"เขาอาจจะปกป้องตัวเอง จริงๆแล้วถ้าเรามีความสามารถพอ เราก็ใช้ ภาษาอังกฤษสอนไวยา
กรณ์ก็ได้"

"They are protecting themselves, I think. Even teaching grammar you can use
English if you have enough ability."

<div align="right">(Teacher E)</div>

However, the focus group participants' claims might be the results of their

own need to save face. They may have been embarrassed that the widescale

questionnaire did not confirm their responses, and thus they may have constructed a

face-saving explanation in the presence of the researcher. Whether teachers do not

use the target language in the classroom because of embarrassment about their ability

(focus group) of because they were teaching to the test (questionnaire respondents) is

really not answerable. Even so, it would seen that both factors are shown as important

issues for target language avoidance by Thai teachers of English.

Besides, all of them agreed that although it was not the strongest reason, the

focus on grammar-based examinations was still hindering the use of oral English

usage. They acknowledged that every entrance examination to each school and

university, is based on grammar and that they are forced to use Thai to ensure

adequate learning. For example:

"เราไม่สามารถทำอะไรได้เลยกับข้อสอบที่วัดความเข้าใจทางไวยากรณ์ เป็นหน้าที่เราที่ต้อง
พยายามฝึกให้นักเรียนทำข้อสอบเข้าโรงเรียน และมหาวิทยาลัยประเภทนี้ได้"

"I cannot help it because of the grammar comprehension exam. We have to
prepare our students to familiar with the school and university entrance
examinations."

<div align="right">(Teacher F)</div>

Further, the groups conveyed the feeling that this problem would not be solved as the tradition of grammar focused exams was so entrenched in Thai educational systems.

"เมื่อพูดถึงข้อสอบ บอกได้เลยว่าเป็นการวัดไวยากรณ์ เป็นมานานแล้วตั้งแต่พี่อยู่ ป.๑ ก็ ๕๐ ปีได้ มันเป็นมานานมากแล้ว และก็คงไม่สามารถเปลี่ยนแปลงได้"
"When we are talking about English exams, they have been all about grammar rules since I was in Year 1, about 50 years ago. It is very firmly established and I don't think it can be changed."

<div align="right">(Teacher T)</div>

Yet, according to the 1996 curriculum, English teaching and learning methods in Thailand should have changed. In the curriculum documentation, the emphasis is on communicative approaches that develop proficiency in oral skills. For this reason, therefore, the examination, as well as teaching methodology should focus on interpersonal interaction between teachers and students in the target language. Despite this, all the teachers claimed that they still teach as they did ten years ago when the grammar-translation method and audiolingualism was advocated. This is clearly illustrated in the following excerpts from the second focus group transcriptions:

"ก็เคยได้ยินเหมือนกันนะ แล้วมันเป็นอย่างไรเหรอ แล้วที่ว่า Communicative approach คือ ออะไร ครูอาจไม่รู้ด้วยซ้ำว่าคืออะไร อย่างพี่นะก็พี่ก็ยังใช้วิธีสอนแบบเก่าๆที่เน้นไวยากรณ์อยู่ดี"
"I heard about that....so what is the point? What is the communicative approach? I don't think Thai teachers know much about it. And for me, I'm using the grammar-based approach as I always have for seven years."

<div align="right">(Teacher G)</div>

"เพราะดีค่ะ Communicative แต่เราจะใช้ได้ยังไงกับห้องเรียนที่มีเด็ก ๕๐ คน แล้ววิธีไหนห
ล่ะคะที่ดีที่สุด พี่ก็ยังใช้การสอนเน้นไวยากรณ์อยู่ดี เพราะนักเรียนจะได้ไม่ต้องพูดมากจะได้ไม่
ต้องคุมความประพฤติกันมาก ไม่เห็นจะมีใครสนใจเลยว่าเราสอนแบบไหน ข้อสอบเข้ามหาวิท
ยาลัยก็ยังเป็นไวยากรณ์ ลองเขาเปลี่ยนข้อสอบซิ เราอาจจะเปลี่ยนวิธีสอน"

"That is a good word 'Communicative' but can we do this in our classes of 50
students? So what is the right method? I still use the translation and grammar-
based approach where students don't have to talk so much, it's easy for me to
manage the class, too. Who cares what approach you use with your students?
The university examination is still based on grammar. If they change the exam
style, we might change the way we teach students."

<div align="right">(Teacher M)</div>

"ก็หลักสูตรเท่านั้นแหละที่เปลี่ยนไม่ใช่ตัวครู อย่างที่โรงเรียนเหมือนกันก็เปลี่ยนหนังสือเรียนเด็
กทุกขั้นเลย เป็นหนังสือดีมากเลยเขาเน้นเลยว่าสำหรับภาษาอังกฤษเพื่อการสื่อสาร คู่มือครูกิจ
กรรมเพียบ แต่รู้ไหม พวกพี่เก่งกว่าคนทำตำราอีก เราเปลี่ยนวิธีสอนเป็นแบบเราๆ ที่ครูเป็นศู
นย์กลาง และก็เน้นไวยากรณ์เหมือนเดิม แล้วก็ใช้ภาษาไทยในการสื่อสาร"

"Only the curriculum has been changed, not the teachers. In our school, we
just changed the textbooks for each level. Those books are guided by an
introduction in which they say they are the best for developing communicative
skill, the teacher's books are full of guidelines for target language usage and
also oral activities. Guess what? We, teachers, are very smart. We can teach
using those kind of books in our own way…the teacher-directed or teacher-
centred, whatever. And of course, we use Thai for communication."

<div align="right">(Teacher Q)</div>

Therefore it would seem that even 1996 curriculum alone cannot encourage
Thai teachers of English to use the target language in their classes. However, the
teachers made several suggestions about things that might promote target language
use in classes. These included developing the teachers' English language proficiency;
the implementation of an English-only policy in the class, in conjunction with giving
the English department supervisor more power to enforce the implementation of this
policy; supportive colleagues; opportunities for working with native-speakers; and
improved pre-service programs.

All the teachers in the focus groups agreed that if they were proficient enough in English, they would feel more comfortable using the target language in classes. As with the written responses on the questionnaire, some teachers suggested that schools should provide English courses for Thai English teachers so that they may improve their oral English ability. Also, in accord with the written questionnaire responses, some suggested that the opportunity to go abroad would assist them to develop more ideas about using English in the classroom. For instance, one teacher said:

"ทำไมไมลองส่งเราไปอังกฤษดูซัก ๒ หรือ ๓ เดือน เราจะได้เข้าใจ วัฒนธรรม แถมยังได้ ประสบการณ์ด้วย"
"Why don't they send us to England for a couple of months so we can understand their culture and gain some experience?"

<div align="right">(Teacher E)</div>

"ถ้าเราได้ครูฝรั่งมาสอนเราให้ออกเสียงคำ และก็พวกการสนทนาต่างๆก็จะดี เราก็จะได้เอาไป ใช้พูดกับเด็กในห้องเรียนบ้าง"
"If we have a native speaker teaching us how to pronounce the words and how to communicate in English, I think we would use English in classes more often."

<div align="right">(Teacher D)</div>

and another said:

"ถ้าเรามีผู้เชี่ยวชาญทางภาษาอังกฤษ มาช่วยฝึกเราในการใช้ภาษา เราก็คงจะรู้สึกดีขึ้น"
"If we could practice our knowledge all the time with the 'experts', we will be sure of ourselves and feel more comfortable using English."

<div align="right">(Teacher N)</div>

Some of the teachers suggested that it would be helpful if schools had a policy in all foreign language classes to exclusively use the target language for instruction. As some teachers explained:

"ถ้าครูใหญ่บอกว่าให้ใช้แต่ภาษาอังกฤษในห้องเรียน แบบ ๑๐๐ เปอร์เซนต์เลย ก็คงต้องพยาย
ามเพราะเราก็ยังไม่อยากตกงาน"

"If the principal says that the target language must be used 100% in foreign
language classes I would think I have to try my best... I don't want to lose my
job."

(Teacher B)

"ต้องมีกฎว่าให้ครูและนักเรียนใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ "ห้ามไทยเด็ดขาด" นักเรียนก็กลัวสอบตก ครู
ก็กลัวโดนไล่ออก ถ้าไม่ทำ"

"We should have rules for all teachers and students that in foreign language
classroom that is 'No Thai'. Students don't want to fail and teachers don't
want to be fired, right?"

(Teacher R)

Many of the focus group teachers indicated that the situation was very

dependent on the head of the English department. Some teachers claimed that if their

supervisors were not good at English, it became very difficult for them if they

encountered problems with regard to language usage as there was no one they could

go to for advice. Some argued that their supervisor should be a native English

language speaker who would help them develop their oral skills. This is demonstrated

in the following quote:

"ถ้าเรามีปัญหาก็อยากจะมีที่ปรึกษาดีๆ ถ้าหัวหน้าหมวดเป็นฝรั่งก็คงจะดี เพราะจะได้ช่วยแก้
ข้อ ผิดพลาด และช่วยแก้ปัญหาเวลาที่เราติดได้ ที่สำคัญเราก็ต้องสื่อสารกันเป็นภาษาอังกฤ
ษ ก็เป็นการเริ่มที่ดีเหมือนกันนะ"

"When I have some problem, I think I would like to have some advise. It
would be great if the head of my department was a native speaker, then she
could correct all my mistakes and help me when I get stuck with the language.
And of course, I would have to talk with her in English. That would be a good
start."

(Teacher L)

However, others felt that the issue of a native speaker supervisor was less important, so long as the person can provide assistance as required. For example:

"หัวหน้าหมวดสำคัญนะ ถ้าเขาไม่เป็นผู้นำการใช้กฎที่เราวางไว้เกี่ยวกันการใช้ภาษาอังกฤษใน
ห้อง ครูก็จะไม่มีแรงจูงใจ แล้วกฎก็ถูกลืม พี่ว่าไม่ค่อยจำเป็นนะว่าหัวหน้าหมวดจะเป็นไทยหรี
อฝรั่ง ขอแค่ให้ช่วยเหลือเราได้บ้างก็พอ"

"The supervisor is important, if she doesn't enforce an 'English only' policy herself then, all teachers would not have the motivation to use English. So this policy would be forgotten. For me, it doesn't matter, if the supervisor is a native speaker of English or Thai as long as she can assist me when I need help."

(Teacher A)

Even so, many felt that practice at using English in "pretend" situations was not the same as facing real ones. They asserted that it might be helpful for their own English language development if they could work with native speakers. They suggested that schools hire more native speakers for teaching English and assign all Thai English teachers to work with them. For instance, one teacher said:

"เราไม่ได้ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในสถานการณ์จริงๆ ถึงแม้จะเรียนในห้องกับฝรั่งก็ตาม มันเหมือนว่า
เราจะต้องนั่ง ท่องจำ pattern ที่เขาสอน เรารู้ว่าเราต้องตอบแบบนี้นะ เพราะเขาสอนเราเรื่อ
งนี้อยู่ เราเตรียมคำตอบไว้ได้ มันไม่ใช้สถานการณ์จริง แต่ถ้าเราได้ทำงานกับฝรั่งจริงๆก็คงดี"

" We never face the real situation. Even when we study in class with a native speaker, I feel like we have to remember the grammatical patterns that she teaches us each day. Then we can prepare ourselves in order to answer her questions. It's not real. If we had a chance to work with a native speaker everyday, it would be great."

(Teacher T)

and another:

"ถ้าเราได้ทำงานกับฝรั่งก็จะเป็นวิธีที่ดีที่จะพัฒนาภาษาอังกฤษของเรา"

"Working with a native speaker might be a good way to improve teachers' language ability. It must help."

(Teacher Q)

In addition, other teachers suggested that it was not only the supervisor who had an important role to play in teachers' target language use, but also their colleagues. Some teachers claimed that at times they felt bad when they tried to speak English because other teachers laughed at them. They felt that if they had some colleagues who were supportive, they would feel more comfortable.

"เพื่อนร่วมงานควรที่จะจริงใจ อย่าหัวเราะเวลาเราหน้าแตก บางทีเราก็ไม่ได้ต้องการ คนปลอบตลอดเวลาเพียงแค่ไม่ต้องหัวเราะเยาะ เราก็จะกล้าใช้ภาษาอังกฤษมากขึ้น"

"Teachers should be sincere and not ridicule other teachers' mistakes. You don't want someone to sympathise with you when you say something wrong, but don't laugh at us. That way we will feel comfortable using the target language."

(Teacher G)

Some claimed that it would be an advantage to work with other teachers when preparing lessons. They believe that if they could discuss their problems with colleagues this support for each other would be extremely beneficial.

"จะดีมากเลยถ้าทำงานร่วมกัน จะได้ช่วยกันคิดกิจกรรม แล้วก็ช่วยกันคิดว่าจะ พูดภาษาอังกฤษยังไงกับเหตุการณ์นั้นๆ"

"It would be great if we could work together. We could help each other to think about the activities, sometimes we could assist each other with the use of the target language."

(Teacher C)

Many of the focus group teachers indicated that the pre-service program for teachers played an important role in influencing their use of English. Teachers claimed that they had never experienced being taught in English or having to speak it in front of a class. Some teachers argued that if they had had a chance to practice this

skill, they would be more confident and feel more comfortable using the target language. They felt that if this had occurred during their training and was combined with their course supervisor promoting the use of the target language in classes, they would have more awareness of the language and try to use English more often e.g.,

"พี่รู้สึกแย่และเสียใจมากเลยที่ตอนเรียนมหาวิทยาลัย ครูพี่ไม่เคยให้ฝึก พูดภาษาอังกฤษ หน้า ห้องเรียนเลย ไม่เคยให้ฝึกพูดกับเพื่อนๆด้วย พี่ว่าถ้าเราได้ฝึกตั้งแต่เด็กๆก็คงจะดี"

"I feel really sorry that my professors in the teacher training program in the university never let me practice speaking English in front of the class or even to communicate with my friends. I think it is easier if you start practising this skill when you are young."

(Teacher R)

"อาจารย์ตามมหาวิทยาลัยต่างๆควรที่จะเน้นและก็ให้โอกาสพวกนักศึกษาฝึกสอนใช้ภาษาอังก ฤษในการสอนเยอะๆ แต่มันสายไปเสียแล้วสำหรับพี่ ไว้คอยเด็กรุ่นใหม่ๆละกัน"

"The university professors should encourage and give more opportunities for pre-service teachers to practice using English for communication. But it's too late for me now, maybe for the next generation."

(Teacher M)

Summary

The results from the second round interviews showed that the focus group teachers disagreed with results from the questionnaire survey, which indicated that the strongest reason Thai English teachers did not use English is because of grammar focused exams. They felt that the factors which hindered the use of the target language were the teachers' target language proficiency and their language anxiety. The teachers offered many suggestions as to how to encourage the use of the target language. These included professional development to improve teachers' English language ability; the implementation of an "English only" policies in schools; changes in supervision; the encouragement to work co-operatively; and more practice using English in pre-service programs.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to describe the factors that prevent Thai teachers of English from using English in their classrooms. The study used two data collection instruments to gain information about the target language avoidance: focus group interviews and questionnaires. This chapter discusses the results reported in Chapter 5.

From an analysis of the data, certain patterns related to the teachers' beliefs and practices regarding the use of English and Thai emerged. The 220 Thai teachers of English who participated in this study generally agreed that they should teach by using the target language. They viewed the use of English as the most efficient way to promote their students' acquisition of that language. At the same time, however, they also agreed that it was best to use Thai, rather than English, for particular classroom activities, such as the teaching of grammar, vocabulary, reading, writing, and for some administrative purposes. They also cited many reasons why they considered the use of English to be impractical in their classroom.

Although there was a general consistency about causes of target language avoidance, the emphasis varied in the data collected from focus group discussions and that collected by way of questionnaires. Data obtained from the focus group interviews demonstrated that teachers avoided using English because of their poor target language proficiency and their anxiety in using English. They claimed that they did not have the ability to use English for communication and that this caused anxiety when speaking English in front of their students.

Most teachers were well aware of the focus on grammatical proficiency in the university entrance examinations. Because of this, they emphasised the need for clarity when teaching grammar. In the teachers' opinion, however, clarity for most students was only achievable by using Thai. They felt that the complexity of English grammar would not be understood if it was taught in the target language.

6.1 Target Language Avoidance by Thai Teachers of English

An analysis of the data collected for the present study revealed a number of factors underlying Thai teachers' avoidance of English in their classrooms. These include: teachers' self awareness (low level of language proficiency, language anxiety, lack of confidence in the target language, fear of providing poor model); teachers background experience (the effect of teachers' own schooling on their classroom practice, inadequate teacher training); issues pertaining to the students (low level of language proficiency, students' age, students' inadequate background knowledge, students' expectations teachers using Thai, and students' own reasons for studying English); classroom management (large class size, mixed ability classes, and bad behaviour); examinations (the focus on grammar, and the grammar-based university entrance examination); content (grammar content, translating difficult content, too much content for the time available); and departmental policies (the lack of encouragement within the English language department for using English).

6.1.1 Teachers' Self Awareness

i) Teachers' English Language Proficiency

All teachers in the focus group interviews claimed to have poor English proficiency resulting in high levels of anxiety about their language use. This was identified as one of the primary factors influencing Thai teachers' avoidance of English in their classrooms. On the large-scale questionnaire, teachers agreed with this; however, the weight of opinion identified the grammar-based examinations to be the main cause of target language avoidance. As shown above in the second phase focus groups, it was suggested that the reason for this difference might be cultural, that is, that Thai people do not want to loose face, and have difficulty expressing any deficiency in their teaching skills. This is particularly true for teachers who are well aware of their position as role models. If they acknowledged any lack of ability in English, this would have serious consequences for their careers. They would lose face in front of their students, their colleagues, their school principals and even in front of the researcher.

On the other hand, it may be that the teachers are bound by the responsibility of preparing students for exams which are known to test grammatical proficiency. For this reason, they would want to ensure their students' understanding of grammar rules by whatever means possible. Under these circumstances they might disregard their own poor language ability.

However, in response to the open ended questions in part three of the questionnaire, all teachers indicated that the enhancement of their English skills would encourage them to use the target language more in classes. This suggested that teachers were basically concerned about their poor English language proficiency.

This result is supported by the findings of other researchers (Allen & Valette, 1977; Brosh, 1996; F. Chambers, 1991; G. Chambers, 1992; Dickson, 1996; Harbord, 1992; Horwitz, 1996; Medgyes, 1983; Medgyes, 1986; Medgyes, 1992; Medgyes, 1996; Reves & Medgyes, 1994).

The reason for teachers' poor English language proficiency may be partially explained by the teacher training selection process in Thailand. It may also be explained by the status of teachers in Thailand. Generally, those students who choose to enter teacher collages have achieved lower tertiary entrance scores in the National University Entrance Examination. Information from the Ministry of University Affairs (1999a) has revealed that candidates who achieved scores of 55% or above could enrol in the Faculty of Education. By contrast, scores of 62.5% were required to study in the Faculty of Mass Communication and 82.5% to enrol in the Faculty of Arts (Literature). Frequently, a career in education is the last choice of prospective university students (Office of the National Education Commission, 1999). This is partly attributable to the position of teachers in Thai society and to the fact that teachers in Thailand get lower salaries than other professions (Hayes, 1996).

Information from the National Statistical Office (1998) shows that salaries for teachers remain at a low level. For example, new teachers graduating with a Bachelors' degree are paid 6,530 Baht[2] per month, while a secretary, with a lower Bachelor's degree, earns 7,119 Baht per month. Other examples of careers requiring a Bachelors' degree, and which earn more than teachers, include accountants at 12,301 Baht per month, human resource officers at 12,488 Baht per month and even salespeople who can earn 13,999 Baht per month. As a result, for those with a high

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[2] AUS$ 1 = 23 Baht in November 2000

level of English language proficiency, there are better-paid careers available and as a consequence, may teachers in Thailand are in the education field by default.

Although financial recompense is not the only motivaty factor for teachers, it does mean that due to their low-level salaries, it is also difficult for teachers (both motivationally and financially) to take courses to improve their English. Those teachers whose English proficiency does improve then may be attracted to other professions as their skill is better recognised financially outside the classroom (Office of the Rajabhat Institutes Council, 1998).

This is a difficult problem for English education in Thailand. It is a situation that can only be addressed if the status of teaching and the entrance requirements for study in education are challenged. To attract high calibre teachers, the entrance requirements for students in teaching colleges need to be raised. Moreover, the government needs to implement regulations that require teachers to gain appropriate qualifications. However, even though this may act as disincentive for teachers to go into the teaching school, it would have long-term benefits for education Thailand.

ii) Teachers' Language Anxiety

All teachers from the focus group interviews agreed that language anxiety was a primary problem. The teachers said they felt anxious when they had to teach in English. Even so, the data from the questionnaires suggests that anxiety would only slightly affect teachers' use of English. It may be that questionnaire respondents have never faced such a situation. For example, one teacher who responded negatively to the statement, "I am not afraid of making mistakes when I speak in English", suggested she rarely spoke English anyway:

"ข้าพเจ้าใช้ภาษาอังกฤษเพียงแค่ออกเสียงเมื่ออยู่ในห้องเรียนเท่านั้นจึงไม่รู้สึกกลัวว่าจะผิดพลา

ด เพราะได้เตรียมตัวมาก่อนล่วงหน้า แล้วข้าพเจ้าคิดว่าข้าพเจ้าไม่เคยมีโอกาสที่จะกลัวไม่ใช่

เฉพาะ แต่ตัวข้าพเจ้า ครูท่านอื่นๆก็เช่นกัน ข้าพเจ้ามั่นใจว่า ครูทั่วไปไม่มีโอกาสที่ จะพูดภา

ษาอังกฤษมาก จนกระทั่งรู้สึกกดดัน เพราะเมื่อเขารู้สึกกลัวหรือกดดันก็สามารถที่จะหยุดพูดแ

ละใช้ภาษาไทยแทน ข้าพเจ้าไม่มั่นใจว่าตอบถูกประเด็นหรือไม่"

"I use English only for pronouncing some English words in classes, so I have never felt afraid of making mistakes as I am well prepared. I never have a chance to be afraid, not only me, I'm sure all teachers do not have a chance to speak English that much to make them feel anxious because if they start to feel anxious or afraid they can stop and switch to Thai. I'm not sure about my answer to this question."

(Primary public teacher)

However, the impact of language anxiety and target language use has also been observed by Horwitz (1992; 1993; 1996) who noted that teachers with high levels of language anxiety tend to use the target language less in the classroom.

6.1.2 Teachers Background Experience

i) The Effects of Teachers' Own Schooling on Their Classroom Practice

In the focus group interviews, the participants were asked what their own language teachers at school had done and how it affected their practice now. Some teachers revealed that their own language teachers had engaged in many classroom behaviours that are now considered undesirable. They recalled an emphasis on rote-learning vocabulary, along with the deductive presentation of the rules of English grammar. They also noted that their own teachers did not use a communicative approach, in fact, they had never heard their teachers use English for communication in class. This, they claimed, has impacted on their own inability to communicate in English. If the teachers' own learning experiences have involved emphasis on

grammar instead of on communication skills, it is perhaps not surprising that they feel their own classrooms should be conducted in the same way even though some deemed this to be "undesirable". This finding is supported by Grossman (1990) and Freeman (1994) who proposed that teachers often trace the evolution of their classroom practices to the way in which they themselves were taught. Similarly, Bailey (1996) claims that "we teach as we have been taught rather than we have been trained to teach" (p.11).

ii) Inadequate Teacher Training

Fourteen teachers in the focus group interviews, as well as 73% of responses in the questionnaire, noted that the lack of professional development opportunities affects their use of English in the classroom. Tedick and Walker (1994) contend that pre-service teachers need to be taught how to instruct in the target language. However, the teachers in this study reported that their training was largely theoretical and lacking in sufficient opportunities to practice their teaching. They also revealed that their training emphasised the grammar-based, translation approach, to language instruction rather than the communicative approach.

The results of this study reveal that Thai teachers agree their initial teacher-training to be of little advantage in their classroom experiences. Hayes (1996) also found that his Thai interviewees felt their training program was not relevant to their practice. This may be due to the curriculum in universities which in practice does not emphasise the communicative approach. In fact, while the Faculties of Education in all Thai universities offer courses for English language improvement in all four macro skill areas, as well as the theory of language teaching, very few offer instruction in second language teaching methods (Chiengmai University, 2000b;

Kasetsart University, 1999; Rajabhat Institute Chandrakasem, 1999; Srinakharinwirot University, 2000b).

Senior university students are required to do English teaching practicums and are assigned to schools for one semester. Each student works in a school under the responsibility of a practising teacher who acts as their trainer. The student's supervisor from university also observes his/her progress once a month. While this monitoring system is common practice in many countries, in Thailand it actually perpetuates the current system, as more often than not the model the students follow is non-communicative and grammar based, and, more importantly, with Thai as the language of instruction.

The problem is further complicated for primary teachers who are normally trained under a "Primary Education" program. This requires them to learn to teach all subjects, including English (Chiengmai University, 2000a; Rajabhat Institute, 2000; Srinakharinwirot University, 2000a). However, little distinction is made between the teaching methodologies for different subject areas. Primary trained English teachers do not received adequate English language input. From the data presented it seems that the teacher training program in Thailand needs to provide Thai teachers of English with role models which encourage them to use English for instruction. Moreover, it should allow them opportunities to practise a communicative teaching approach. In addition, pre-service English professors need to provide effective models of English use for their students. Also, the English teaching program for pre-service teachers should not distinguish training in "Primary Education" and "Secondary Education", at least with regard to Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) methodology. By doing so the trainee teachers could receive a

more in-depth understanding of specific English teaching approaches. If this is done in the target language the trainees would also acquire more English language input themselves, and such an approach would provide a positive model for English language usage, rather than target language avoidance, as is the current situation.

6.1.3 Issues Pertaining to the Students

i) Low Level of Language Proficiency

When dealing with students with low proficiency, the teachers said that they must use Thai to present the material. They believed that these students could not understand lessons presented in English unless they received a great deal of additional help from the teacher in Thai. This finding is consistent with the research of Atkinson (1987), Franklin (1990) and Rollmann (1994).

The teachers also generally agreed that low proficiency students have difficulty understanding the lesson, even when Thai is used. The teachers felt that it would be time consuming if they only use the target language for instruction. (Also see section 5.1.3).

ii) Students' Age

The teachers in this study, particularly those of primary levels in both private and public schools, saw the need to use Thai as the language of instruction for younger students. They believed that these students had particular difficulty in understanding lessons presented in English. Thus, the age of the class was a further determining factor in the use of Thai in English language classes. This influence was greater among the lower aged students, particularly those in Year 1. Teachers attributed the need to instruct in Thai to the younger students' inexperience with

language in general and specifically to their inexperience with English (especially in its printed form) within the wider community. Therefore, this is not the problem with their proficiency per se, it relates as much to the students' language background as it does their age.

It is possible that some of the teachers in primary schools had a degree in "English teaching" rather than "Primary Education". "English teaching" courses in universities in Thailand generally train pre-service teachers to teach in secondary schools. Pre-service teachers in "Primary Education" programs, on the other hand, are trained to teach Mathematics, Social Sciences, Sciences, Art, the Thai language as well as the English language (Chiengmai University, 2000a; Chiengmai University, 2000b; Rajabhat Institute, 2000; Srinakharinwirot University, 2000a; Srinakharinwirot University, 2000b). As a result, teachers with an "English teaching" degree might have difficulty with primary levels because they have not been trained to teach such young students.

iii) Students' Expectations for Teachers Using Thai

The teachers in this study reported that their choice of language for instruction was also dependent on the students' expectations. Teachers agreed that students felt satisfied when lessons were introduced in Thai since they could understand the content in detail. This supports the findings by Atkinson (1987), Franklin (1990) and Rollmann (1994) which point out that students prefer that their teachers include some of the first language in their instruction.

According to the results from the questionnaire, however, the student expectations did not appear to affect the teachers' use of Thai or English in the class in this study. Some teachers, who reported that their students preferred them to use

English for instruction, still used Thai to introduce grammar lessons. On the other hand, some teachers, who claimed that their students expected them to use Thai in class, used English for instruction. This contradiction seems to diminish the importance of this as a contributing factor in teachers' target language avoidance.

iv) Students' Objectives and Attitudes Toward Language Study

In the focus group interviews, the teachers argued that the students' reasons for learning English affected their use of English. The teachers felt that their students did not pay attention to content other than grammar. This suggests that most students are motivated by the need to pass the grammar-based exams. Therefore, whether the teachers use Thai or English might be dependent on the students' motivation. Many language education researchers have noted difficulties encountered by teachers in their attempts to use the target language consistently in their instruction because of student resistance to such language use. Garden (1996) observes that many teachers consider target language use problematic because of students' low motivation for language study and lack of interest in language learning, a belief echoed by Savignon (1991). Guthrie (1984; 1987) also proposes that teaching assistants reserve their use of the target language for those purposes least likely to disrupt the continued functioning of the class, a view that Nerenz and Knop (1982) support for secondary language classes.

Several teachers considered their students incapable of understanding English, and attributed this to anxiety, disinterest, or lack of language ability. Students' own willingness to accept the use of English as the language of instruction is an important consideration. This creates something of a vicious circle. Teachers do not use English because it is unintelligible for their students. These students themselves require

instruction in Thai, but by doing so they can never achieve proficiency in English. This perpetual cycle seems omnipresent in much of Thai English teaching and learning, and presents a major obstacle for change in this area of pedagogy.

6.1.4 Classroom Management

i) Large Class Size

Most schools in Thailand have approximately 50 to 60 students in each class. Teachers in the focus groups and questionnaire surveys identified large class size as an important reason for not using the target language as a medium of instruction. This is similar to findings by Franklin (1990). In Franklin's research, 82% of respondents suggested that the large class size made it difficult for them to use the target language.

Discussions with teachers in the first round of interviews highlighted their concerns about the large numbers of students in their classes. They reported that when they carried out communicative activities with the whole class, many students did not pay attention. This in turn leads to disciplinary problems as the teachers feel it is impossible to manage large classes while they were using English. Thus, it would seem that Thai teachers, therefore, avoid using English, not because of the large class size, but because of the resultant difficulties with student behaviour.

ii) Mixed-ability Classroom

The data show that teachers believe mixed ability classes to be an impediment to teaching through the medium of the target language. This supports research by Mitchell (1988) and Franklin (1990) whose participants in those studies agreed that the realities of mixed ability classes make the use of the target language impossible.

The teachers reported mixed ability classes to be a problem due to the presence of low proficiency students. They agreed that they could not use English because these students would not understand the lesson and would behave badly. This is the same dilemma as the mixture of low proficiency students and behaviour discussed above. It is a cyclic problem where one thing leads to another and back to the same problem (as shown in Figure 6.1 below) and it is difficult to find a solution which will break the pattern.

Figure 6.1   The cyclic problem

and
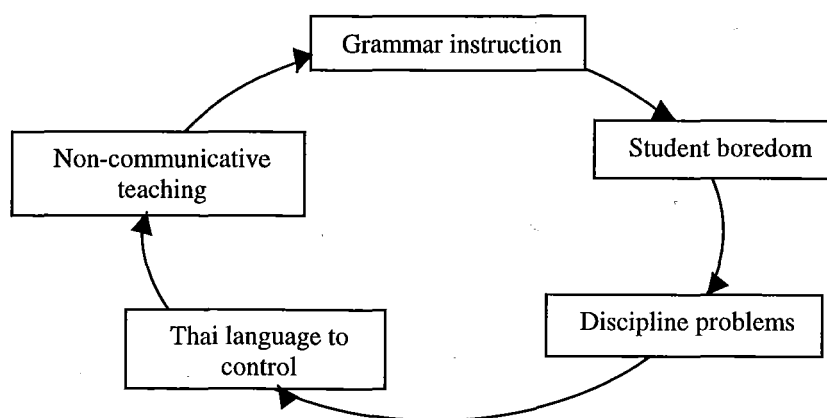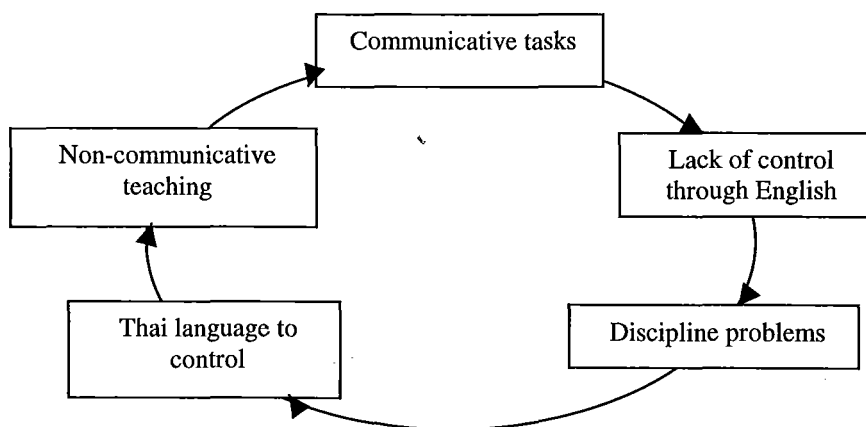
iii) Bad Behaviour

One of the other reasons that teachers gave for using Thai in class is to manage students' behaviour, particularly with low proficiency students, as discussed above. Teachers identified the need to discipline in Thai. This is supported by Franklin (1990) who has also shown that teachers found it difficult to use the target language to manage classes.

The teachers also generally agreed that low proficiency students could not be trusted to work with other students. For instance, they felt that the students, in fact, would behave badly if asked to work in pairs. However, it may be that the problem lies not with the students and their ability, but rather with the teachers. It is quite possible that teachers with good classroom control would not find low ability students a problem. Unfortunately the survey data cannot prove or disprove this hypothesis. However, it is clear that, for many teachers, students with low level of proficiency pose a serious threat to the use of English as the medium of instruction.

The problem of students' behaviour is difficult to address. In many ways it can be a reflection of the teachers' practices, rather than simply the inherent qualities of the students. This may be particularly so in the case of Thai teachers, some of whom are both unqualified and untrained. But even where teachers are qualified, the type of lessons and teaching approaches, such as the grammar-translation method, may be less than interesting for the students and may actually cause discipline problems. This suggests the need for a methodology which motivates students. One such approach is "Communicative Language Teaching" which focuses on individualised learning, paired activities and group work. This approach actively involves the students in their own learning, and as a consequence is more motivating

for them (Harmer, 1998). This methodology is actually promoted in the Thai curriculum (Department of Curriculum and Instruction Development, 1996) (see Chapter two for more details), but despite this, teachers are not employing these methods. Amongst other reasons, they feel that they cannot with the large student numbers they teach and because of their perception about potential discipline problems.

<div align="center">6.1.5 Content</div>

i) Grammar Content

The importance of teaching grammar and the appropriate language of instruction for this was consistently mentioned throughout the focus group interviews and in the questionnaire responses. 14 of the 20 focus group teachers saw the need for using Thai when teaching grammar. Questionnaire responses generally agreed with this. In the teachers' view, it was impractical to use the target language in a grammar lesson, as they believe that the content is difficult to explain in English and students might not understand clearly.

Target language use when teaching grammar has also been addressed by Dickson (1996), Duff and Polio (1990), Harbord (1992), Mitchell (1988), Morris (1997), Polio and Duff (1994) and Wing (1980) whose participants found the teaching of grammar to be actually more difficult in the target language, because they perceived limitations in the students' understanding of grammatical systems in general, and in their grasp of the target language. They also agreed that they could better explain the grammar in their native language.

However, because the teaching of grammar is all-pervasive in their English classes, these Thai students' opportunities to acquire naturalistic language skills are

greatly reduced. For Thailand two solutions are possible: firstly, the emphasis on grammar could be reduced. Secondly, teachers should be encouraged to use English in grammar lessons. This can be done by using simple and direct explanations. In another way, teachers can explicitly teach and use grammatical terms in the target language (Duff & Polio, 1990). In fact, Kalivoda (1990) argues for the exclusive use of the target language in class, including its use for grammatical explanations. She argues that this should promote oral proficiency and communicative skills. Similarly, Terrell (1991) claims that when using the target language, not only does the student's understanding of grammar improve but he/she also receives a great deal of listening practice and experience with the target language for real communicative purposes.

ii) Translating Difficult Content

Teachers in this study believed that they should use Thai to translate difficult English words, sentences or for reading lessons. This finding accords with Harbord (1992) and Klinghammer (1990) whose participants argued that first language translation was a useful technique for second language teaching.

Wong-Fillmore (1985) points out that translation, instead of making the target language input more comprehensible to the students, tends to have the effect of encouraging them to ignore the target language. She claims:

> When learners can count on getting the information that is being communicated to them in language they already know, they do not find it necessary to pay attention when the language they do not understand is being used. Observations in classrooms where this method has been used have shown that children tend to tune out when the language they do not know is being spoken.
>
> (p.35)

In the communicative approach, teachers can use various of materials or techniques to explain the complex concepts without necessarily using the first

language for translation (Richards and Rodgers, 1992). Therefore, Thai teachers need to try to use appropriate resources or to teach their students by using the context as a clue, otherwise, students will remember only the definition, and remain unable to use the target language form. Thus, it would seem that Thai English teachers need to expand and develop their repertoire of teaching techniques and approaches in all aspects of English, but especially with respect to the teaching of grammar.

iii) Too Much Content for the Time Available

Thai teachers of English in the focus group interviews identified a number of factors relating to the curriculum and content that influenced their choice of language for instruction. They referred to the large amount of material that they were expected to cover and the limited amount of time available. The teachers felt these demands and limitations made the use of the target language problematic. Since they found it very difficult to cover all the material in one semester, they needed to use Thai to present the material clearly and quickly. This relates to the previous findings of Morris (1997) where university teaching assistants attributed their use of the first language in part to a perceived need to present information efficiently. For this reason, they placed great importance on the need for clarity in their class presentations. Moreover, they feared that the exclusive use of target language would result in confusion and misunderstanding, which in turn would require students to ask questions that consume valuable class time. Atkinson (1987) and Dickson (1996) also note timesaving as one of the principles for using the first language.

However, this would seem to indicate a misunderstanding of the 1996 National curriculum which does not prescribe particular textbooks for each level, rather it presents learning objectives in each subject. It is the responsibility of each

school to choose the appropriate textbook to achieve these objectives. The large amount of material, claimed by teachers to be problematic, is not the result of any curriculum directive. Instead, it seems to stem from the teachers' beliefs or institutional demands. Some teachers believe that more textbooks means better students. Parents tend to think the same way. As one teacher from the focus group interviews explained, some parents prefer their children to study many textbooks, as they assume that the children will acquire more knowledge this way. These attitudes may be causing schools to assign a lot of material in each subject area and as a result, it is difficult for teachers to cover all the text books in the time available.

Another reason for teachers feeling time constraints might be because each school is required to arrange the extra-curricula activities, such as sports days, religious days, father's day, mother's day, et cetera, to enhance students' pastoral and cultural development. As a result, classes sometimes have to fit in with these activities. These external constraints and the perceptions of teaching staff, school administration and parents toward textbook learning are difficult to counter. It may require even more explicit statements about approaches from the MOE. It also requires a greater dispersal of information about the underlying principles of "Communicative Language Teaching" for school personnel and teachers.

6.1.6 Examinations

i) The Focus on Grammar

Although there was a difference in emphasis between the focus groups and questionnaire, the grammar-based exams appeared to cause considerable concern for teachers. When preparing students for examination it requires that they place heavy

emphasis on the students' knowledge and understanding of English grammar. Teachers, therefore, believed that this is only possible if Thai is used as the language of instruction.

The National University Entrance Examination is the most important one for students who wish to continue into higher education. An important component of this exam is an evaluation of the students' English language ability in vocabulary, grammar and reading comprehension skills (see Appendix A for a sample of the National English Entrance Examination). In addition, entrance exams for secondary schools also evaluate these skills (See Appendix E for a sample of lower-secondary entrance examinations and Appendix F for a sample of the secondary entrance examinations). Therefore, most teachers feel a heavy responsibility when preparing students for these exams. In doing so they follow the format of earlier exams in order to provide practice for their students. As a consequence, there is a strong washback effect with teachers continuing to teach to the test, and the exams repeatedly dominating their teaching practice. Thus it can be seen that there is a great need to be reformulate the exams and include tasks which test students' ability in all four macro skills.

It also seems that the teachers themselves are exasperated by this situation. Because they were also taught using this model, they continue to emulate this model, as evidenced from participants' beliefs that their own language teachers serve as positive role models for their own teaching.

6.1.7 Departmental Policies

i) The Lack of Encouragement for Using English

Although many teachers agree that teaching through the medium of the target language is desirable, this maybe difficult to maintain when departmental policies do not endeavour to enforce this approach. This supports research done by others, such as Duff and Polio (1990), whose participants report that their departments did not enforce a target language only policy, and may even be unaware of the language used in classes. Therefore, it would be helpful if schools have a policy regarding the use of the target language for instruction. This idea has been promoted in previous research (eg. F. Chambers, 1991; G. Chambers, 1992; Harbord, 1992) where it has been suggested that "target language only" policies reduce teachers' use of their students' first language.

This problem is even more serious when the heads of departments do not believe in the importance of Communicative Language Teaching approach. A possible solution would be to encourage teachers, who are not familiar with this approach, to visit schools where teachers already use pair and group work as a regular teaching strategies, and where the target language is used as the medium of instruction. The visiting teachers could be invited to observe successful teachers in action, and when they felt comfortable with this methodology they might try it out in a co-operative manner. By employing peer mentoring, teachers may be encouraged to implement a similar methodology.

6.2 Differences between the Teachers

Even though, there were some differences in emphasis between participants in the focus groups (i.e. the teachers' poor English language ability) and those who responded to the questionnaire (e.g. grammar based examinations were the reason English was not used), there was a general consensus about the reasons that Thai teachers avoid using English. However, in terms of the questionnaire, some differences between teachers working in different setting were evident. An analysis of the data showed that there was a significant difference between teachers working in different schools and sectors. These variables include: Primary versus Secondary (teachers' language ability, teacher's training, age of students, mixed ability classroom, university entrance examination); Private versus Public (effects of teachers' own schooling, departmental policies).

6.2.1 Primary versus Secondary

i) Teachers' Language Ability

This variable produced significant differences between teachers in primary public schools to those in secondary private schools. Teachers in the private system were significantly less likely to identify their language ability as inhibiting them from using English. This might be for several reasons: although, it has only been a compulsory curriculum for all primary public schools in Thailand since 1996, in private schools, they have been free to offer English courses before that time. As a result, private schools teachers may have had a more extensive experience with English and feel more confident in their own ability. Teachers in primary public schools may not have had adequate in-service programs for the new curriculum or

may also be restricted by a lack of supporting materials (Department of Curriculum and Instruction Development, 1999). A further reason may be that teachers in the public system actually do have lower English language ability (Bunnag, 2000). Teachers usually receive better pay in private schools, particularly in the secondary level (Office of the National Education Commission, 1998) and as a result, teachers with higher abilities are often attracted to positions in private schools.

ii) Teacher Training

Significant differences were found between the primary private school teachers and the secondary public teachers with regards to teacher training. The teachers in primary private schools agreed more strongly than did the group of secondary public teachers that, in their own professional development, the teaching of grammar was emphasised and that they had not been encouraged to use Thai in classroom instruction. This might be because of their educational background – 28 of the 50 primary private school teachers in this study graduated with majors in subjects other than English, while 13 of the 50 secondary public school teachers graduated with English-majors. As a result, those primary private school teachers who had never attended training programs might agree more strongly with the statement regarding inadequate teacher's training. This is illustrated in Figure 6.1 which shows a diagram of the teachers' educational background.

Figure 6.1   Diagram of teachers' educational background
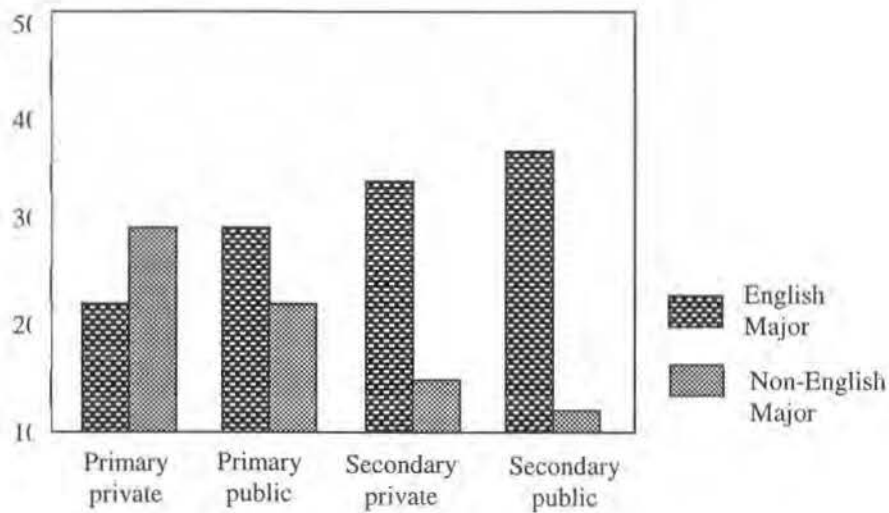
iii) Age of Students

There were significance differences between primary public school teachers and those in secondary private schools with regard to the age of the students and its effect on the use of English. Teachers in the secondary system were less concerned that the age of the students affects their use of English. This could be for the reason that teachers at secondary level have little experience of teaching young students. However, it is unclear why the other two groups of teachers (primary private and secondary public) were not significantly different from each other or from the primary public and secondary private teachers. It may be that the setting of teaching impacts in some way on this factor.

iv) Mixed-ability Classroom

Teachers in the primary system strongly agreed and in much higher proportions than did those in the secondary system that mixed ability classrooms influenced their use of English for instruction. Perhaps, it could be that because in the secondary system the students are divided according to their areas of interest such as

Sciences, Art, or languages. They are already streamed in some way and this lessens the occurrence of mixed ability classes. Further, because those who enrol in English majors are required to have high language proficiency the likelihood of mixed ability classrooms in secondary schools is further diminished. On the other hand, at the primary level, all classes have mixed abilities because streaming does not occur. Therefore, because teachers in primary schools have greater experience with this situation, they are more likely to agree more that the mixed ability of students affect their teaching practice.

v) University Entrance Examination

The data from the questionnaire showed that the variable of university entrance examinations provided significant differences between teachers in primary schools and secondary schools. It showed that the teachers in the secondary system obtained significantly higher agreement than did those in the primary sector. Clearly, secondary teachers need to be more aware of the requirements of university entrance exams than do primary teachers. In fact, primary teachers' inexperience with the pressure of teaching students for university entry may have meant that their responses were not well informed.

6.2.2 Private versus Public

i) Effects of Teachers' Own Schooling

The data analysis revealed that primary private school teachers had a higher level of agreement than did those in primary public schools regarding the effect of their own schooling. This might relate to the educational background of primary private teachers. Some primary private teachers had graduated in areas other than

English, hence, they may not have attended appropriate training programs in teaching English, and as a consequence, teach by imitating the way they had been taught in their own schooling.

b) Departmental Policies

Teachers in private schools did not agree strongly with statements that their supervisors had never encouraged them to use English. Most private schools are independent and are not bound in the some way as public school teachers in their implementation of English language instruction (Tippanon, 1999). They have the flexibility to implement policies, such as employing native English speakers as teachers, establishing language centres, and offering advanced English courses, as well as the opportunities to develop teaching materials to promote teachers' and students' language ability, and to attract students from the public schools (Wichairath, 1999).

This could be the reason that the school administrators and English department supervisors in private schools attempt to maintain teaching quality by advising their teachers of the importance of English for instruction.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the main findings of this study are summarised. It also includes a discussion of the pedagogic implications, and suggestions for future research.

7.1 Summary of the main findings

Target language use in the classroom has been a topic of discussion and research amongst language instructors for many years. The avoidance of the target language in classroom has serious implications for foreign language learning, as students encounter too little input and interaction to expand their own knowledge of the target language.

From the review of the literature in chapter 2, it can be seen that access to comprehensible input is one of the key factors in SLA. In addition, learner production is another important factor. It not only enhances fluency and indirectly generates more comprehensible input, but also it facilitates second language learning by providing learners with opportunities to produce comprehensible output. Learners achieve this by modifying and approximating their production toward more target-like use of the language. Further, interactions, between native speakers/non-native speakers and in the classroom between students and their teachers, are also important for providing learners with opportunities to receive both comprehensible input and to produce comprehensible output, both of which are essential for second language learning. Finally, interaction allows learners to obtain ample feedback – a third important factor in the second language acquisition process.

The primary goal of foreign/second language learning is to acquire communicative competence; students need an opportunity to learn skills and strategies for using the target language to communicate meanings in real-life situations. In order to do this, the language teacher should provide linguistic input at an appropriate level of complexity for the learners which can be achieved through interaction in the target language. In Thai EFL classes, this means using English as the medium of instruction and avoiding the use of Thai.

The data from the present study, collected through focus group interviews and a large-scale questionnaire, revealed that the Thai teachers of English believe the target language should be used in the language classroom. However, they find it difficult to carry this out. The reasons they gave related to the teachers themselves (e.g. their poor English language ability, anxiety about using English) as well as other factors. These included the nature of the students, issues to do with classroom management, the prescribed content of the course, the exams which focus on grammar, departmental policies and inadequate teacher training programs.

In this study, the findings from the large-scale questionnaire were slightly different from those of the focus group interviews. There were significant differences between the private and public school teachers, and also in the responses of primary and secondary teachers. These included differences with respect to factors of the teachers' language ability, the effects of the teachers' own schooling and their teacher training. It also included differences of opinion about the age of their students, mixed ability classrooms, university entrance examinations, and departmental policies.

Regardless of where the data was obtained (i.e. focus groups or questionnaire) all the teachers were especially concerned about their language ability. They felt a

need for ways to help them develop their oral English language proficiency, although they did offer many suggestions about ways that they could be encouraged to use of English in their classes. These included implementing programs to develop teachers' language ability; implementing an "English only" policy in the classroom; changes in the role of the head of department; encouraging teachers to work co-operatively; and more practice using English, particularly in pre-service and in-service programs.

7.2 Pedagogical Implications of this Study for Education in Thailand

"We need to make the language real here and now. By teaching in the target language we can make it something that they themselves experience and use today. It is not just a vehicle for exercises and activities, to be put into real use sometime later."

Halliwell and Jones (1991, p. 1)

With these words, Halliwell and Jones described the goals and challenges of the foreign language classroom, a classroom that provides comprehensible input and meaningful interaction in the target language for students to acquire the language they need. It is hoped that this study will contribute to knowledge on understanding the importance of the use of the target language.

It would seem from the data collection that many things about the situation in Thailand need to be changed in order to improve the way of teachers' approach teaching English. The responses from the questionnaire survey show that the teachers felt that pre-service training did not cover the use of English in class and while teachers were trained to teach the communicative approach, in reality the focus remained on grammar. It would also seen that the Thai government needs to ensure the quality of pre-service teacher education. Within this training, it is apparent that the primacy of foreign language input and interaction should be stressed. This was

exemplified in the transcripts of the focus group interviews which indicate that teachers encounter difficulties in speaking English to students as they lack opportunities to practice it. One way to achieve this would be through the implementation of the communicative language teaching, which in turn is in line with the current curriculum. The teacher-training program should also provide opportunities for pre-service teachers to learn new classroom management techniques that incorporate the use of the target language. That is to say the pre-service program should develop a curriculum which adequately prepares pre-service teachers for their careers. As suggested by Tedick and Walker (1994; 1995), professional development experiences should offer practitioners more opportunities to improve and practice their use of the target language so that they can use it confidently. For these reasons, it seems that it is vitally important that the professors in the teacher training colleges not only be well qualified, but also be able to provide exemplary behaviour by using the target language in their instruction, thereby encouraging pre-service teachers to use target language in their own practice. A similar model should also be provided in in-service programs. Such a model is important because from what the teachers reported in the focus groups, they did not believe they need to use the target language as they were never taught this way themselves.

Although within curriculum documents, there has been a shift in the language teaching paradigm in Thailand from audio-lingual and grammar translation methodologies to a communicative approach, in practice this has not been the case. From the responses of the questionnaire survey and focus group interviews, teachers contend that additional support by way of English language courses and experience in English speaking countries might help them to improve their English language skills.

It is clearly apparent that in-service programs are required to upgrade the language skills and the teaching methodologies of practising EFL teachers in Thailand. However, for this to happen, school administrations need to be made aware of the potential of in-service programs to improve their teaching staff's effectiveness.

In addition, the teachers themselves need to become better aware of their own classroom practices. Of particularly importance is an awareness of the influences on the use of the language they use for instruction. In this present study, teachers reported that it was only feasible to use Thai when introducing grammar and when doing translations. While it is not possible to avoid teaching grammar, teachers should consider alternative ways of presenting this material so that students are given more exposure to the target language. Duff and Polio (1990) and Polio and Duff (1994) argue that when teachers are aware of using their first language, it is easier for them to replace this use with the target language.

Because of the generally low level of English language proficiency that foreign language teachers possess, the maintenance and improvement of their language skills must be an ongoing process (Peyton, 1998). Certainly, the teachers in this study expressed concerns about their less than adequate English ability. Thai teachers of English, therefore, require professional development not just to improve their English teaching, but also to develop their general English proficiency. From what the teachers suggested, they see a need to talk with native or fluent speakers of the target language about a wide range of topics and to read extensively in the target language to maintain and expand their vocabulary, grammatical knowledge, and cultural awareness.

Finally, it would seem that teachers still "teach to the test". Currently, the requirements of the National University Entrance Examination contradict the objectives of the 1996 English national curriculum for upper secondary level. The curriculum emphasises the development of students' communicative skills, whereas the English National University Entrance Examination continues to focus on rules of grammar, vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension. In order to achieve the curriculum's goal, the national exams should be reformulated to accommodate other language skills. As it stands, teachers are not being trained to teach the curriculum and the improvement of the students' communication skills is difficult to achieve.

7.3 Limitations of the Study

Findings from the present study need to be viewed with caution, as a number of limitations exist. First of all, the sample size of participants in this study is limited. The sample populations were 200 of 2,336 Thai teachers of English in Bangkok area; hence, the results may not be representative of teachers' belief in general.

In addition, the sample populations of this study were from Bangkok area, and as such the findings may not be generalisable to EFL teachers in other parts of Thailand since attitudes and practices may differ in rural areas or in other demographic settings.

Moreover, since this study involves a self-report measure, it has been anticipated that social desirability may have had certain effects on some participants' responses. For example, some participants may have been reluctant to give unfavourable or negative responses toward target language use for fear that they would have appeared to be ignorant or closed-minded, especially when they were

teachers. Undeniably, this might have resulted in somewhat less than complete accuracy of the findings.

7.4 Recommendations for Further Study

This section consists of the recommendations for further research as suggested by the present study.

7.4.1 This study analyses the beliefs of Thai teachers of English in the Bangkok area. It does not endeavour to collect and analyse the beliefs of teachers of other foreign languages, or of teachers in other provinces. To obtain additional perspectives on such beliefs, additional research is required.

7.4.2 Previous research encourages the exclusive use of the target language as the best way for students to acquire that language. Very little research supports teachers' notion that the use of first language is better for teaching some content such as grammar. Further study is needed to either verify or disprove this claim.

7.4.3 As significant differences were found between primary school teachers and secondary private schools teachers the result of this study suggest that the age of students affects teachers English language avoidance. However, it is unclear why the other two groups were not significantly different. Further studies might investigate how the teacher training programs, the context of their teaching and other factors (yet to be identified) might impact on this in some way.

7.4.4 The teachers' beliefs about language teaching might be different from their school practices. Research investigating how teachers teach in their classes, the amount of target language used, and the situations in which the use of

English is considered problematic, may present some other factors that have been overlooked in this study.

7.4.5   This study does not address the learning outcomes of the students when using the target language as the medium for instruction. Much further study is required to investigate the important question about the effect of target language avoidance on student learning outcomes.

7.5 The Significance of the Study

It is hoped that this research will significantly contribute to our pedagogic knowledge in a number of ways. Practitioners may use this research to become more aware of classroom practices. It may encourage them to examine their own classroom practices and analyse the reasons why they use or do not use English in their classroom teaching. Specialists in methodology may also use the findings to enhance teacher development programs, such as providing opportunities for pre-service teachers to develop appropriate classroom management techniques using the target language.   Most importantly, it may help Thai teachers to use the target language more effectively in their teaching. Finally, it will provide a base line for future investigations into ways of increasing positive outcomes in EFL contexts, one area overlooked in current SLA research.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: English National University Entrance Examination 1998

PART I : QUESTIONS 1- 35

Directions : Choose the best answer for each blank.

Situation A : Two friends meet in front of the school just as the flag is being raised.

Sue   :   Hi, you're late.
Tina   :   _____1_____!
Sue   :   I overslept because the alarm didn't go off, or it rang and didn't
            _____2_____it. My mom had to wake me up. What about you? _____3_____?
Tina   :   I didn't have anything ready this morning. I had to iron this blouse and
            skirt. I _____4_____ last night; but I was so tired when I got home from the library,
            _____5_____.
Sue   :   As for me, it's my own fault. I watched TV until two in the morning.
Tina   :   _____6_____ your mom had to wake you up. You'll probably be nodding
            off all day at school, too. Did you _____7_____ get your homework done ?
            Remember, we have to give that report together this morning.
Sue   :   Oh! I forgot all about it.
Tina   :   What! _____8_____ I can't present this thing by myself. You'll have to tell
            Ms. Kane that you didn't do it. Maybe she'll let us present it on Friday.
Sue   :   How could I have forgotten? _____9_____, Tina.
Tina   :   Well, let's hope Ms. Kane _____10_____ this morning.
Sue   :   Here she is now. She looks pretty happy. This should be a good time.
            _____11_____.

1.   1. Don't blame me.   2. You must be joking
       3. My watch is accurate   4. That makes two of us

2.   1. listen to   2. hear
       3. attend to   4. observe

3.   1. Do you have an apology   2. Do you feel any regret
       3. What's your excuse   4. Why are you sorry

4.   1. used to do it   2. should have done it
       3. had it done   4. did it

5.   1. stayed up all night   2. studied for Ms.Kane's exam
       3. couldn't sleep at all   4. went right to bed

6.   1. No wonder   2. By all means
       3. My goodness   4. What a surprise

7.   1. at all   2. a least
       3. mostly   4. better

8.   1. You've already presented it?   2. You want to do it alone?
       3. We should not be worried   4. We're in big trouble.

9.   1. I'm really sorry about this   2. I'll never accept this
       3. I'm so grateful to you.   4. I'll give you my word

10.   1. comes to class on time   2. doesn't return our homework
       3. is in an understanding mood   4. doesn't forget our report

11.   1. We'd better not let her find out   2. Who's going to break the bad news?
       3. Can you keep it a secret?   4. Let's leave while we can.

Situation B : Two friends are talking in the office just before lunchtime.

Jane   :   I'm off to the bank. _____12_____?
Wilai   :   Yeah! Some money! _____13_____ 100 baht in my account.
Jane   :   Guess I can't help you then.
Wilai   :   Oh, as a matter of fact, there is something you can do for me,
                  _____14_____. I just got paid a little for some extra work I did last month. Could
                  you _____15_____ for me?
Jane   :   Sure. But I'll need your bankbook too.
Wilai   :   _____16_____. Let me fill in a deposit slip so you won't have to
                  _____17_____ time.
Jane   :   That would be good. There are always such long lines at noon.
Wilai   :   Oh no! I've used up all my deposit slips. Well, I need some fresh air
                  anyway. _____18_____
Jane   :   Great! Afterwards we can have lunch at our favorite restaurant too. And
                  maybe _____19_____ shopping.
Wilai   :   I'm not sure _____20_____. There's still a week to go till payday.
Jane   :   No problem. _____21_____. I just got my annual bonus and a raise.
Wilai   :   _____22_____ for both of us. What are we waiting for?

12.   1. Would you like to come   2. Can you get a loan
         3. Do you need anything   4. Will I see you later

13.   1. But I'm down to   2. I'd like to deposit
         3. It's good to have   4. And I want to withdraw the

14.   1. So I remembered it   2. more or less
         3. if you don't mind   4. sooner or later

15.   1. take out some money   2. save this payment
         3. balance the account   4. deposit this check

16.   1. Here it is   2. That's a fact
         3. Don't bother   4. Forget it

17.   1. spend   2. waste
         3. use   4. kill

18.   1. Shouldn't we do it right now   2. Could you get me some slips
         3. Shall we cancel our date   4. Why don't I come with you

19.   1. go around   2. have some
         3. do a little   4. make a quick

20.   1. it will work   2. I can afford that
         3. we have enough time   4. you could try it

21.   1. Give me a treat   2. We'll split the bill
         3. That's a good idea   4. Lunch is on me

22.   1. How lucky   2. Congratulations
         3. Not enough   4. Not too bad

Situation C :   Keith, who has recently come to work in Thailand, is talking to Prasit about buying
                 Prasit's car.

Keith   :   I hear you're thinking about buying a new car.
Prasit   :   _____23_____, but even though my old one is still in great shape, I don't
              think I'll get a good price for it.
Keith   :   _____24_____?
Prasit   :   Why? Are you interested?
Keith   :   I might be if the price is _____25_____.
Prasit   :   I wouldn't sell it for less than 500,000 baht.
Keith   :   _____26_____?
Prasit   :   I'm afraid not. I would need at least that much to make the down payment
              on my dream car.
Keith   :   You've got _____27_____. I really don't need anything luxurious. Just
              something to get me _____28_____ the office every day.
Prasit   :   I'd _____29_____ the new stereo system I've just had installed.
              _____30_____ when you're stuck in traffic.
Keith   :   I know, but 500,000 is still a lot more than I can afford unless you're
              willing to let me pay in installments.
Prasit   :   _____31_____?
Keith   :   I can give you 200,000 baht now, and the _____32_____when my fixed
              deposit account comes due in two months.
Prasit   :   But I'll have to buy the new car right away. And they want 500,000 baht.
Keith   :   I _____33_____ withdraw my money now and just forget about the
              interest.
Prasit   :   _____34_____?
Keith   :   I guess so. I'll have the money for you on Friday morning. Then we can go
              to get your new car and I can drive yours home. Don't forget to fill up the gas tank.
Prasit   :   _____35_____. And I'm sure you won't be disappointed.

23.   1. Let's see   2. I'd like to
       3. That sounds great   4. Wait awhile

24.   1. How much longer will you use it   2. Isn't it very valuable
       3. Wasn't it expensive when you bought it   4. How much do you think it's worth

25.   1. basic   2. just
       3. right   4. possible

26.   1. Not even to a friend   2. Can I buy it now
       3. Don't you still need it   4. Lots of buyers lined up

27.   1. delicate feelings   2. expensive tastes
       3. fantastic ideas   4. pleasant thoughts

28.   1. back and forth at   2. in and out of
       3. up and around   4. to and from

29.   1. consider taking   2. also give you
       3. want to hear   4. like you to bring

30.   1. Accept it especially   2. It will be acknowledged
       3. You'll really appreciate it   4. You are sure to approve of it

31.   1. How can you afford it   2. How much cash do you have
       3. How much money do you earn   4. How can you treat me like this

32. 1. following   2. leftover
     3. rest   4. others

33. 1. guess you should   2. wish you would
     3. hope I will   4. suppose I could

34. 1. Do we have a deal   2. Do you guarantee
     3. Can we call it a day   4. Can I have your word

35. 1. Not at all   2. Never mind
     3. I can't   4. I won't

PART II : QUESTION 36-50
Directions: Choose the best answer for each blank.

Congratulations on your purchase of the KK256 facsimile transciever, _____36_____ thank you for choosing Klear Kopy. The KK256 is able to _____37_____ almost every facsimile machine in use today, _____38_____ the basic operations of sending and receiving documents, it provides a variety of special _____39_____ designed to increase the ease and _____40_____ of using your equipment. This manual _____41_____ you simple instructions for installing and using the KK256. While you may not need to read every section in detail at first, we recommend that you at least review them _____42_____.

36. 1. so   2. and
     3. but   4. then

37. 1. rely on   2. compensate for
     3. report to   4. communicate with

38. 1. Because of   2. By means of
     3. in addition to   4. As a result of

39. 1. trends   2. features
     3. patterns   4. types

40. 1. effectiveness   2. complexity
     3. quality   4. attractiveness

41. 1. hands   2. passes
     3. teaches   4. gives

42. 1. presently   2. suddenly
     3. briefly   4. lately

Dear Mrs. Smith,

 I was very sorry to _____43_____ from your letter of March 15 that Mr. Smith is ill, and I sincerely hope that he will make a rapid _____44_____. _____45_____ the past due note about which I wrote to him on March 10, _____46_____ tell him to call at the bank when he is able, and not to make a special _____47_____. Since he may want to renew this note, here is a renewal notice for him to _____48_____ and return to me. That will _____49_____ him the trouble of driving to the bank.

 Please give Mr. Smith my best _____50_____.

Sincerely yours,
Robert Elliot
(Financial Officer)

43. 1. recognize   2. observe
     3. conclude   4. learn

44. 1. recovery   2. gain
     3. strength   4. return

45. 1. To speak about   2. In remembrance of
     3. With respect to   4. As a reward for

46. 1. then   2. just
     3. first   4. only

47. 1. journey   2. meeting
     3. trip   4. tour

48. 1. write   2. observe
     3. bring   4. sign

49. 1. give   2. cause
     3. save   4. make

50. 1. regards   2. thoughts
     3. hopes   4. concerns

PART 3 : QUESTION 51 - 60
Directions : Choose the best alternative to fill each space in the passage.

 Walking is achieved through a mixture of carefully coordinated reflex and voluntary movements, many of which have to be learned. A newborn baby will exhibit a walking reflex when its feet_____51_____ the ground, but this is gradually lost at about the age of six weeks. At 44 weeks, the child will have _____52_____sufficient bone and muscle strength to support itself, and soon after _____53_____ first birthday will have achieved enough muscular control and coordination to attain a strong, independent walk. It is known that the information received from the eyes and the organs of balance in the ears is important for walking._____54_____, the central nervous system plays a more vital role in coordinating muscle movements, Reflex movements - including balance - are coordinated through the spinal cord, thalamus, medulla and cerebellum, while the _____55_____ movements that determine where we want to go and at what speed are _____56_____ within the motor areas of the cerebral cortex. From here, messages in the form of neural impulses are _____57_____to the various muscles which will be involved in the movement. A number of conditions can _____58_____ the ability to walk, including genetic abnormality, drugs, and

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brain disease. Damaged muscles or bones can _____59_____ affect walking. In many of these conditions, the ability to walk may be impaired for life. But, the body permitting, walking is a _____60_____ that can be re-learned.

51.   1. search   2. match
       3. touch   4. join

52.   1. compiled   2. acquired
       3. received   4. improved

53.   1. a   2. another
       3. its   4. one's

54.   1. Anyhow   2. Therefore
       3. Unfortunately   4. However

55.   1. voluntary   2. supportive
       3. impulsive   4. strong

56.   1. collected   2. supported
       3. initiated   4. circulated

57.   1. relayed   2. record
       3. regained   4. reproduced

58.   1. reverse   2. control
       3. explain   4. upset

59.   1. thus   2. also
       3. still   4. perhaps

60.   1. skill   2. course
       3. style   4. route

PART 4: QUESTIONS 61 - 100
Directions: Read the passage and choose the best alternative to answer each question.

Passage 1

In much the same way as it is used to detect structural flaws, ultrasound can be used to detect flaws in living tissue. The reflective properties of normal and abnormal tissues differ enough to allow them to be distinguished ultrasonically. An ultrasonic scanner can detect certain malignancies in their early stages. This diagnostic tool has been used to discover malignancies in the breast, liver, brain, and several other organs. Ultrasonic scans of a pregnant woman will show the fetus in the uterus. To minimize the risk to healthy tissue, low-intensity ultrasound is used in these types of diagnoses. In some kinds of surgery, high-intensity ultrasound can take the place of scalpels. Ultrasonic surgery is especially promising in the fields of neurology and otology.

There has been some success in the treatment of Meniere's disease, an ear disorder. The use of ultrasound may have applications in agriculture, Seeds and seedlings irradiated with low-intensity ultrasound germinate faster than untreated seedlings and seeds. In one case, it was reported that potato plants so treated blossomed a week ahead of time and yielded 50 percent more than untreated plants. However, ultrasound can have a harmful effect on living systems. It has been pointed out that small animals exposed to high – intensity ultrasound will often die. People working with ultrasonic equipment over long periods of time suffer fatigue

and nausea and sometimes disorientation. Plants, too, while responding well to low - intensity ultrasound, can be destroyed by higher intensities. Besides cellular damage, ultrasound can also harm genetic material in the cell.

The study of ultrasonics is an expanding field. Knowledge of the <u>hazards</u> of this powerful tool will be important in developing guidelines for future research as well as for industrial and biological use.

61. According to the passage, high - intensity ultrasound can be safely used as a _____ tool.

1. surgical   2. diagnostic
3. measurement   4. preventive

62. In line 8, "is especially promising" means _____.
1. is particularly questionable   2. has great potential
3. can be very risky   4. presents a big challenge

63. In line 13, "so treated" could best be replaced with _____.
1. which have received low - intensity ultrasound
2. that have been specially grown in the lab
3. which are raised to be disease - resistant
4. that are chemically sprayed to bloom early

64. Extended exposure to high - intensity ultrasound may cause a person to
_____.
1. go deaf   2. die suddenly
3. become tired easily   4. turn more violent

65. In line 20, "hazards" means _____.
1. properties   2. dangers
3. limitations   4. applications

66. The author's attitude towards ultrasound seems to be _____.
1. indifferent   2. pessimistic
3. enthusiastic   4. cautious

67. The best title for this passage is _____.
1. Advantages and Disadvantages of Ultrasound in Medicine
2. The Uses of Ultrasound in Agriculture and Surgery
3. Industrial Applications of Ultrasonic Techniques
4. Effects of Ultrasound Applications

Passage 2
Aircraft need a lot of power to fly slowly and a lot to fly fast, but they can afford to cruise along at intermediate speeds. But is this true for flying animals? After all, it is surprising that many flying animals, from bees to birds, are able to fly at all, let alone fly in the same way as fixed - wing aircraft do. In the latest issue of the science magazine Nature, Kenneth Dial and colleagues have, for the first time, succeeded in measuring the power output of flying birds, at all speeds, by taking direct readings from flight muscles. The importance of this study lies in the extreme practical difficulty of measuring the power output of a flying animal.

All studies concentrate on respirometry - that is, measuring the rate at which an animal consumes oxygen as it flies. This requires fitting some kind of mask to the animal. This poses obvious problems for birds, emphasised for hummingbirds (because of their smallness) and practically impossible for insects (which in any case breathe through pores all over the body). A masked bird will not necessarily behave in the same way as an

unmasked bird. The solution is to bypass this indirect strategy and measure the power output of birds directly. Dial and colleagues did this by fitting tiny strain-meters to the upper wing - bones of anaesthetized magpies, wired up to a plug on the back of the bird. This allowed the researchers to measure the forces generated by the bird's wing as it flew, independently of its oxygen consumption. The results were something of a surprise. Although the birds used a lot of power when hovering at slow speeds, their power output at high speeds was hardly more than that expended while cruising.

68.   Aircraft use the least power when they are _____.
       1. accelerating   2. cruising
       3. taking off   4. landing

69.   Birds use the most power when they are _____.
       1. flying fast   2. cruising
       3. hovering   4. humming

70.   Dial and colleagues were able to successfully measure the power output of birds by measuring the _____.
       1. rate at which they consume oxygen
       2. forces generated by their wings
       3. size of their flight muscles
       4. power output of aircraft

71.   Respirometry is measuring the rate of _____.
       1. oxygen consumption   2. flight speed
       3. power output   4. wing flaps

72.   The study mentioned in the article was important because it _____.
       1. proved that birds and aircraft use different principles for powering flight
       2. didn't require the use of masks to measure oxygen consumption
       3. was the first attempt to measure the power output of flying birds
       4. measured power output by studying the bird's wing as it flew

73.   Before attaching the strain-meter, Dial and his colleagues _____.
       1. separated the upper wing bones
       2. performed surgery on the birds
       3. prevented the birds from feeling pain
       4. measured the forces generated by the birds' wings

74.   Scientists were surprised to learn that _____.
       1. birds don't fly like fixed-wing aircraft
       2. power output is related to speed
       3. birds don't fly as fast as they should
       4. more power is not consumed when birds fly fast

Passage 3
        Smoking even a few cigarettes a day appears to stunt the growth of teenagers' lungs, a Harvard University study has found. Previous research has shown that youngsters smoke are more likely to have coughs, asthma and bronchitis. Now, experts have found that teenage smoking actually seems to make boys' and girls' lungs grow more slowly than usual, so they hold less air. "It was surprising that we could determine an effect of smoking on lung growth so early in the process," said Dr. Diane Gold. "Some would say that takes many years to see an effect."
        Gold and colleagues from Harvard's School of Public Health based their findings on 5,158 boys and 4,902 girls between the ages of 10 and 18 - a third of whom had smoked -who were examined annually between 1974 and 1989. The results were published by the New England Journal of Medicine. The study found that smoking just five cigarettes a day

appeared to reduce lung volume slightly, especially for girls. The study also found that girls who smoked five or more cigarettes a day had a one percent slower the usual growth each year of their forced expiratory volume. This is the amount of air that can be blown out of the lungs in one second, and it is an important measure of lung health.

75. In line 1, "stunt" means _____.
   1. limit
   3. maintain
   2. develop
   4. reverse

76. In line 10, "who" refers to _____.
   1. the youngsters who smoked
   3. Gold and colleagues
   2. 5,158 boys and 4,902 girls
   4. A third of the smokers

77. In line 11, "The study" refers to the _____.
   1. Harvard University study
   3. previous research on lung health
   2. New England study
   4. lung cancer study

78. According to this study, the people at greatest risk of suffering from lung damage are

   _____ .
   1. all teenagers
   3. teenaged boys who smoke
   2. all smokers
   4. teenaged girls who smoke

79. Gold and her colleagues were surprised that _____.
   1. it took so many years before the effects of smoking could be studied
   2. girls tended to be heavier smokers than boys
   3. it didn't take long to see the effect of smoking on the lung growth of teenagers
   4. children started smoking must sooner than previously thought

80. A major finding of Gold and colleagues' study is that teenagers who smoke _____.
   1. endanger the health of their lungs
   2. die of unexpected illnesses
   3. are more likely to develop lung cancer
   4. do not grow as tall as non – smokers

81. The purpose of the writer is to _____.
   1. persuade
   3. criticize
   2. report
   4. promote

82. The best title for this passage is _____.
   1. A Comparative Study of Boys' and Girls' Lungs
   2. Contradictions in Old and New Studies of Smoking and Lung Health
   3. Effects of Cigarette Smoking on Teenagers' Lung Growth
   4. How Sex Differences Affect Lung Growth

Passage 4

   Japanese automakers are in a race to build the first mass-market "green" car. At this week's international Tokyo Motor Show, companies will display vehicles with a new breed of engines known as hybrids, or combined electric and gasoline engines, that can halve emissions of carbon dioxide - one of the gases responsible for global warming.
   The star of the auto show will likely be the Sumo, the world's first mass-produced car powered by a hybrid engine. An electric motor starts the Sumo, a four-door sedan, and powers it at low speeds. Between 20 and 40 kilometers an hour, the gasoline motor kicks in. The electric motor also takes over when the gasoline engine is running inefficiently. The hybrid has huge advantages over

electric vehicles, which have a battery that tends to need frequent recharging, both inconvenient for longer trips and time-consuming. With the Sumo's hybird power system, the gasoline engine charges the battery, so there's risk of running out of juice.

The Sumo averages about 28 kilometres to a liter of gasoline, about double the automaker's best selling sedan. This achievement is impressive. But the real question is the costing. What Japan's largest automaker has invested in the Sumo is secret. Analysts said the automaker will lose between half a million yen and 3 million yen on every Sumo its sells.

At first, the car will sell for 2.15 million yen ($18,000), about half a million yen more than its cheapest regular model. According to analysts, the million of dollars automakers are investing to improve their technology, as in the case of the Sumo's inventor, will have to come out of the final cost of the cars. The average Joe in the street, therefore, is going to continue buying regular cars.

83.   Hybrid engines can help reduce damage to the environment because they _____.
1. make use of electricity instead of gasoline
2. lessen the heat in car exhausts
3. are used by green supporters
4. produce little carbon dioxide

84.   In the hybrid-powered Sumo, the gasoline engine is most likely to start working when the

_____.

1. car is started   2. speed exceeds 20 km per hour
3. car is running efficiently   4. battery is fully charged

85.   We can infer from the passage that the Sumo is the _____.
1. first environmentally friendly car
2. most economical mass-produced car
3. first electric car displayed in Tokyo
4. first hybrid car produced for sale

86.   The Sumo is better than electric cars because _____.
1. the battery does not have to be recharged
2. it is cheaper
3. the car itself recharges the battery
4. it consumes less fuel

87.   In line 14 "juice" refers to _____.
1. power   2. gasoline
3. battery   4. water

88.   It is very likely that the Sumo will be _____.
1. the best selling car in the next century
2. more expensive than other cars
3. more attractive to common people
4. opposed by environmentalists

89.   "The average Joe in the street" refers to an ordinary

_____.

1. consumer   2. automaker
3. analyst   4. inventor

90.   The writer seems to be _____ the Sumo.
1. optimistic about   2. negative towards
3. impressed with   4. indifferent to

91. The purpose of the passage is to _____.
   1. give advice about how to protect the environment
   2. report about progress in automotive technology
   3. persuade people to buy a new product
   4. provide information for maintenance technicians

Passage 5

   It all fell apart so quickly. The East Asian "miracle" was supposed to last for decades and propel the world economy to new levels. Instead, Asia's stock and currency markets have been tumbling for months, culminating in the astonishing collapse of the Hong Kong exchange. Multinationals that had counted on Asian customers to buy more of everything from cars to aircraft are wondering what went wrong. Bankers are shocked that Asian governments and big corporate borrowers have few coherent strategies for recovery.
   From Bangkok to Hong Kong, there are tales of the "nouveaux riches" rushing to sell Mercedes-Benz sedans, Rolex watches, and Chinese antiquities just to make ends meet. How East Asia handles the problem could well determine whether or not the miracle is finished. If governments take forceful action – cutting spending on unnecessary projects, cleaning up scandal-ridden banking systems, stimulating domestic consumption rather than just exports, and forcing uncompetitive manufacturers to merge or go bankrupt - the region should be on the road to health in two or three years. Then Asia can lay to its strengths again - high savings, a disciplined work force, low wages, and an aggressive entrepreneurial class. But the clean up will come at a price. With bad bank debts of nearly $1 trillion around the region, strengthening its financial systems will mean higher taxes, tighter money, and slower growth.

92. The topic of the passage is _____.
   1. the financial crisis in Asia
   2. Asia's corrupt banking systems
   3. Asia's ineffective financial measures
   4. the collapse of Asia's political system

93. In line 1, the "miracle" refers to the economic _____.
   1. recovery   2. boom
   3. recession   4. investment

94. According to paragraph 1, the "nouveaux riches" _____.
   1. are experiencing financial problems
   2. still enjoy the luxurious life
   3. can afford expensive products
   4. have to work harder to make a living

95. The writer suggests that Asian governments _____.
   1. restructure their political systems
   2. cancel all big projects
   3. encourage exports of domestic products
   4. stop protecting uncompetitive manufacturers

96. The statement "the region should be on the road to health" means that Asia should
   _____.
   1. follow the suggested recovery plan
   2. undergo tough financial measures
   3. become prosperous again
   4. solve economic problems in the right way

97. All in all, the writer believes that it is _____ for Asian economies to recover.
   1. tough and unlikely   2. hard but possible
   3. hopeless and impossible   4. not difficult but not likely

98. Which of the following is not a traditional strength of Asian economies?
   1. low wages   2. a disciplined work force
   3. high savings   4. tight money

99. According to the passage, slower growth is _____ financial recovery.
   1. an obstacle to   2. necessary for
   3. a result of   4. dependent on

100. The tone of the passage is _____.
   1. serious   2. desperate
   3. emotional   4. subjective

APPENDIX B: Sample of interview transcript

Interview Phase one

Primary private school

In this focus group interview consisted of five teachers. The participants were asked to answer a series of semi-structured guide question. All discussion occurred in Thai.

ผู้วิจัย	:	ไม่ทราบว่าคุณครูสอนภาษาอังกฤษมากี่ปีแล้วคะ
Researcher	:	How long have you been teaching for?
ครู K	:	๘ ปีแล้วค่ะ ที่สอนภาษาอังกฤษ
Teacher K	:	8 years for English teaching.
ครู L	:	ปีนี้เป็นปีที่ ๓ ค่ะ
Teacher L	:	This is the third years.
ครู M	:	๑๕ ปีค่ะ
Teacher M	:	15 years
ครู N	:	๘ ปี
Teacher N	:	8 years
ครู O	:	๒๐ ปีค่ะ
Teacher O	:	20 years
ผู้วิจัย	:	ไม่ทราบว่าคุณครูชอบสอนภาษาอังกฤษไหมคะ
Researcher	:	Do you love to teach English?
ครู K	:	พี่ไม่ได้จบเอกอังกฤษนะคะ จริงๆแล้วพี่เอกไทย แต่พี่เป็นคนชอบภาษาอังกฤษ ตั้งแต่เด็กๆอยู่แล้ว ตอนนี้ได้มีโอกาสมาสอนก็สนุกดีค่ะ
Teacher K	:	I'm not an English major, my major is Thai. I have loved English since I was young. Now when I have a chance I do enjoy it.

ผู้วิจัย	:	ไม่ทราบว่าคุณครูมีปัญหาในการสอนไหมคะ
Researcher	:	Do you have any difficulties?
ครู K	:	ก็เคยมีบ้างตอนแรกๆ แต่หัวหน้าหมวดช่วยพี่ได้มาก ท่านแนะนำตลอดว่า เราควรทำอย่างไรเพื่อพัฒนาตัวเรา
Teacher K	:	I did at first, but the head of English department helps me a lot. She advises me all the time of what I should do to improve myself.

ผู้วิจัย	:	แล้วคุณครู L ละคะ
Researcher	:	What about you, teacher L?

ครู L	:	ครูมีปัญหาเวลาที่จะต้องควบคุมห้องเรียน
Teacher L	:	I have some difficulties on managing students' discipline.

ผู้วิจัย	:	แล้วคุณครู M ละคะ สนุกกับการสอนนักเรียนชั้นนี้ไหมคะ หรือว่ามีปัญหาอะไรบ้างคะ
Researcher	:	Teacher M, Do you enjoy teaching students at this level? Or do you have any difficulties?

ครู M	:	ครูไม่มีปัญหาเลยค่ะ สนุกมากๆเลยค่ะ (หัวเราะ)
Teacher M	:	I don't have any problem at all, I enjoy it very much. (Laughs)

ผู้วิจัย	:	แล้วครู N ละคะ
Researcher	:	Teacher N?

ครู N	:	พี่ก็ไม่มีปัญหาอะไรเลยค่ะ พี่ปรับตัวเองได้ แต่ก่อนพี่เคยสอนนักเรียนมัธยม ต่าง กันมากเลย เด็กเล็กๆเนี่ยควบคุมง่าย พี่นะเป็นคนที่ค่อนข้างเจ้าระเบียบ เคร่งครัด นักเรียนต้องเงียบและก็ฟังพี่ตลอดเวลา
Teacher N	:	I don't have any problem either. I can adapt myself. I used to teach high school level. They are different. The young children are easyto manage. I am a strict person, students have to be quiet and listen to me all the time.

ผู้วิจัย	:	แล้วครู O ละคะ
Researcher	:	Teacher O?

ครู O	:	ไม่มีค่ะ พี่ว่าพี่สามารถสอนได้นะ แต่พูดไม่ได้ (หัวเราะ)
Teacher O	:	Not at all. I have a skill in teaching..but not speaking (Laugh)

ผู้วิจัย	:	ในความคิดของคุณครูนะคะ คุณครูคิดว่าอะไรเป็นปัจจัยที่ทำให้นักเรียนเรียนรู้ภาษาอังกฤษ
Researcher	:	In your opinion, what factors are important for students to acquire a second language?

ครู L	:	ตัวนักเรียนเองค่ะ ถ้าเขาพร้อมที่จะเรียน อายุของเขาก็เช่นกัน
Teacher L	:	Students themselves, if they are ready to learn. Their ages as well.

ครู N	:	พื้นฐานของนักเรียน
Teacher N	:	Students' background.

ครู K	:	สภาวะแวดล้อม ทั้งที่โรงเรียนและก็ครอบครัว
Teacher K	:	Environment both school and family.

ครู O	:	ความสนใจของนักเรียน ถ้าเขามีความสนใจเขาก็รักที่จะเรียน
Teacher O	:	Students' interest. If they are interested in language they love to learn it.

ครู M	:	ทัศนคติของตัวนักเรียน ถ้าเขารักครูผู้สอน เขาก็จะตั้งใจมากขึ้น
Teacher M	:	Students' attitudes, if they love the teachers, they would pay more attention.

ผู้วิจัย	:	แล้วตัวครูละคะ คุณครูคิดว่าครูจะช่วยนักเรียนได้อย่างไรบ้าง เพื่อน ที่จะให้นักเรียนเกิดความเรียนรู้
Researcher	:	What about the teachers, do you think, how can teacher

support students in acquiring language?

ครู N	:	ต้องมีเทคนิคที่ดี เราต้องหาวิธีที่จะทำอย่างไรก็ได้ไม่ให้นักเรียนเบื่อ
Teacher N	:	Good technique. We have to do everything for not making students get bored.
ครู O	:	เราต้องรู้จักนักเรียนของเราก่อน ต้องเข้าใจว่าเขาต้องการอะไร
Teacher O	:	We have to know our students, understand their needs.

ครู M	:	ผู้ปกครองก็ต้องช่วยด้วยนะคะ
Teacher M	:	Parents have to help as well.

ผู้วิจัย	:	คุณครูคิดว่าภาษาที่ใช้ในการสอนมีส่วนสำคัญไหมคะ
Researcher	:	Do you think the language use in classroom plays an important role?

ครู K M N	:	ก็มีส่วนบ้าง
Teacher K, M, N:		Some

ผู้วิจัย	:	โดยปกติแล้วคุณครูใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในการสอนตลอดเวลาไหมคะ
Researcher	:	Normally, do you use English in class all the time?

ครู N	:	ตัวพี่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษตลอดเวลานะคะ แต่ก็ต้องระวังเด็กนักเรียนที่เล็กๆด้วย บางครั้งเราต้องใช้ภาษาไทยช่วยในการแปล นักเรียนก็จะเข้าใจได้ง่ายว่าคำๆนี้แปลว่าอะไร
Teacher N	:	I use English all the time. But I have to be more careful about young children. Sometimes we have to use Thai for translation, so they will understand easily what the words mean.

ครู L	:	ครูใช้ภาษาอังกฤษกับพวกคำสั่งง่ายๆ
Teacher L	:	I use English with easy command words.

ครู N	:	แต่ถ้าเราสอน grammar เราต้องใช้ภาษาไทยนะ
Teacher N	:	But when we teach grammar, we have to use Thai.

ครู O	:	ใช่ Grammar
Teacher O	:	Yes, grammar.

ครู K	:	สำหรับนักเรียนเล็กๆเนี่ย พี่ไม่สามารถใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ ได้มากเท่าไหร่
Teacher K	:	For young children, I cannot use much English.
ครู N	:	จริงๆแล้ว ทางหมวดภาษาอังกฤษมีนโยบายว่าให้ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในการสอนนะ คะ แต่พวกเราไม่ค่อยจะทำตามเท่าไหร่ แต่เราก็พยายามที่จะใช้
Teacher N	:	Actually, the English department has an English use policy but we are not dexterous. But we try to use it.

ผู้วิจัย	:	ครูคิดว่าทำไมเราถึงไม่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษกันเท่าไหร่คะ
Researcher	:	Do you think why we don't use much English?

ครู K	:	เราไม่มีพื้นฐานทางภาษาอังกฤษเท่าไหร่ เรากลัวเมื่อเวลา ที่ต้องพูด เหมือนกับว่า ไม่ต้องการที่จะผิดพลาด
Teacher K	:	We don't have a background in English. We are afraid when we have to talk, feel likedon't want to make mistake.

ครู M	:	ไม่ต้องการให้ใครมาบอกว่าทำไมเราอ่อนจัง มาเป็นครูภาษาอังกฤษ ได้อย่างไร ในเมื่อเราไม่มีโอกาสที่ได้ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษมาก เราก็เลยใช้มันไม่ถูก
Teacher M	:	We don't want anyone to judge that we have such a low level, how can we be English teachers. We don't have any opportunity to use thelanguage. Then we cannot use it correctly.

ครู L	:	เราไม่มั่นใจในตนเอง เราไม่มีความรู้ความสามารถที่จะใช้มันด้วย เราแม่น grammar นะ แต่เราไม่รู้ว่าจะต้องพูดอย่างไร
Teacher L	:	We are not confident in ourselves. We don't have enough knowledge to use it. We know grammar but we don't know how to talk.

ครู N	:	บางครั้งเมื่อเราออกเสียงคำบางคำออกไปเนี่ย แล้วนักเรียนไม่เข้าใจว่าเราพูดว่า อะไร มันรู้สึกว่า เอ๊ะ เราออกเสียงถูกรึเปล่านะ ก็เลยทำให้ไม่มั่นใจ และก็เลย ไม่อยากเสี่ยงอีก

Teacher N	:	Sometimes when we pronounce the words, students don't get what it is. I feelDo I pronounce correctly? I'm not sure. Then I don't want to risk it again.
ครู O	:	เมื่อเวลาที่ครูไม่มั่นใจ ก็จะเลือกที่จะไม่พูดชะดีกว่า นักเรียนสมัยนี้รู้มาก จะตายไป บางครั้งมากกว่าพี่ชะอีก พี่เลยไม่มั่นใจในตัวเอง
Teacher O	:	When I'm not sure I choose not to say it. Students know a lot, sometimes more than I do. I'm not so sure of myself.
ครู L	:	ใช่ เด็กที่นี่จะรวยมาก เขาก็จะไปต่างประเทศกันบ่อย บางครั้งเวลาพี่พูด คำบางคำออกไปเขาก็จะบอกว่า"ไม่ใช่ครูมันต้องอย่างนั้นไม่ใช่ครูมันต้องอย่างนี้" มันน่าอายจริงๆ
Teacher L	:	The students are very rich and they go abroad very often. When I say something, they say, "No, it's not that, it is this". It's embarrassing.
ผู้วิจัย	:	แล้วนักเรียนหล่ะคะ คุณครูคิดว่าทำไมครูถึงไม่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษเนื่องจาก นักเรียนบ้าง
Researcher	:	What about the students, do you have any idea why teacher don't use English because of the students?
ครู N	:	นักเรียนไม่เข้าใจแล้วก็ขอร้องให้เราใช้ภาษาไทย โดยเฉพาะเด็กอ่อนๆ นะคะ เขาไม่เข้าใจเลย
Teacher N	:	Students don't understand and ask us to use Thai. Especially, the low proficiency students, they don't understand at all.
ครู L	:	ใช่ค่ะ นักเรียนอ่อนๆเนี่ยจะไม่เข้าใจ แถมยังไม่ฟังอีกด้วย
Teacher L	:	Yes, the low proficiency students they don't understand and they don't listen.
ครู O	:	เราก็ต้องแปลให้เขา
Teacher O	:	We have to translate for them.

ครู M	:	นักเรียนเนี่ยจะอ่อนการฟังกันมาก แต่ถ้าเขาอ่านเขาจะเข้าใจ ถ้าพูดกับเขา ใช้ภาษาไทยจะง่ายกว่า
Teacher M	:	The students are poor in listening but if they read they could understand. If we talk to them, Thai is easier.
ครู O	:	ถ้าเราใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ พวกเขาก็จะไม่ฟัง แถมยังก่อกวนห้องเรียนเสียอีก เขาไม่เข้าใจ ที่เนี้ยก็เกิดปัญหาที่จะต้องควบคุมความประพฤติกันอีก
Teacher O	:	If we use English, they not only don't listen, but also disturb the class. They don't understand. When we were the problem of managing the discipline.
ผู้วิจัย	:	คุณครูใช้ภาษาอะไรควบคุมชั้นเรียนคะ
Researcher	:	What language do you use to manage the classes?
ครู K L M N O	:	ไทย (หัวเราะ)
K,L,M,N,O	:	Thai (Laugh).
ผู้วิจัย	:	ทำไมไม่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษละคะ
Researcher	:	Why not English?
ครู N	:	ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ ควบคุมชั้นเรียน ล้อเล่นรึเปล่าคะ (หัวเราะ)
Teacher N	:	Manage the discipline in English? Are you kidding? (Laughs)
ครู K	:	ใครจะมาฟังเรา (หัวเราะ)
Teacher K	:	Who is going to listen to you? (Laughs)
ครู L	:	ไม่มีทางเลยที่จะใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ
Teacher L	:	It's impossible to use English.
ครู O M	:	เป็นไปไม่ได้เลยค่ะ
Teacher O, M	:	Impossible.

ครู N	:	ถ้าเรามีนักเรียนสัก ๗ หรือ ๘ คน เราอาจจะใช้ได้บ้าง แต่นี่ ๕๐ คน โอ๊ย ไม่อยากนึกถึงเลยค่ะ (หัวเราะ)

Teacher N : If we have 7 or 8 students we can do that. But here 50. Wow I don't want to think about it. (Laughs)

ผู้วิจัย	:	แสดงว่าคุณครูคิดว่าจำนวนนักเรียนในห้องเนี่ยมีปัญหาต่อการใช้ภาษาอังกฤษด้วยเหรอคะ

Researcher : So, you think class size is the problem for using English?

ครู L	:	แน่นอนค่ะ นักเรียนมากเกินไป ยิ่งถ้าเราใช้ภาษาอังกฤษมากเท่าไหร่ เด็กก็จะคุยกันภาษาไทยให้แซด ควบคุมยากมาก

Teacher L : Absolutely, there are too many students. The more we use English, the more they talk to each other in Thai. Noisy, hard to manage.

ครู K	:	แล้วห้องเรียนส่วนใหญ่ก็จะคละความสามารถนักเรียนด้วย ถ้าเราใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ บางคนก็เข้าใจ บางคนก็จะไม่เข้าใจ เอาให้แน่ๆ ใช้ภาษาไทยดีกว่า ครูไม่คิดว่านักเรียนที่อ่อนๆ จะเข้าใจภาษาอังกฤษนะคะ

Teacher K : Most of the classes are mixed between the high and low proficiency. If we use English some of them might understand, but some may not. For sure, use Thai. I don't think the low proficiency can understand well in English.

ครู N	:	ห้องเรียนของพี่ห้องหนึ่ง ครึ่งห้องจะเป็นเด็กเก่ง ครึ่งห้องจะเป็นเด็กอ่อน ครูใหญ่บอกว่านักเรียนเก่งจะได้ช่วยนักเรียนที่อ่อน พอหมดเทอมกลายเป็นอ่อนทั้งห้องไป เลย(หัวเราะ) อย่างกรณีนี้ ถ้าใช้ภาษาอังกฤษเด็กอ่อนๆก็จะว่าๆไร้สาระ ก็จะชวนเด็กเก่ง เล่นหรือไม่ก็คุยซะเลย

Teacher N : One of my classes, half of them are high proficiency, half of them are low. The principal said the high one would help the low one. At the end of the semester, they all changed to low proficiency (laughs). This case if you use English the low will say it's nonsense and ask the high ones to play or chit chat.

ครู O	:	มันยากที่จะสอนห้องที่คละความสามารถ เขาไม่เหมือนกันนะคะ พี่ไม่แน่ใจว่าถ้า

ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษแล้วนักเรียนที่อ่อนจะเข้าใจไหม

Teacher O : It is difficult to teach the mixed ability class. They are not the same, I'm not sure if I use English, the low proficiency students would understand.

ครู L : พี่ว่าห้องที่คละความสามารถเนี่ยแย่ที่สุดเลย ถ้าคุณสอนห้องเด็กเก่งคุณอาจจะ ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษได้ หรือถ้าสอนห้องอ่อนก็ใช้ภาษาไทย แต่ห้องที่คละเนี่ย จะใช้ ภาษาอังกฤษก็ต้องคอยแปลให้เด็กอ่อนฟัง เสียเวลาตาย

Teacher L : I think the mixed ability class is the worst. If you teach the high proficiency class, you may use English. Or if you teach low proficiency class, you may use Thai. But for mixed ability class, if you want to use English, you have to translate to Thai for low proficiency one. It is a waste of time.

ครู M : สำหรับห้องคละ พี่ใช้ภาษาไทย เพื่อให้แน่ใจว่านักเรียนทั้งห้องเข้าใจ

Teacher M : For mixed ability class, I would use Thai to make sure that the whole class understand.

ครู N : ก็อย่างที่พี่บอกไปแล้ว ไม่น่าจะเป็นที่ว่าเด็กอ่อนหรือเด็กเก่ง มันน่าจะอยู่ที่เนื้อหา มากกว่า อย่างถ้าเราสอน grammar เราก็ต้องใช้ภาษาไทย เพราะมันซับซ้อนมา ก

Teacher N : As I said before, not because of the high or the low proficiency students, the content is more important. If we teach grammar we have to use Thai. It's too complex.

ผู้วิจัย : คุณครูแยกสอนไวยากรณ์ออกมาเลยรึเปล่าคะ

Researcher : Do you teach grammar separately?

ครู N : หลักสูตรก็เน้น grammar ข้อสอบก็ grammar ทุกอย่างล้วนแล้วแต่ grammar ทั้งนั้น แล้วเราจะต้องสอนอย่างอื่นที่นอกเหนือจาก grammar อีกทำไม

Teacher N : The curriculum is based on grammar. The exams are on grammar.

Everything is grammar. Why would we have to teach something else rather than grammar?

ครู O	:	นักเรียนเองเขาก็ต้องการให้เราสอน grammar อย่างที่บอกสอน grammar หมายถึงใช้ภาษาไทย และพี่ก็ เห็นด้วยว่าข้อสอบเน้นไปที่ grammar
Teacher O	:	Students also need us to teach grammar. Again teaching grammar means using Thai. I agree that the exams focus only on grammar.

ครู N	:	ใช่ พวกเขาก็ต้องการสอบผ่าน
Teacher N	:	Yes, they need to pass the exams.

ครู L	:	เขาไม่ค่อยคำนึงหรอกค่ะว่า ต้องพูดให้ดีให้เก่งในตอนนี้ แค่สอบผ่านก็พอ สอบ grammar นะคะ
Teacher L	:	They don't think about being the good speakers at this stage. Just to pass the test. The grammar test, I mean.(Laughs).

ผู้วิจัย	:	แต่จริงๆแล้วหลักสูตรไม่ได้ให้เน้น grammar นี่คะ
Researcher	:	Actually, the curriculum doesn't say that we need only teaching the grammar.
ครู K	:	ก็ถูกค่ะ เขาพูดถึงการสื่อสาร แต่จุดประสงค์ในหลักสูตรให้เน้นไปที่ grammar นักเรียนสามารถใช้ present perfect ได้ถูกต้อง นักเรียนสามารถใช้ tense นั้น tense นี้ได้ถูกต้อง เป็นการสื่อสารหรือคะ (หัวเราะ) ข้อสอบก็เลยต้องวัดนักเรียนแบบนั้น ก็ grammar อีกนั่นแหละค่ะ
Teacher K	:	Right. They say communication. But the objectives in the curriculum focus are on grammar.Students can use present perfect correctly.Students can use this tense that tense correctly. Are they communication? (Laughs). Then the test must evaluate students that way. Grammar again.

| ครู M | : | นักเรียนจะรู้แค่ว่าเขาต้องท่องจำ tense ให้ได้ทุก tense เขาต้องเรียนเฉพาะ grammar เราก็ต้องใช้ภาษาไทยในการสอน grammar แล้วนักเรียน ก็จะสอบผ่าน ของสอบที่มีแต่ grammar |

| Teacher M | : | Students know only that they have to memorise every tense. They need to learn only grammar. So we have to use Thai for teaching grammar. Then they can pass the grammar tests. |

ครู K : เขาไม่เห็นความสำคัญของการพูดหรอกค่ะ เพราะมันไม่มีในข้อสอบ

Teacher K : They don't see anything useful in the speaking skill. It's not in the test.

ผู้วิจัย : คุณครูเลยรู้สึกว่าเนื้อหา grammar มีผลต่อการใช้ภาษา

Researcher : You mean that teaching grammar affects the language use?

ครู K : แน่นอนค่ะ พี่คิดว่าการใช้ภาษาไทยในการสอน grammar จะเหมาะสมกว่า

Teacher K : Of course. I think using Thai for teaching grammar is more appropriate.

ครู L M : ใช่ค่ะ

Teacher L, M : Yes.

ครู L : ไม่ใช่เฉพาะ grammar นะคะ การอ่านและก็การแปลก็ต้องใช้ภาษาไทย แต่ grammar เป็นตัวหลักเลยที่ต้องใช้ภาษาไทย

Teacher L : Not only grammar, reading or translation must be Thai. But grammar is the main one to use Thai for.

ครู O : Grammar เป็นอะไรที่ซับซ้อนเกินกว่าที่จะใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ

Teacher O : Grammar is too complex to teach by using English.

ผู้วิจัย : ที่โรงเรียนมีครูฝรั่งรึเปล่าคะ

Researcher : Do they have native speaking teachers at this school?

ครู L : ๔ คนค่ะ

Teacher L : Four of them.

ผู้วิจัย : นักเรียนได้เรียนกับเขาไหมคะ

Researcher : Do students learn with them?

ครู N	:	เรียนค่ะ แล้วนักเรียนก็เข้าใจเขาด้วยนะคะ
Teacher N	:	Yes. And students can understand them very well.

ครู L	:	เขามักใช้ภาษาใบ้ หรือไม่ก็ศัพท์ง่ายๆ
Teacher L	:	They use mime or easy words.

ผู้วิจัย	:	เราทำอย่างนั้นบ้างได้ไหมคะ
Researcher	:	Can we do that?

ครู O	:	นักเรียนรู้อยู่แล้วว่าเราเป็นคนไทย เขาก็เลยไม่ต้องการพูดเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ และเขาก็คาดหวังว่าเราจะใช้ภาษาไทยด้วย มันเข้าใจง่ายกว่านะคะ
Teacher O	:	Students know that we are Thai, they don't want to talk in English and they expect us to use Thai, it's more understandable.

ครู K	:	พี่จะรู้สึกผิดถ้าเกิดว่าเราพูดอะไรผิดไป เพราะเด็ก ๆต้องการตัวอย่างที่ถูกต้องอย่างถ้าพี่พูดคำหรือประโยคผิด ๆออกไปนักเรียนก็จะจำในสิ่งผิด ๆ มันไม่น่าให้อภัยสำหรับครูนะ"
Teacher K	:	I feel guilty if I say something incorrectly. Students need a good model. If I say the wrong words or sentences, students might remember the wrong thing. That would be unforgivable for a teacher"

ผู้วิจัย	:	คุณครูมีข้อเสนอแนะอื่นๆอีกไหมคะ
Researcher	:	Do you have further comments?
ครู K	:	วิทยาลัยฝึกหัดครูควรสอนครูว่าจะต้องสอนภาษาอังกฤษอย่างไร
Teacher K	:	The teacher training in the university level should teach us how to use English in class.

ครู N	:	ใช่ค่ะ เขาไม่เคยพูดถึงเลย เราเลยไม่ทราบว่าการใช้ภาษาอังกฤษเป็นสิ่งจำเป็น ไม่แน่ป่านนี้เขาคงบอกเด็กใหม่ๆแล้วมั้ง
Teacher N	:	Yes. They never talk about it. We didn't know it was important to use English. Maybe these days they tell the in coming teachers.

ครู L	:	ยัง หนูพึ่งจบมาเมื่อ 3 ปีที่แล้ว เขายังไม่พูดถึงเลยค่ะ
Teacher L	:	Nol just graduated three years ago, they still didn't mention it.

ครู M	:	โรงเรียนฝึกหัดครูเนี่ยสำคัญนะคะ แล้วก็นโยบายของโรงเรียนก็สำคัญ ถ้าหัวหน้าบังคับให้ครูใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ ก็อาจจะพยายามมากขึ้น
Teacher M	:	The teacher training is important, I agree. Also the school policy as well. If the supervisor forces teachers to use English, they might try more.

ครู O	:	นโยบายของโรงเรียนน่าจะสำคัญกว่านะ ถ้าที่โรงเรียนฝึกหัดครูสอนให้เราใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในการสอน แต่ถ้าโรงเรียนไม่มีนโยบายนี้ เราก็อาจจะลืมๆใช้กันไปบ้าง
Teacher O	:	School policy (English only) is necessary. If the teacher training teaches us to use English but the school doesn't have this policy, we might forget and not use it.

APPENDIX C: Questionnaire schedule

แบบสอบถาม

โรงเรียนระดับ	ประถมเอกชน	ประถมรัฐบาล	มัธยมเอกชน	มัธยมรัฐบาล
เพศ	ชาย	หญิง		
อายุ	21-30 ปี	31-40 ปี	41-50 ปี	มากกว่า 50 ปี

ประสบการณ์การสอน

    1-5 ปี   5-10 ปี   10-15 ปี   15-20 ปี   มากกว่า 20 ปี

ประสบการณ์การสอนภาษาอังกฤษ

    1-5 ปี   5-10 ปี   10-15 ปี   15-20 ปี   มากกว่า 20 ปี

ท่านได้สำเร็จการศึกษาทางการสอนภาษาอังกฤษ   ใช่   ไม่ใช่

แบบสอบถามฉบับนี้ประกอบด้วย 3 ส่วน:

- ความเชื่อของครูเกี่ยวกับการใช้ภาษาในห้องเรียน

- ครูผู้สอนกับภาษา

- ข้อเสนอแนะ และข้อคิดเห็น

กรุณาตอบแบบสอบถามโดยการวงกลมล้อมรอบตัวเลขในแต่ละข้อที่ตรงกับความคิดเห็นของท่านมากที่สุด กรุณาอ่านข้อความในแต่ละข้อด้วยความระมัดระวัง คำตอบของท่านจะไม่ถูกนำไปเปิดเผยเป็นรายบุคคล หากท่านมีข้อเสนอใดๆ ในแต่ละข้อ ขอความกรุณาเพิ่มเติมได้ในส่วนของความคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติมในตอนท้ายของแต่ละข้อ อย่างไรก็ตามเพียงท่านเลือกตอบโดยการวงกลมคำตอบก็เป็นประโยชน์สำหรับผู้ทำการวิจัยเป็นอย่างยิ่งแล้ว

    1   หมายถึง ท่านมีความรู้สึกเห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง

    2   หมายถึง ท่านมีความรู้สึกเห็นด้วย

    3   หมายถึง ท่านมีความรู้สึกไม่เห็นด้วย

    4   หมายถึง ท่านมีความรู้สึกไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง

ตอนที่ 1 ความเชื่อของครูเกี่ยวกับการใช้ภาษาในห้องเรียน

กรุณาแสดงความคิดเห็นในแต่ละข้อเกี่ยวกับความเชื่อของท่านในการใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในห้องเรียน

1	หมายถึง	ท่านมีความรู้สึกเห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง
2	หมายถึง	ท่านมีความรู้สึกเห็นด้วย
3	หมายถึง	ท่านมีความรู้สึกไม่เห็นด้วย
4	หมายถึง	ท่านมีความรู้สึกไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง

1. ครูควรใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในการอธิบายไวยากรณ์ภาษาอังกฤษให้กับนักเรียน

    1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม...
....

2. ข้าพเจ้าเชื่อว่าในการเรียนการสอนภาษาอังกฤษ ครูผู้สอนควรจำกัดการใช้ภาษาไทยให้มากที่สุด

1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม...
....

3. การแจกแจงเกี่ยวกับตารางวิชาเรียน วันสอบ การงดคาบเรียน การชดเชยชั่วโมงเรียนวิชาภาษาอัง
   กฤษ ครูผู้สอนควรอธิบายให้นักเรียนฟังเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ

    1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม...
....

4. คำถามเกี่ยวกับรายละเอียดเนื้อหารวมถึงจุดประสงค์รายวิชาเกี่ยวกับวิชาภาษาอังกฤษ คุณครูควรใ
   ช้ภาษาไทยในการตอบคำถามนั้นๆของนักเรียน

    1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม...
....

5. ถ้าครูอธิบายไวยากรณ์อังกฤษเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ จะทำให้นักเรียนไม่สามารถเข้าใจเนื้อหาได้

        1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม...

....

6. ครูควรเสนอคำศัพท์ภาษาอังกฤษใหม่ๆ โดยการใช้ภาษาไทยช่วยในการแปล

        1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม...

....

7. ในชั่วโมงภาษาอังกฤษเนื้อหาเกี่ยวกับวัฒนธรรมอังกฤษควรนำเสนอเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ

        1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม...

....

8. ข้าพเจ้ามีความคิดว่าครูภาษาอังกฤษควรหลีกเลี่ยงการใช้ภาษาไทยในห้องเรียนวิชาภาษาอังกฤษ

        1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม...

....

9. ครูควรนำเสนอไวยากรณ์อังกฤษที่ยากเป็นภาษาไทยในตอนแรก

        1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม...

....

10. ครูควรตอบคำถามนักเรียนเป็นภาษาไทย เมื่อนักเรียนสงสัยเกี่ยวกับตารางวิชาเรียน วันสอบ การงด
    ดคาบเรียน การชดเชยชั่วโมงเรียนของวิชาภาษาอังกฤษ

1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม...

....

11. ข้าพเจ้ามีความเห็นว่าในห้องเรียนวิชาภาษาอังกฤษไม่ควรมีการใช้ภาษาไทยในการสอน

      1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม..

....

12. ครูควรสอนคำศัพท์อังกฤษใหม่โดยอธิบายเป็นภาษาอังกฤษทั้งหมด

      1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม..

....

13. ในชั่วโมงเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ เรื่องราวเกี่ยวกับวัฒนธรรมอังกฤษควรใช้ภาษาไทยในการนำเสนอ

      1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม..

....

14. ข้าพเจ้าคิดว่าในการเรียนการสอนภาษาอังกฤษ ครูผู้สอนควรใช้ภาษาไทยในการอธิบายเมื่อเห็นว่า

    สมควร

      1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม..

....

<u>ตอนที่ 2 ครูกับภาษา</u>

● ครูกับพื้นฐานทางภาษา

    กรุณาแสดงความคิดเห็นในแต่ละข้อเกี่ยวกับปัจจัยที่มีผลต่อการใช้ภาษาของครู

15. ในขณะที่ข้าพเจ้าเรียนหรืออบรมเกี่ยวกับการสอน ข้าพเจ้าได้รับการมุ่งเน้นให้หลีกเลี่ยงการใช้ภาษา

    ไทยในห้องเรียน

      1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม..

....

16. ข้าพเจ้ารู้สึกพึงพอใจกับสำเนียงการออกเสียงภาษาอังกฤษของข้าพเจ้า

      1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม...

....

17. ข้าพเจ้าไม่มีปัญหาในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษแต่ประการใด

      1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม...

....

18. ทางหมวดภาษาอังกฤษได้กระตุ้นให้ข้าพเจ้าใช้ภาษาอังกฤษตลอดเวลาเมื่อทำการสอนภาษาอังกฤษ

      1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม...

....

19. ในการเรียนหรือการอบรมการสอนภาษาอังกฤษที่ข้าพเจ้าได้รับ มุ่งเน้นการเรียนการสอนด้านไวยากรณ์อังกฤษเป็นหลักใหญ่

      1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม...

....

20. ข้าพเจ้าได้นำแบบอย่างการสอนของคุณครูในวิชาภาษาอังกฤษในระดับประถมศึกษาและมัธยมศึกษาของ

      ข้าพเจ้ามาเป็นต้นแบบการสอนภาษาอังกฤษของข้าพเจ้าในปัจจุบัน

      1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม...

....

21. ข้าพเจ้ารู้สึกประหม่าเมื่อต้องนำเสนอบทเรียนกับนักเรียนเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ

      1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม...
....

22. ข้าพเจ้ามีความรู้สึกไม่ถนัดที่จะอธิบายบทเรียนเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ

      1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม...
....

23. ข้าพเจ้าเกรงว่าจะเป็นตัวอย่างที่ไม่ดี   เมื่อนำเสนอบทเรียนเป็นภาษาอังกฤษแก่นักเรียน

      1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม...
....

24. ทางหมวดวิชาภาษาอังกฤษของทางโรงเรียนสามารถให้ใช้ได้ทั้งภาษาไทยหรือภาษาอังกฤษในการ
สอนวิชาภาษาอังกฤษ

      1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม...
....

25. ข้าพเจ้าไม่รู้สึกกลัวหรืออายหากข้าพเจ้าพูดภาษาอังกฤษไม่ถูกต้อง

1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม...
....

26. คุณครูที่สอนภาษาอังกฤษของข้าพเจ้าในระดับประถมศึกษาและมัธยมศึกษาไม่เคยพูดภาษาไทยใน
การ
สอนวิชาภาษาอังกฤษแต่อย่างใด

      1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม...
....

1 = เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง   2 = เห็นด้วย   3 = ไม่เห็นด้วย   4 = ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง

27. ข้าพเจ้ามีความสามารถทางภาษาอังกฤษอย่างดี โดยสามารถใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในการสอนโดยไม่ต้อง
    ใช้ภาษาไทยแต่อย่างใด

         1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม...

....

28. ในการเรียนหรือการอบรมการสอนภาษาอังกฤษ ข้าพเจ้าได้รับการแนะนำให้ใช้ทั้งภาษาไทยและภา
    ษาอังกฤษในการเรียนการสอนวิชาภาษาอังกฤษ

         1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม...

....

29. ข้าพเจ้ารู้สึกไม่มั่นใจในความสามารถของข้าพเจ้าที่จะสื่อสารโดยใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ จึงทำให้เกรงว่านั
    กเรียนจะจำแบบอย่างที่ไม่ถูกต้อง

         1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม...

....

30. คุณครูที่สอนภาษาอังกฤษของข้าพเจ้าในระดับประถมศึกษาและมัธยมศึกษาล้วนแล้วแต่เป็นตัวอย่า
    งที่ดี สำหรับข้าพเจ้าในการนำมาเป็นแบบในการสอนภาษาอังกฤษ

         1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม...

....

31. ข้าพเจ้าไม่สามารถสื่อสารโดยใช้ภาษาอังกฤษได้อย่างคล่องแคล่วพอที่จะสอนเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ
    ตลอดเวลาโดยไม่ต้องใช้ภาษาไทยช่วย

         1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม...

....

● **การใช้ภาษา**

กรุณาแสดงความคิดเห็นในแต่ละข้อเกี่ยวกับปัจจัยที่ท่านเลือกใช้ภาษาไทยหรืออังกฤษในห้องเรียน
วิชาภาษาอังกฤษ

32. ข้าพเจ้าใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในการอธิบายไวยากรณ์ภาษาอังกฤษใหม่ให้แก่นักเรียน

      1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม...
....

33. นักเรียนในห้องคาดหวังที่จะให้ข้าพเจ้าใช้ภาษาไทยในการสอน

      1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม...
....

34. นักเรียนในระดับเล็กไม่สามารถเข้าใจเมื่อข้าพเจ้าทำการสอนเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ

      1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม...
....

35. ในแต่ละห้องเรียนมีจำนวนนักเรียนมากเกินไป จึงเป็นการยากที่จะดำเนินการสอนวิชาภาษาอังกฤษ
   โดยใช้ภาษาอังกฤษตลอดเวลา

      1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม...
....

36. ข้าพเจ้าใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในการสอนวิชาภาษาอังกฤษให้กับนักเรียนที่อยู่ในเกณฑ์อ่อน

      1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม...
....

37. เนื้อหาและบทเรียนภาษาอังกฤษถูกจัดไว้ให้เหมาะสมกับเวลาในแต่ละภาคเรียน ข้าพเจ้าจึงสามารถ
สอนวิชาภาษาอังกฤษแก่นักเรียนโดยใช้ภาษาอังกฤษโดยไม่ต้องรีบเร่ง

    1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม..
....

38. ข้าพเจ้าต้องใช้ภาษาไทยในการสอนวิชาภาษาอังกฤษสำหรับนักเรียนที่อ่อน

    1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม..
....

39. ข้าพเจ้าใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในการสอนวิชาภาษาอังกฤษเพื่อเตรียมนักเรียนสอบเข้ามหาวิทยาลัย

    1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม..
....

40. ในห้องเรียนที่คละความสามารถของนักเรียนเก่งและอ่อนเหมาะสมที่จะใช้ภาษาไทยในการเรียนการ
สอนวิชาภาษาอังกฤษ

    1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม..
....

41. นักเรียนที่มีพื้นฐานความรู้ต่ำ จะไม่สามารถเข้าในเนื้อหาที่อธิบายเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ

    1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม..
....

42. ข้าพเจ้าจัดกิจกรรมในการสอนไวยากรณ์อังกฤษเป็นภาษาไทย

    1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม..
....

43. ข้อสอบส่วนมากไม่ได้วัดความสามารถทางทักษะฟังและพูด การใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในการสอนจึงไม่
จำเป็น

       1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม...

....

44. นักเรียนมีความต้องการที่จะให้ข้าพเจ้าใช้ภาษาอังกฤษมากกว่าภาษาไทย
ในการเรียนการสอนวิชาภาษาอังกฤษ

       1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม...

....

45. นักเรียนมีจุดมุ่งหมายในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษเพื่อผ่านการสอบ ดังนั้นครูควรอธิบายเนื้อหาเป็น
ภาษาไทย

       1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม...

....

46. ในแต่ละภาคการเรียน เนื้อหาของวิชาภาษาอังกฤษมีมากมาย ดังนั้นครูควรใช้ภาษาไทยในการสอน
วิชาภาษาอังกฤษเพื่อจะได้สอนครบตามเนื้อหาวิชา

       1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม...

....

47. นักเรียนที่อยู่ในเกณฑ์อ่อนไม่สามารถเข้าใจเมื่อข้าพเจ้าพูดภาษาอังกฤษกับพวกเขาในห้องเรียน
วิชาภาษาอังกฤษ

       1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม...

....

48. ข้าพเจ้าใช้ภาษาอังกฤษเพื่อควบคุมความประพฤติของนักเรียนในห้องเรียนวิชาภาษาอังกฤษ

      1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม..

....

49. นักเรียนระดับโต (ประถมปลาย-มัธยม) พอใจที่จะให้ข้าพเจ้าใช้ภาษาไทยในการอธิบายเนื้อหาวิชา
ภาษาอังกฤษ

      1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม..

....

50. ข้าพเจ้าจำเป็นต้องใช้ภาษาไทยในการสอนภาษาอังกฤษสำหรับนักเรียนระดับเล็ก

      1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม..

....

51. การใช้ภาษาอังกฤษอธิบายเนื้อหาในการสอนวิชาภาษาอังกฤษเหมาะกับห้องเรียนที่มีจำนวนนักเรียน
น้อย

      1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม..

....

52. นักเรียนส่วนใหญ่เข้าใจเนื้อหาทางไวยากรณ์ภาษาอังกฤษได้ง่ายขึ้น ถ้าครูอธิบายเป็นภาษาไทย

      1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม..

....

53. การสอนวิชาภาษาอังกฤษเพื่อเตรียมนักเรียนในการสอบเข้ามหาวิทยาลัยเหมาะสมที่จะใช้ภาษาไทย
ในการอธิบาย

      1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม..

....

54. ในวิชาการอ่านและการเขียนภาษาอังกฤษ ข้าพเจ้าคิดว่าครูควรอธิบายเนื้อหาเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ

    1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม...

....

55. ในห้องคละความสามารถนักเรียนทุกคนสามารถเข้าใจเนื้อหาที่สอนเป็นภาษาอังกฤษได้อย่างดี

    1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม...

....

56. เนื่องจากจุดมุ่งหมายของนักเรียนในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษคือการพัฒนาทักษะการฟังและการพูด ข้
    าพเจ้าจึงใช้ภาษาอังกฤษเป็นสื่อในการเรียนการสอน

    1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม...

....

57. การนำเสนอเนื้อหาเป็นภาษาไทยโดยครูผู้สอนมีความจำเป็นในการสอนนักเรียนที่มีพื้นฐานต่ำ

    1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม...

....

58. นักเรียนสามารถเข้าใจคำศัพท์และเนื้อหาภาษาอังกฤษที่ยากเมื่อได้รับฟังคำอธิบายเป็นภาษา
    อังกฤษ

    1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม...

....

59. เมื่อนักเรียนประพฤติตนไม่เรียบร้อยและก่อกวนความสงบในห้องเรียนวิชาภาษาอังกฤษ ข้าพเจ้า
    ต้องใช้ภาษาไทยในการควบคุม

    1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม...

....

60. ในวิชาภาษาอังกฤษ ข้าพเจ้าใช้ภาษาไทยในการแปลคำศัพท์ภาษาอังกฤษใหม่ให้นักเรียน

        1   2   3   4

ข้อคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม..

....

โปรดแสดงความคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติมเกี่ยวกับเหตุผลในการเลือกใช้ภาษาอังกฤษและภาษาไทย

ในการสอนภาษาอังกฤษ

....

....

....

....

....

....

ท่านคิดว่ามีปัจจัยใดบ้างที่ช่วยผลักดันให้ครูไทยใช้ภาษาอังกฤษมากที่สุด

และลดปริมาณการใช้ภาษาไทยในการสอนวิชาภาษาอังกฤษในห้องเรียน

....

....

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....

....

Questionnaire schedule

School :   Primary private   Primary public
                Secondary private   Secondary public

Gender: Male   Female

Age   :   21-30 years old   31-40 years old
                41-50 years old   more than 50

Teaching experiences: 1-5 years   5-10 years
                10-15 years   15-20 years   more than 20

English teaching experiences: 1-5 years   5-10 years
                10-15 years   15-20 years   more than 20

Do you have an English teaching major?   Yes   No

This questionnaire consists of 3 parts:
- Teachers' general beliefs about language use in the classroom
- Teachers and language in practice
- Open-ended questions

Please respond to the statements written below circling the numerical value which best illustrates how you feel about the statement in question. Please answer honestly and carefully. Spend time thinking about each answer. Your answers are anonymous. If you have further comment to make about any of the statements, please do so in the space provided; however do not feel under any obligation to do this - simply circling a numerical response is sufficient.

        1   =   Strongly agree
        2   =   Agree
        3   =   Disagree
        4   =   Strongly disagree

Part 1 : Teachers' general beliefs about language use in the classroom.

Please respond to each of the following statements about your beliefs regarding classroom language use.

$$
\begin{array}{rcl}
1 & = & \text{Strongly agree} \\
2 & = & \text{Agree} \\
3 & = & \text{Disagree} \\
4 & = & \text{Strongly disagree}
\end{array}
$$

1. Teachers should present new grammar lessons to their students in English.

   1   2   3   4

Comments..
....

2. I believe using Thai has a limited place in the English classroom.

   1   2   3   4

Comments..
....

3. Announcements about administrative matters are best made in English.

   1   2   3   4

Comments..
....

4. Teachers should answer in Thai to student questions about course material.

   1   2   3   4

Comments..
....

5. It is difficult for students to understand grammar introduced in English.

   1   2   3   4

Comments..
....

1 = Strongly Agree   2 = Agree   3 = Disagree   4 = Strongly Disagree

6. New English vocabulary should be presented using Thai translations.

    1   2   3   4

Comments...

....

7. Material about English culture should be presented in English.

    1   2   3   4

Comments...

....

8. I believe English teachers should avoid using Thai in their classrooms whenever possible.

    1   2   3   4

Comments...

....

9. It is better for teachers to present difficult English concepts in Thai.

    1   2   3   4

Comments...

....

10. Teachers should answer student questions about administrative issues in Thai.

    1   2   3   4

Comments...

....

11. In the English classroom, the use of Thai does not have a place.

    1   2   3   4

Comments...

....

12. Teachers should present new vocabulary in English.

       1   2   3   4

Comments...

....

13. Material about English culture should be presented in Thai.

       1   2   3   4

Comments...

....

14. It is appropriate for English teachers to use Thai in their classroom if the instructor considers it important.

       1   2   3   4

Comments...

....

Part 2 : Teachers and language in practice

- Teachers and language background

This section concerns about the background factors which effect teachers in language use.

15. During my professional development, I have been encouraged to avoid using Thai in classroom instruction.

       1   2   3   4

Comments...

....

16. I am satisfied with the quality of my English accent.

       1   2   3   4

Comments...

....

1 = Strongly Agree   2 = Agree   3 = Disagree   4 = Strongly Disagree

17. I don't have any problem speaking English.

 1   2   3   4

Comments..

....

18. My course supervisor never encourages me to use English exclusively in my teaching.

 1   2   3   4

Comments..

....

19. In my professional development, the teaching of language for communication was emphasised over the teaching of grammar.

 1   2   3   4

Comments..

....

20. I try to emulate the practice of those who taught me in my classroom instruction.

 1   2   3   4

Comments..

....

21. I often lack confidence in my ability to teach in English when necessary.

 1   2   3   4

Comments..

....

1 = Strongly Agree   2 = Agree   3 = Disagree   4 = Strongly Disagree

22. I have difficulty expressing myself in English in my classroom.

     1   2   3   4

Comments..

....

23. I am afraid of providing the students a poor model when I use English in class.

     1   2   3   4

Comments..

....

24. My course supervisor encourages me to use either Thai or English according to whichever suits my teaching the best.

     1   2   3   4

Comments..

....

25. I am not afraid of making mistakes when I speak in English.

     1   2   3   4

Comments..

....

26. My own language teachers never used Thai in their instruction.

     1   2   3   4

Comments..

....

27. My English is sufficiently fluent so that I can lead my class without using Thai.

     1   2   3   4

Comments..

....

28. In my professional development, I have been encouraged to use both English and Thai in my teaching.

     1   2   3   4

Comments...

....

29. I am unsure of my ability to communicate in English so that the students will receive the poor model.

     1   2   3   4

Comments...

....

30. My own language teachers have served as positive role models for my teaching.

     1   2   3   4

Comments...

....

31. I am not fluent enough in English to teach my classes without using Thai.

     1   2   3   4

Comments...

....

- **Factors of language chosen**

This section relates to the degree of language, Thai or English, which you use in English classes. Also the factors of choosing the language usage.

32. I introduce new grammatical concepts in my classes in English.

     1   2   3   4

Comments...

....

1 = Strongly Agree   2 = Agree   3 = Disagree   4 = Strongly Disagree

33. My students expect me to use Thai for instruction.

     1   2   3   4

Comments...

....

34. Young students do not understand the lesson if I use English.

     1   2   3   4

Comments...

....

35. There are too many students in class to use English as the medium of instruction.

     1   2   3   4

Comments...

....

36. I give instructions in English to students with low English proficiency.

     1   2   3   4

Comments...

....

37. There is plenty of time to cover the course content for English instruction in a
    semester.

     1   2   3   4

Comments...

....

38. I use Thai in class because of the students' low English proficiency.

     1   2   3   4

Comments...

....

1 = Strongly Agree   2 = Agree   3 = Disagree   4 = Strongly Disagree

39. I give instructions in English to prepare students for a university entrance examination.

     1   2   3   4

Comments...
....

40. In the mixed ability classroom, the use of Thai is more appropriate.

     1   2   3   4

Comments...
....

41. Students have inadequate background to understand contents presented in English.

     1   2   3   4

Comments...
....

42. I give instructions in Thai for English grammar lessons.

     1   2   3   4

Comments...
....

43. As most exams do not evaluate speaking and listening skills, it is not necessary to use English for instruction.

     1   2   3   4

Comments...
....

1 = Strongly Agree   2 = Agree   3 = Disagree   4 = Strongly Disagree

44. My students prefer that I use English when I teach it.

     1   2   3   4

Comments..

....

45. Since most students' objectives for learning English is to pass the exams, the use
of Thai is more feasible for teaching it.

     1   2   3   4

Comments..

....

46. As there are many topics to finish in one semester, it is more efficient to use Thai.

     1   2   3   4

Comments..

....

47. Low proficiency students don't understand me when I speak English to them.

     1   2   3   4

Comments..

....

48. I speak English when managing student behaviour.

     1   2   3   4

Comments..

....

1 = Strongly Agree   2 = Agree   3 = Disagree   4 = Strongly Disagree

49. Older learners prefer me to use Thai.

     1   2   3   4

Comments..

....

50. I must use Thai when teaching young students.

     1   2   3   4

Comments..

....

51. The use of English is easier with a small class.

     1   2   3   4

Comments..

....

52. It is easier for students to understand complex English grammar using Thai.

     1   2   3   4

Comments..

....

53. It is feasible to use Thai for teaching English to prepare the students for a
university entrance examination.

     1   2   3   4

Comments..

....

54. I explain new reading story by using Thai translation.

     1   2   3   4

Comments..

....

55. All students in mixed ability classroom can understand the lesson presented in English.

      1   2   3   4

Comments...

....

56. Since students learn English because they need to improve speaking and listening skills, the use of English for instruction is necessary.

      1   2   3   4

Comments...

....

57. The use of Thai is necessary for the students who have inadequate English background.

      1   2   3   4

Comments...

....

58. Students understand the difficult words or concepts in their English textbooks with an English explanation.

      1   2   3   4

Comments...

....

59. When students behave badly, I manage the class in Thai.

      1   2   3   4

Comments...

....

1 = Strongly Agree   2 = Agree   3 = Disagree   4 = Strongly Disagree

60. I use Thai translation when presenting new English vocabulary to my students.

           1   2   3   4

Comments...

....

Part 3: Open-ened questions

Do you have any further comments regard to language use by Thai teachers of English?

....

....

....

....

....

....

....

What would encourage you the use English in language classrooms?

....

....

....

....

....

....

....

....

....

....

....

APPENDIX D: Categories of responses of focus groups

	Categories of responses	Primary		Secondary		Total
		Private	Public	Private	Public	
1.	Teachers' low language proficiency	5	5 ·	5	5	20
2.	Teachers' language anxiety	5	1	5	5	16
3.	Students' own reasons for studying English	5	0	5	5	15
4.	Low proficiency students	5	0	4	5	14
5.	Students' bad behaviour	5	0	4	5	14
6.	Mixed ability classes	5	0	4	5	14
7.	Grammar content	5	0	4	5	14
8.	Exam focus on grammar	5	0	4	5	14
9.	Inadequate teacher training	4	0	5	5	14
10.	Students' expectation for teachers using Thai	2	0	5	5	12
11.	Large class sizes	2	0	4	3	9
12.	The grammar-based university entrance examination	0	0	3	5	8
13.	Teachers lack of confidence in the target language	2	1	2	2	7
14.	Translating difficult content	3	0	2	2	7
15.	Too much content for the time available	0	0	4	2	6
16.	The lack of encouragement within the English department for using English	2	0	0	2	4
17.	Young age students	2	0	0	0	2
18.	Teachers' fear of providing the poor model	1	0	0	0	1
19.	Students' inadequate background knowledge	0	0	0	0	1
20.	The effects of teachers' own schooling on their classroom practice	0	0	1	0	1

	Categories of responses	Primary		Secondary		Total
		Private	Public	Private	Public	
Teachers' self awareness	Low level of language proficiency	5	5	5	5	20
	Language anxiety	5	1	5	5	16
	Lack of confidence in the target language	2	1	2	2	7
	Fear of providing the poor model	1	0	0	0	1
Teachers' background experience	The effects of teachers' own schooling on their classroom practice	0	0	1	0	1
	Inadequate teachers training	4	0	5	5	14
Issues pertaining to the students	Low level of language proficiency	5	0	4	5	14
	Young age	2	0	0	0	2
	Inadequate background knowledge	0	0	0	1	1
	Students' expectations for teachers using Thai	2	0	5	5	12
	Students own reasons for studying English	5	0	5	5	15
Classroom management	Large class sizes	2	0	4	3	9
	Mixed ability classes	5	0	4	5	14
	Bad behaviour	5	0	4	5	14
Content	Grammar content	5	0	4	5	14
	Translating difficult contents	3	0	2	2	7
	Too much content for the time available	0	0	4	2	6
Examinations	The focus on grammar	5	0	4	5	14
	The grammar-based university entrance examination	0	0	3	5	8
Departmental policies	The lack of encourage for using English	2	0	0	2	4

APPENDIX E: Sample of lower-secondary entrance examination

Choose the correct answer

1. He likes to wear..................in summer.
   a.   a short
   b.   short
   c.   shorts
   d.   shortes

2. Malee can catch four ....
   a.   salmons
   b.   salmones
   c.   salmonies
   d.   salmon

3. The afternoon class .... a very intelligent one.
   a.   were
   b.   is
   c.   am
   d.   are

4. There are 31 days in .... July.
   a.   a
   b.   an
   c.   the
   d.   no article

5. It is very cold in .... winter in .... Canada.
   a.   the, the
   b.   no article, no article
   c.   no article, the
   d.   the, no article

6. ....................U.S.A is composed of 52 states.
   a.   a
   b.   an
   c.   the
   d.   no article

7. Dang likes to wear ....
   a.   shirt red cotton
   b.   red cotton shirt
   c.   cotton red shirt
   d.   cotton shirt red

8. She doesn't have .... money.
   a.   little
   b.   few
   c.   much
   d.   many

9. Barry cut .... when he cooked.
   a.   his
   b.   hiself
   c.   hims
   d.   himself

10. We went to the restaurant .... the food was good.
    a.   whom
    b.   whose
    c.   where
    d.   which

11. The man .... house at the river is very rich.
    a.   who
    b.   whom
    c.   whose
    d.   that

12. I haven't .... sugar.
    a.   some
    b.   any
    c.   one
    d.   ones

13. .... car do you like best? The red one or the black one.
    a.   Which
    b.   What
    c.   Whose
    d.   When

14. This is my pocket-money. Thai is ....
    a.   your
    b.   yours
    c.   you
    d.   yous

15. I put .... purse on the table.
   a.   me   b.   mine
   c.   myself   d.   my

16. Each of them can solve .... problem.
   a.   his   b.   himself
   c.   their   d.   themselves

17. Dang runs very ....
   a.   fast   b.   fastly
   c.   faster   d.   fastest

18. She speaks English ....
   a.   good   b.   gooder
   c.   well   d.   better

19. She is a .... speaker.
   a.   good   b.   gooder
   c.   well   d.   better

20. Which road is .... this or that?
   a.   narrower   b.   more narrow
   c.   narrowest   d.   most narrow

21. This is .... book in this class.
   a.   the oldest   b.   the older
   c.   the eldest   d.   the elder

22. I .... to Europe last week.
   a.   go   b.   went
   c.   goes   d.   going

23. Somsri .... at 6.30 every day.
   a.   get up   b.   getting up
   c.   gets up   d.   got up

24. I will .... to America next month.
   a.   going   b.   goes
   c.   go   d.   went

25. Somsak can ....
   a.   swim   b.   swims
   c.   swimes   d.   swam

26. Chatchai used to .... in Australia in 1982.
   a.   lives   b.   lived
   c.   live   d.   living

27. Please quiet! My son ....
   a.   sleeps   b.   sleeping
   c.   has slept   d.   is sleeping

28. He .... up the new word right now.
   a.   look   b.   looks
   c.   lookes   d.   is looking

29. Dara often .... dinner at 7.00.
   a.   cooking   b.   cook

c. cooks   d. cooked

30. Our English teacher .... us an examination yesterday.
    a. give   b. gived
    c. gave   d. was giving

31. I have been in Australia .... two years.
    a. for   b. since
    c. in   d. about

32. I have been in Australia .... 1985.
    a. for   b. since
    c. in   d. about

33. I .... Tom for many years.
    a. know   b. known
    c. have known   d. knowing

34. A cold wind .... for the last three days.
    a. blew   b. has blown
    c. have blown   d. blown

35. We .... him several times this week.
    a. has burnt   b. have burnt
    c. burn   d. burned

36. I .... my parents tomorrow.
    a. visit   b. visits
    c. will visit   d. have visit

37. It ....very much in the rainy season.
    a. will be raining   b. will rain
    c. is raining   d. rains

38. I .... my watch and damaged it last Sunday.
    a. have dropped   b. had dropped
    c. was dropping   d. dropped

39. Jan .... out of the hospital next week.
    a. comes   b. will be coming
    c. has come   d. will come

40. I .... Gory a letter an hour ago.
    a. had sent   b. have sent
    c. sent   d. was sending

41. She .... a cold bath every day.
    a. will have   b. is having
    c   had   d. has

42. We .... go shopping this afternoon.
    a. are going to   b. go
    c. have gone   d. will be going to

43. A: .... animal has a very long neck?
    B: Giraffe

a.	Whose	b.	What
c.	How	d.	When

44. A: .... did she go to church?
    B: Because she wanted to.

a.	When	b.	Why
c.	How	d.	What

45. A: .... is she going?
    B: To France.

a.	Where	b.	How
c.	What	d.	Which

46. A: .... bottle has exploded?
    B: It's Bill's.

a.	What	b.	Which
c.	Whose	d.	When

47. A: .... is Mr. Baker?
    B: About sixty.

a.	How	b.	How for
c.	What	d.	How old

48. A: .... do you go to school?
    B: I go to school by bus.

a.	How	b.	What
c.	When	d.	Where

49. A: For .... was he waiting?
    B: I think he is waiting for you.

a.	Who	b.	Which
c.	Whose	d.	Whom

50. A: ....is Mrs. Theera?
    B: She is a teacher.

a.	What	b.	Who
c.	Whose	d.	How

APPENDIX F: Sample of upper-secondary entrance examination

Read the story and choose the best answer (Item 1-10)

The other day Roy Prince went "home" to his sister's house. It's her home now but it's also the house he was born in. Pat, his sister kissed him and said "You haven't changed much, Roy let me see, now-when did we meet last?" "Twenty-five years age" he answered. "I came here for a week, do you remember?" He added, "You haven't changed much either." It wasn't true. Pat seemed an old lady.

Next morning Roy walked through the village alone. It looked very different. There were lots of traffic signs on and beside the road. There were a new car park, a new post office, a new bus. He remembered that the bus used to stop everywhere. The railway station was gone. The school was gone, a lot of farm machinery stood in the playground.

Roy didn't recognise any of the people at all perhaps because everyone seemed old. He went into the post office and bought some stamps "Where are all the children and the young people?" he asked the postmaster. "Childern?" The postmaster said, "They' re in school, of course. There are three or four young families here. The children go to school by bus to Horham-twenty kilometres away".

At lunch pat said, "The village looks nice, doesn't it?

"It's all different, Pat. It used to be an exciting place, but now it's full of old people I don't understand...."

"There are a few newcomers; but the one we knew are still here. You' re not exactly young yourself, Roy, are you?

1. The house belongs to Pat now but _____ .
    a. it used to belong to Roy
    b. Roy grew up there
    c. her parents never lived there
    d. she wants to five it to Roy

2. Pat and Roy have been parted _____.
    a. since they were babies
    b. for the last twenty-five years
    c. due to a family disagreement
    d. for most of their lives

3. Roy actually thought that Pat was _____.
    a. looking quite young
    b. just as he had last seen her
    c. unchanged
    d. looking quite old

4. Roy noticed that _____.
    a. the village was no longer the same
    b. everyone recognised him
    c. he was alone in the village
    d. there had been few changes

5. When Roy had been younger there had been _____.
    a. lots of cars   b. fewer roads
    c. few automobiles   d. no post office

6. The bus was different now because it _____.
    a. stopped anywhere   b. had no certain route
    c. was new   d. only stopped at bus stops

7. Roy was surprised to see _____.
    a. car park where the railway used to be
    b. farm machinery where he used to play
    c. a new school
    d. children playing on machines

8. Roy didn't know anyone because _____.
   a. they were too old for him to recognise them
   b. all the people in the village were young
   c. all his friends had died
   d. his eyesight was failing

9. Roy was surprised because _____.
   a. he had to speak to the postmaster
   b. there weren't any young people around
   c. the trip to the school was so far away
   d. there weren't many young families in town

10. Roy's problem was that _____.
    a. he couldn't find his way around the town
    b. the town was too boring for him
    c. he hadn't accepted the fact that he'd grown older too
    d. his sister, Pat had got as old as the town

Read the passages and choose the best item for each blank. (Item 11-30)

My mother and I went to the airport to meet some friends of hers plane landed but they weren't on it.

" __(11)__ if there is a message for us," my mother said.

"They__(12)__her plane. Or perhaps they__(13)__ from coming for some reason"

After__(14)__information at the information office with out success, I had an idea" __(15)__ their letter?" I asked my mother. She__(16)___it in her handbag.

"Here you are" she said "We __(17)__ at 10 o' clock on the 4th and __(18)__us"

"But today's the 5th" I said. "We should have looked at the date before __(19)__ we wouldn't have came for nothing".

"How silly" my mother said "I __(20)__ this letter around for days without looking at it!"

11.	a.	let's see	b.		let's to see
	c.	Will we see	d.		We're seeing
12.	a.	Can have lost	b.		Can have missed
	c.	May have lost	d.		may have missed
13.	a.	have been avoided	b.		would be prevent
	c.	have been prevented	d.		would be avoided
14.	a.	asked	b.		to ask
	c.	asking for	d.		being asked with
15.	a	do you bring	b.		Do you already have
	c.	Have you yet got	d.		Have you still got
16.	a.	met	b.		looked
	c.	found	d.		searched
17.	a.	are arriving	b.		would arrive
	c.	will have arrived	d.		arrived
18.	a.	want you to wait	b.		want that you look for
	c.	would like you to meet	d.		would like that you find
19.	a.	tomorrow	b.		she came
	c.	today	d.		the 4th

20. a. am carrying   b. have been carrying
     c. carry   d. have to carry

When I go to a zoo, we walk round and look at animals in cages. However, there is __(21)__ of zoo in which the animals are free but the people are in cages.

In Europe, America and other places __(22)__ animals such as; lions and tigers are kept in large fenced areas. The animals are free to move about but they cannot __(23)__ the fences because they are too high. Visitors can drive through these "zoo" but are warned that they must __(24)__ the windows of their cars closed.

21. a. set   b. type
     c. model   d. group

22. a. small   b. tame
     c. wild   d. brown

23. a. get   b. climb up
     c. jump on   d. run along

24. a. shut   b. hold
     c. put   d. keep

When we think of space, we imagine rockets and space-ships. The first man to attempt to travel in space was Swiss, Auguste Piccard. He did not ascend in a spaceship but in something quite different!

In 1931 Piccard built a large __(25)__ more than thirty yards wide. It was made of cotton and rubber. Beneath the balloon he hung an airtight aluminium __(26)__. When the balloon rose into the __(27)__ it lifted the sphere. Piccard and __(28)__ assistant, who were inside, were lifted off the ground and carried up into __(29)__ Piccard discovered many interesting things about the atmosphere high __(30)__ the earth's surface.

25. a. done   b. bag
     c. balloon   d. container

26. a. vehicle   b. sphere
     c. craft   d. container

27. a. emptiness   b. clouds
     c. cir   d. space

28. a. such   b. other
     c. an   d. his

29. a. space   b. universe
     c. atmosphere   d. galaxy

30. a. beyond   b. above
     c. up   d. on

Read the advertisement and choose the best answer for each question
(Item 31-35)

```
              PEE PEE Island
Seaside language For sale
At pee pee island
The best location for resort project
35 rai, 320. metres sea
Frontage: Asking B 2 million
Contact: Pisarn, Tel. : 314-2934
```

```
Land for sale
Panya resort
Country Club
B 1.5 million
Tel: 258-9562-4
American
Appraisal
```

31. You want to buy a piece of land near the sea for your fish factory which phone number should you call first?
        a.   235-2544   b.   258-9562
        c.   314-2934   d.   390-0504

32. You can't find the land you want and you need some help. Which advertisement might be able to help you? Choose the number you should call.
        a.   235-2544   b.   290-0504
        c.   573-6735   d.   314-2934

33. You want to buy a piece of property near Bangkok, that is about 50 rai in size which will you telephone?
        a.   Pee Pee Island   b.   Industrial land for sale
        c.   Minburi-Chachoengsao road.   d.   Punya resort

34. Which of the following advertisements is selling the land at about B 80,000 per rai?
        a.   Pee Pee Island   b.   Industrial Land For Sale
        c.   Americal Appraisal   d.   Panya resort

35. You want to build hotel somewhere that is well-liked by tourists. Which advertisement will you contact first?
        a.   Industrial Land for sale   b.   American Appraisal
        c.   Pee Pee Island   d.   Panya resort

Read the questions and choose the best answers (Item 36-40)

36. Which item completes this sentence?
    The restaurant is famous for its _____.
        a.   charcoal boiled chicken   b.   chicken boiled charcoal
        c.   boiled charcoal chicken   d.   chicken charcoal boiled

37. Which group of letters shows the correct order of words to complete this?
    He has _____.
        1.   Than I do   2.   To catch up
        3.   So many more books   4.   That I'll never be able
        a.   3,2,1,4   b.   2,4,3,1
        c.   4,2,1,3   d.   3,1,4,2

38. Which sentence is grammatically correct?
    a. on the corner on the tenth floor of the building is his office.
    b. of the building on the tenth floor on the corner his office is.
    c. His office is on the tenth floor of the building on the corner.
    d. His office on the tenth floor of the building is on the corner.

39. Which sentence has the same meaning as the HEAD sentence. I can hardly take her out tonight.
    a. I'm not sure if you can go out with her.
    b. I'm sure I can go out with her.
    c. I'm afraid because I cannot take her out.
    d. I'm sure I can not go out with her.

40. How many mistakes can you find in this sentence?
    on the five of January last year i leave for england

    a. four
    b. five
    c. six
    d. seven

Choose the group of words from the list to fill in each blank of conversation. One item can be used only once. Write only letters (A to J) as your answers. Do not write the words.

List of groups of words   A. like the heat
                           B. like my clothing
                           C. how are you
                           D. Are you good at it
                           E. get tired of it
                           F. I don't like it much either
                           G. it's very good
                           H. what's your favourite weather
                           I. very well
                           J. you get bored

Mary	:	Good morning, Mrs. Jones.
Anne	:	Good morning, __(41)__?
Mary	:	Fine, thank you. And you?
Anne	:	__(42)__. I'm really enjoying the weather.
Mary	:	You are? But __(43)__.
Anne	:	Oh, it may feel that way to you but to me it's so much better than the heat.
Mary	:	Don't you __(44)__?
Anne	:	Sometimes, but I __(45)__.
Mary	:	You mean you get sleeply?
Anne	:	No, not at all. It's that it's always the same.
Mary	:	Oh, __(46)__.
Anne	:	Yes, exactly. I find the weather boring
Mary	:	I don't think the rainy season `(47)__.
Anne	:	No __(48)__.
Mary	:	Why don't you like it?
Anne	:	Nothing gets really dry __(49)__.
Mary	:	My mother says the same thing.
Anne	:	__(50)__?
Mary	:	Yes, I've even won some prizes.