

**Thai EFL University Teachers' Beliefs and  
Practices in Relation to Teaching Speaking Skills**

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## **Abstract**

It is now widely accepted that teachers' beliefs have a great influence on teachers' practices and investigating the sources of teacher beliefs and the relationship between beliefs and practices can be beneficial for professional growth. Despite work on teachers' beliefs in aspects, such as the teaching of grammar, limited research has been carried out to date on the aspect of the teaching of speaking skills (Borg, 2003; Yue'e & Yunzhang, 2011). The current study is one of the first to explore teachers' beliefs and practices in the area of teaching speaking skills in the Thai EFL context. It investigated six Thai in-service EFL university teachers' beliefs and practices in relation to teaching speaking skills, the sources forming their teachers' beliefs in relation to teaching speaking skills and the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices. A qualitative research design was employed with a multiple case study following an iterative approach. Semi-structured interviews were used at two stages along with non-participant observations and stimulated-recall interviews. The participants were selected through a purposive sampling method, which selected teachers with responsibility for developing their students' speaking skills. Findings indicate that teachers' beliefs and practices were consistent in terms of traditional approaches, such as linking the development of speaking skills with an explicit grammar focus, based predominantly on controlled practice. Moreover, beliefs such as following native English speaker models (Snodin & Young, 2015), were also transferred into their practices. Consistent with many previous studies, experiences as learners and teaching experiences were the most important sources of teachers' beliefs. At the same time, the findings indicate that teacher education programmes and continuing professional development were not particularly influential in terms of beliefs or practices. The findings reveal that the participants' core beliefs, their self-efficacy beliefs, and their sense of responsibility beliefs were a predictor of their classroom practices. However, instances of divergence between teachers' beliefs and practices were also observed and found to relate to both internal factors and contextual factors. Internal factors included core and peripheral beliefs, contradictory beliefs, and a limited teaching knowledge, whereas the contextual factors included students' low ability, time constraints, teaching materials and negative washback. Thus, there are important implications for educators to revisit their curricula and to improve the design and content of their training courses and teacher educational programmes to match these teacher needs in order for beliefs to better correlate with best practices in the field.

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## **Author's declaration**

I declare that this thesis is a presentation of original work and I am the sole author. This work has not previously been presented for an award at this, or any other, University. All sources are acknowledged as References.

# Chapter 1 Introduction

This chapter presents a detailed rationale for the study including my personal interest which provided my motivation to carry out this study. It outlines Thai EFL students' low level of speaking proficiency, challenges Thai EFL university teachers to improve their speaking instruction and explores the importance of researching teachers' beliefs and practices regarding speaking instruction. An overview of the context of this study, which provides a better understanding of English language instruction in the Thai educational system, including at tertiary level, is presented. Moreover, the aims of the study and research questions are then expressed in detail. Additionally, the significance of the study is discussed, followed by an explanation of the structure of this thesis.

## 1.1 Rationale

This section presents many reasons for conducting this study including my personal interest in developing speaking instruction, a need to enhance Thai students' English speaking proficiency, and development of Thai teachers' speaking instruction and the importance of researching of teachers' beliefs and practices regarding teaching speaking skills to improve speaking instruction.

### 1.1.1 Personal interest

As a teacher who was responsible for English speaking courses for teaching Thai EFL university students, I was personally interested in how to improve my speaking instruction and increase my students' speaking skills. In my teaching experience, although, my students' speaking skills were improved to some extent after taking speaking courses, many of them were still unable to speak English for actual communication outside the classroom. It was hoped that conducting research in the area of teachers' beliefs and practices in speaking instruction could help extend my knowledge relating to teaching speaking through related extant literature and gain insights into what other Thai EFL university teachers believed and how they taught speaking skills. The findings gained from this study not only provided useful information for developing my own speaking instruction, but it also helped present valuable data for other teachers.

Personally, as a Thai EFL teacher, I questioned my beliefs regarding teaching speaking skills. I realised that I believed in using communicative activities to promote students' speaking skills reflecting the use of communicative language approach. My beliefs also included

balancing both students' accuracy and fluency and using the target language in the classroom to expose my students to the target language; however, I found that my beliefs were not always transferred into practices. Sometimes, I had to focus on students' accuracy by asking them to do the grammar exercise instead of asking them to do communicative activities due to some factors such as large class size, time constraints and students' low level of English proficiency. I realised that I could not speak the target language as much as I expected because my students could not understand the lesson. This made me wonder what other Thai EFL teachers' beliefs in relation to speaking instruction were and whether they could transfer their beliefs into their classroom practices. More importantly, what were the factors that supported or interfered with the link between them? My personal experience inspired me to conduct research regarding Thai EFL teachers' beliefs and practices regarding teaching speaking skills.

Therefore, my position in this study was an insider researcher who shared the characteristics and experiences of the study participants. As an insider researcher, the participants were more likely to provide in-depth information as they felt more open to share their important data. On the other hand, it is possible for the researcher's perception to be contaminated by sharing their own personal experiences with the participants (Dwyer & Buckle, 2009). Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011) suggested that reflexivity is important for an insider researcher. They explained that "researchers should acknowledge and disclose their own selves in the research, seeking to understand their part in, or influence on, the research. Rather than trying to eliminate researcher effect..." (p. 225) because the research effect cannot be avoided if the researcher is part of the world they are exploring. Consequently, reflexivity was employed to make my position as transparent as possible with the hope of inspiring confidence in the trustworthiness of my findings and interpretations.

While this section has discussed the rationale for conducting the study in terms of my personal interests, the next section presents it in terms of the need to improve English speaking teaching and learning in the Thai EFL context.

### **1.1.2 Demand for improving Thai students' speaking proficiency and Thai EFL teachers' speaking instruction**

Among all of the countries in the Association of Southeast Asia Nations (ASEAN), Thailand is the only country that has never been colonised (Baker, 2012; Fry, 2002; Wiriyaichitra, 2002). Therefore, Thai is regarded as the official language of the nation and is used by Thai citizens all over the country (Hengsadeeikul, Hengsadeeikul, Koul, & Kaewkuekool, 2010). With the concept of nationality and stability, English cannot be officially used as a second language;

however, it is considered a foreign language (Darasawang, 2007; Hiranburana, 2017; Trakulkasemsuk, 2018) and became the first foreign language widely taught in schools and higher education (Baker & Jarunthawatchai, 2017; Wiriyachitra, 2002).

English plays a significant role as a medium for communication in Thailand, which is similar to other developing countries. Due to globalisation and modern technology, English continues to be used in many areas including business, science and education (Wiriyachitra, 2002). Apart from this, intensified by the economic crisis in Thailand in the late 1990s, many companies have experienced regional and international collaborations and mergers; as a result, the Thai people need to communicate in English not only with native English speakers but also other non-native English speakers (Hiranburana, 2017; Wiriyachitra, 2002).

Interestingly, in 2007, all leaders from the ten-member ASEAN countries (Thailand, Brunei, Cambodia, Laos, Indonesia, Burma, the Philippines, Singapore, and Vietnam) agreed to establish an 'ASEAN Community' in 2015. Furthermore, the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) was also founded in the same year in order to strengthen this region's economic growth by allowing a free flow of products, investment, well trained workers, capital and services (ASEAN Secretariat, 2008). Importantly, English is used as a lingua franca in the ASEAN community as all of ten different member countries have used different mother tongues (Ploywattanawong & Trakulkasemsuk, 2014). Under the influence of AEC, the requirement for people with professional skills and fluent English is ever increasing (Teng & Sinwongsuwat, 2015).

With a great demand for those who can communicate in English, the Thai educational system has worked to improve Thai students' English proficiency (Hengsadeeikul et al. 2010; Khamkhien, 2010a). Higher education has also emphasised to prepare Thai graduates for competition in the ASEAN Economic Community (Bunwirat, 2017). Moreover, the Ministry of Education aims to make Thailand an international education hub for students in the region by improving students' English skills and skills in other ASEAN languages (ASEAN Information Center, 2015).

Despite efforts to improve students' English proficiency in the Thai educational system, a number of studies have pointed out that Thai students' English proficiency is still not at a satisfactory level compared to other ASEAN countries (Darasawang & Watson Todd, 2012; Fry, 2002; Punthumasen, 2007; Ramnath, 2016). The 2017 Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) illustrated that Thailand's average scores were considerably lower at 78 than the overall international average scores of 82 out of 120. More importantly, Thailand's

total average scores and speaking scores were lower than that of many other countries in Southeast Asia including Burma, Vietnam, Malaysia, Indonesia, the Philippines, and Singapore, and they were higher than only two countries ; Laos and Cambodia (Test and Score Data Summary for the TOEFL iBT® Tests - ETS, 2017). Thai students' scores from other English standardised tests including TOEIC and IELTS were lower compared to those of other countries. While spending approximately 13 years studying English in schools, many Thai students are not able to speak English for actual communication (Seangboon, 2017a). Furthermore, university graduates are not able to communicate in English effectively (Danasobhon, 2006; Noom-Ura, 2013). Unfortunately, all this suggests that the English curriculum at the tertiary level in Thailand is not effective in meeting the requirements of workplace as the English skills that many workplaces mostly require are speaking and listening skills which were not emphasised greatly in the curriculum (Wiriyachitra, 2002).

It is thus apparent that English education in Thailand does not prepare students sufficiently for work in the global marketplace. If Thai students do not improve their English proficiency, particularly their speaking skills, Thailand may lose competitive advantages in the international marketplace as other countries have workers who can communicate in English effectively (Hayes, 2016; Noom-Ura, 2013). If this problem persists, Thailand will be left far behind many countries in many important aspects of progress including business, technology, education and science (Wiriyachitra,2002).

Because teachers at all levels, and especially at the tertiary level, play a huge role in improving Thai EFL graduates' English speaking skills, the development of their English language teaching methods is a priority (Kongkerd, 2013; Punthumasen, 2007). As there is evidence from earlier studies (e.g., Farrell & Ives, 2015; Farrell & Yang, 2017) that studying teachers' beliefs lead to improved teaching practices (Borg, 2001; Zheng, 2009), conducting research on teachers' beliefs and practices regarding teaching speaking skills can provide important data for developing speaking instruction in Thailand, which in turn, can be useful for promoting students' speaking skills. This is discussed further in the following section.

### **1.1.3 The importance of research on teachers' beliefs and practices regarding the development of speaking instruction**

Teachers' beliefs seem to guide how teachers teach in the classroom (Farrell & Ives, 2015; Borg, 2001; Richards & Lockhart, 1997); therefore, studies on their beliefs and practices can bring advantages for improving teachers' qualities of their teaching (Borg, 2001; Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2017; Xu, 2012). However, studies on teachers' beliefs and practices in Thailand have been very few, and more importantly, research on teachers' beliefs and practices regarding speaking instruction in the Thai EFL context has been understudied, which emphasises the value of carrying out such research.

Furthermore, the relationship between Thai EFL teachers' beliefs and practices regarding speaking instruction should be explored to acknowledge to what extent their beliefs are transferred into their practices. What factors would influence the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices. Additionally, studying the sources forming teachers' beliefs would provide data of what sources are able to form teachers' beliefs regarding speaking instruction. The outcome of a study in this area would clearly have implications for existing teacher educational programmes and teacher training programmes which in turn would be expected to impact on teachers' speaking instruction and Thai students' speaking proficiency.

## **1.2 Context of the Study**

This chapter presents the context of the study to provide a better understanding of how English instruction relates to the Thai educational system at different levels. This includes a brief historical background to provide insights into the development and difficulties in English language instruction in Thailand, particularly speaking skills, over several decades.

### **1.2.1 English in Thai educational system**

This section presents an overview of Thai educational system at different levels regarding English language teaching to provide a better understanding of background information at all levels in the Thai context. It is divided into two main parts: English language teaching from the primary to secondary levels and English language teaching at the tertiary level.

#### ***1.2.1.1 English language teaching at the primary level to secondary level***

English was first taught in Thailand in 1824. However, in that period, only diplomats were taught English, and in the following decades, only royalty had an opportunity to study English. In 1921, English was set as a subject for students from Grade 5 based on the first Compulsory Education Act. The grammar translation method was commonly used during the early period of

the 19<sup>th</sup> century (Durongphan, Aksornkul, Sawanwong, & Tiancharoen, 1982). Importantly, in 1950s, English learning was no longer restricted to elites. International aid organisations such as British Council and the United States Foundation, provided support to English language teaching to provide basic English and focus on English for daily life (Darasawang, 2007). The audiolingual method was introduced to replace the grammar translation method. However, some of the techniques, for example, choral drilling, were questionable because at that time speaking loudly, particularly for women, were considered impolite in Thai traditional culture (Durongphan et al., 1982).

In 1960, English as a subject was set up in the Upper Elementary Education Curriculum as a compulsory subject. With the influence of the war in Indochina, Thai people were coming more and more into contact with Americans, and English for international communication was emphasised more in the English syllabus. In 1977 and 1980, English was set up as an elective subject again at the primary level as it was believed that Thai students should master their first language before studying a second language (Foley, 2005). English then became a compulsory subject from Grade 7 onwards. However, in 1985, English was set as an optional subject for students in secondary schools (Khamkhien, 2010a). All this suggests that English language teaching in Thailand developed over several decades to suit the Thai context. Furthermore, the reformation of English language teaching was also influenced by native English speakers over the period.

A great change in Thai education system occurred with the launch of the 1997 Constitution of Thailand (Foley, 2005; Wiriyaichitra, 2002). Under the Constitution, the National Education Act of 1999 was declared to be used as a framework to guide Thai education for the next several years (Darasawang & Watson Todd, 2012). While the Constitution guarantees Thai people's rights to education and training, the National Education Act concerns the reformation of Thai education by introducing specific principles and guidelines. This act is considered as "the most radical reform in Thai history" (Wiriyaichitra, 2002, p. 2). The Act was created with the goal of promoting better achievement of education in Thailand and to improve the quality of Thai people's education for the sake of the country (Office of National Education Commission, 2003).

The key objectives relating to language in the Act were found in Section 23, which highlighted the focus on "knowledge and skills in mathematics and language, with emphasis on proper use of the Thai language" (Office of National Education Commission 1999, 1999, p. 11). In the Act, English was not explicitly discussed (Darasawang & Watson Todd, 2012), and it was



not considered a compulsory subject. However, Thai students chose to study English as a foreign language because it was a subject required for a university entrance (Darasawang, 2007).

At present, the Thai basic education system is comprised of six years in the primary level, three years in the lower-secondary level and three years in the upper-secondary level (Punthumasen, 2007). The new curriculum based on the 1997 Constitution proposed clearly for the first time that all Thai students are equally provided 12 years of free basic education. Grade 1 to Grade 9 are compulsory for Thai students to study whereas Grade 10 to Grade 12 are optional (Foley, 2005).

English was shifted to a compulsory course from Grade 1 in the new curriculum (Wiriyachitra, 2002). For a primary school, students were required to study English three to four periods per week (Punthumasen, 2007). Four 50-minute periods of English study were allocated for the lower-secondary level, while eight 50-minute periods were provided for the upper-secondary level (Wongsothorn, Sukamolsun, Chinthammit, Ratanothayanonth, & Noparumpa, 1996). However, schools were able to manage time for English courses independently (Wongsothorn, Hiranburana, & Chinnawongs, 2002). The objective of the curriculum was to help Thai students continue their studying of English through their twelve-years of school (Punthumasen, 2007).

Between 1996 and 2007, a reformation of Thai education was implemented in which the main focus was to promote student learning with an emphasis on their life-long learning, and a learner-centred approach replaced rote-learning (Darasawang & Watson Todd, 2012). The goal was also to change the role of teachers from knowledge transmitters to facilitators and promote them as material creators rather than material users (Nonkukhetkhong, Baldauf Jr, & Moni, 2006). The National Education Act was set to play an important role in language teaching at the secondary and tertiary levels, and there was an attempt to decentralise the design of the syllabus, allowing teachers to add local context in the lessons, promote thinking skills and support a communicative approach (Darasawang, 2007).

In 2004, the National Education Standards were launched to govern education at the secondary level for the first time. English was included in the standards as one of the subjects to be learned. Four main objectives for teaching foreign languages were proposed in the standards.

- Communication focuses on effective communication, fluency, understanding the culture of native speakers, and knowing how to apply the language and cultural awareness to communicate appropriately.

- Culture covers knowledge and understanding of the culture of the target language and its influence on Thai culture.
  - Connection aims at linking the target language to the content of other subjects.
  - Community covers project work and application outside the classroom.
- (Darasawang, Watson Todd, 2012, p. 210)

The native English speakers' cultures were still a focus in the standards. However, it might not have been suitable for the Thai context in which people are increasingly coming in contact with more non-native English speakers than native English speakers (Darasawang & Watson Todd, 2012). However, the above stated objectives clearly reflect an attempt to promote a greater focus on using English for communication.

On the other hand, speaking and listening skills are not given high priority or paid much attention to in English assessment to the Thai context. Generally, teachers set the scores for both formative and summative assessment of students' English achievement after taking English courses at ratios of 60:40. While the format of formative assessment includes progress tests and assessment of student' affective skills, the format of the summative assessment consists of multiple choice, matching and sentence completion. Teachers can decide what content should be tested, and they mainly test grammar (Wongsothorn et al., 1996). Furthermore, the format of the National Entrance Exam, which is in the form of multiple choice has an influence on English teaching at the secondary level. Although there was an attempt to add an essay section to the exam, the format was changed to multiple choice again due to the difficulty of assessing students' scores consistently throughout the country. Secondary school students often take intensive tutoring focusing on rules and reading skills as they hope to pass the National Entrance Exam to acquire a seat at the university of their choice (Darasawang, 2007). Teachers also are put under pressure to help students. As a result, they seem to overlook teaching students English for communication (Ramnath, 2016).

All this suggests that teachers are likely to focus on reading and writing skills rather than speaking and listening skills due to the format of the exams. Research stretching back 10 years shows the following difficulties in speaking instruction in this country. The Thai EFL context neither inside nor outside the classroom does not promote students' opportunities to communicate in English, and it seems to be the main cause of Thai students' low English proficiency (Khamkhien, 2010a; Noom-Ura, 2013, Seangboon, 2017a). Interactions that occur in the classroom are mainly teacher-student interactions in which teachers dominate the classroom and students respond only when they are asked questions (Khamkhien, 2010a). Additionally, Thai students lack confidence in speaking English and become passive as they are

afraid of losing face in the classroom (Ramnath, 2016). Importantly, teachers' low level of English proficiency also interferes with the implementation of the communicative approach in many classrooms (Kaur, Young, & Kirkpatrick, 2016). Teachers' heavy burden from teaching many hours a day and doing many administration tasks causes them to rely on rote learning, focusing on teaching grammar and mainly using L1 to give instruction. Additionally, teachers also have difficulties with large class sizes, mixed English abilities and heavy reliance on textbooks (Noom- Ura, 2013). The present study aims to provide more insights into the above issues and gain more data regarding English language teaching at the tertiary level.

Although English has been the most dominant foreign language in Thailand (Baker & Jarunthawatchai, 2017; Kaur et al., 2016) and taught widely in schools, Thai students' English language proficiency all over the country has been shown to be low (Ramnath, 2016). The O-Net test, which is the proficiency test within the country for measuring Grade 6 and Grade 9 students' basic knowledge including English, showed that in 2019, the English scores of Grade 6 students was at 39.24%, whereas that of Grade 9 students was at 29.45% (Mala, 2019). Moreover, based on the National Institute of Educational Testing Service (NIETS) survey, Thai students' English scores from their recent university entrance exam was quite low at 28.43 out of 100 (ASEAN Information Center, 2015). This suggests that English language teaching and learning in the Thai context urgently needs to be improved to prepare students for their further study or work.

### ***1.2.1.2 Universities general background and English language teaching at the tertiary level***

During the early 19<sup>th</sup> century, Thai higher education had its origins in the era of the King Chulalongkorn (Rama V) (Bureau of International Cooperations Strategy, 2019). The first university in Thailand was established in 1917 and then the second and another three universities were founded several years later in 1933 and 1943 respectively. The first five universities were based in the capital city of Thailand, Bangkok. These universities initially aimed to teach students who would later work in the government sector. Later, in the 1960s, another three public universities were founded in different parts of Thailand (Prangpatanpon, 1996)

To date, there are 84 public higher education universities, of which 27 are autonomous universities, 10 are public universities, 38 are Rajabhat universities, 9 are Rajamangala universities of technology and 72 private higher education universities located across the country (Bureau of International Cooperation Strategy, 2020). Public and public autonomous universities aim to gain international recognition and seek a position as world-class universities.

Rajabhat universities, which were formerly colleges for teacher training, aim to work with communities and industries that involve services, while Rajamangala Universities of Technology, formerly vocational and technical colleges, put an emphasis on producing skilled labour, conducting applied research and collaborating closely with industrial organisations (Kamolpun, 2018).

In Thailand, universities are administrative following the form of faculties. Each faculty is ruled by the dean, which is similar to the UK. However, in terms of teaching and courses, they are managed by using a credit course system, which is based on the American system (Prangpatanpon, 1996). The duration for studying in most bachelor's degree programmes is four years in which students need to complete around 120-150 credits. However, some programmes, such as architecture, art, graphic art and pharmacy, require students to take five years for studying with the completion of 150-188 credits. Other programmes, such as medicine, dentistry and veterinary medicine, require students to take six years with the completion of 210 - 263 credits (Nuffic, 2019).

Universities are regarded as places to train graduates for their future careers. Each faculty focuses mainly on providing courses that relate to their majors with 84 credits and 114 credits for a four-year programme and a five-year programme, respectively. However, students also have opportunities to take general education courses including humanities, social sciences, mathematics and social science for 30 credits (Danasobhon, 2006; Nuffic, 2019; Prangpatanpon, 1996). Moreover, students need to register for elective courses for 6 credits (Nuffic, 2019). Students must gain approximately 2.0 (out of 4.0) average grade points to receive a bachelor's degree (Bureau of International Cooperation Strategy, 2019).

The development of English language teaching at this level has been an on-going process over several decades (Sukamolnson, 1998). English was first taught in the tertiary level in 1948, but only for students in the Arts programme; in 1955, it became a compulsory subject for all university students. However, due to the implementation of the 1996 curriculum, English became an elective subject from Grade 1 onwards (Sukamolnson, 1998). Recently, English has been commonly taught at the tertiary level as a compulsory subject for students to achieve a degree (Baker & Jarunthawatchai, 2017).

Most English teachers in Thailand are Thai. Those who are teaching English at the tertiary level must acquire at least a master's degree in English or a related field. However, many of them completed doctoral degrees from NES countries (Saengboon, 2017b). Undergraduates are required to take a minimum of four compulsory English courses. These

include foundation Courses 1 and 2 and another two courses that can be English for academic purposes or English for specific purposes (ESP) depending upon the requirements of their major (Wiriyachitra, 2002). At the tertiary level, students are required to take 12 credits for English courses based on the revised English curriculum. Students must take six credits for general English courses and six credits for academic and specific purposes (Foley, 2005; Wiriyachitra, 2002). The goal of foundation courses is to develop students' social and academic language. Students should develop the ability to use both spoken language and written language in different social settings. They should use language strategies to communicate appropriately despite different cultural contexts. Additionally, they should be able to search for information and process it to construct knowledge to improve their academic language in both spoken and written forms. Generally, university students are required to take three to four periods of English per week and each period lasts for 50 to 70 minutes (Darasawang, 2007). University students are also assigned independent work and self-access learning (Foley, 2005).

However, it is worth noting that university students take only four English courses, whereas for the rest of the programme, they must study their major courses to cover all the requirements of their curriculum (Danasobhon, 2006; Sanpatchayapong, 2017). They basically study general English courses in their first year and study the other two English courses in their second or third year (Baker & Jarunthawatchai, 2017). However, they can take extra courses that can prepare them for English standardised tests, such as IELTS or TOEFL, for their future work or study (Sanpatchayapong, 2017).

The Higher Education Commission launched a policy to improve English teaching in higher education in 2016 (Baker & Jarunthawatchai, 2017). The policy grants each university the power to create their own policy to raise their students' English proficiency for academic, professional knowledge and communication and revisit their curricular, resources and environment for language learning to encourage students' autonomous English language learning. Importantly, all universities must provide an English language exam, which can be one of the standardised tests or one they have developed following the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) to evaluate each university student's English proficiency before graduation. The results may be recorded in the student's transcript (Commission of Higher Education, 2016). This initiative aims to motivate students to pay attention to English, but one result has been that many university students possibly rely on tutorial schools in order to get a good score in much the same way as they did with the university entrance exam (Darasawang, 2007).

Meanwhile, the free movement of professional labour in the ASEAN Economic Community seems to be beneficial for those with high levels of English proficiency in the ASEAN region as English is an official language for the community (Noom-Ura, 2013). This means that since 2015, Thai people have been required to communicate with a larger number of people from other member countries by using English as the lingua franca (Kongkerd, 2013). To this end, the recent Proposals for the Second Decade of Education Reform (2009/2018) which was promulgated by the Office of the Education Council, aims to develop a quality of education and learning for all levels of Thai education by promoting foreign languages that are greatly used in the country as a second language and promoting the languages of the ASEAN countries as a third language (Nomnian, 2014).

As English becomes one of the keys that is emphasised in the Thai educational system (ASEAN Information Center, 2015), universities in Thailand have reformed their curriculum to promote their students' English skills to reach the requirement for working in their future workplaces (Khamkhein, 2010a). Although, there have been a number of policy changes to improve English language teaching in Thailand, there does not appear to be much progress in terms of students' English proficiency (Kaur et al., 2016). Importantly, recent research (Noom-Ura, 2013; Seangboon, 2017b) has highlighted the fact that many university graduates are not able to communicate effectively in the target language. All of this points to the importance of more research into English language teaching and learning and the need to find ways to improve students' English speaking proficiency and the quality of teachers' speaking instruction.

### **1.3 Aims of the Study**

The main purpose of the present study was to investigate Thai EFL university teachers' beliefs regarding the teaching of speaking skills and to explore their classroom practices in speaking instruction. The study also examined to what extent their beliefs were observed in their practices to explore the relationship between their beliefs and practices. The study is expected to provide data about the factors that either support or interfere with the consistency between teachers' beliefs and practices, and the sources of their beliefs regarding speaking instruction were also explored. It is believed that a better understanding of these beliefs and practices can inform policy in ways that may lead to effective change in future.

## **1.4 Research Questions**

1. What are Thai EFL university teachers' beliefs in relation to teaching speaking skills?
2. What are Thai EFL university teachers' practices in relation to teaching speaking skills?
3. What are the sources forming Thai EFL university teachers' beliefs in relation to teaching speaking skills?
4. What is the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices in relation to teaching speaking skills?

## **1.5 Significance of the Study**

Although a tertiary level education aims to produce graduates with high proficiency in English, including speaking skills, to serve both growing regional and international demand in different fields (see Section 1.1.2), previous studies (e.g., Noom-Ura, 2013; Seangboon, 2017b) revealed that many Thai graduates are not able to speak English effectively, which has been a major concern for many workplaces (Darasobhon, 2006; Noom-Ura, 2013). Therefore, the development of the quality of teachers' speaking instruction in this context is seen to be crucial.

It is widely known that conducting research on teachers' beliefs can improve teacher instruction (Borg, 2001; Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2017; Xu, 2012) (see Section 2.6.3). Significantly, Borg (2003) highlighted gaps among previous studies; while several studies conducted on teachers' beliefs regarding grammar instruction, only few studies focused on teachers' beliefs regarding teaching speaking skills (Borg, 2003; Farrell & Yang, 2017). Additionally, several scholars (e.g., Li, 2013; Li & Walsh, 2011; Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2016) have pointed out that previous studies on teachers' beliefs focused primarily on the ESL contexts whereas the studies in EFL contexts are quite scarce. In fact, research on Thai EFL university teachers' beliefs and practices regarding speaking instruction in this precise context have been understudied.

As Thai EFL university teachers play an important role in providing speaking instruction for potential graduates, it is hoped that conducting research on their beliefs and practices in relation to teaching speaking skills will be useful for enhancing their speaking instruction. Interviews and observations were used to gain in-depth data between beliefs and practices and stimulated-recall interviews with video recordings were also used to help recall the participants' actions in the classroom. Using multiple sources of data makes a good contribution to what is known already in the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices.

The outcome of the study advances our knowledge of their beliefs regarding speaking instruction in various aspects. The observations of their classrooms provided a better understanding of how these teachers taught. This provided insight into the challenges and difficulties and highlighted what needed to be improved in the real-world setting. Additionally, this study investigated the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices to gain a clear picture of the link between them.

This also allowed exploration of both internal and external factors that either supported or interfered with the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices, which had not been done much in the previous studies, particularly in the area of teaching speaking skills. Moreover, studying the sources forming teachers' beliefs can raise an awareness of what kinds of sources were influential in forming teachers' beliefs including the most and the least influential sources.

Importantly, this study provides a better understanding of teachers' beliefs and practices regarding speaking instruction in this context, which has been understudied. This study provides valuable data that will be useful not only in the Thai EFL context, but also in other similar EFL contexts including countries in the ASEAN community, such as Laos and Cambodia, where students had a low level of English proficiency (see Section 1.2.2). More importantly, the results not only provide important information in the area of teachers' beliefs and practices, but also the area of teaching speaking skills as it relates to key aspects in teaching speaking, such as grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, accuracy and fluency, the use of activities and so forth. This also provides useful information about more recent theories in connection with teaching speaking, such as the Lingua Franca Core and spoken grammar, which have not been widely known among teachers in this context.

Working alongside other published studies, this study can be beneficial for those involved in teaching English as a second language (TESOL) field including policy makers, educators in teacher education programmes, continuing professional development providers, teaching materials developers and classroom practitioners in order to improve the quality of their teachers' speaking instruction, which in turn, can enhance Thai students' English speaking skills.



## 1.6 Overview of the Thesis

This thesis is organised into six chapters.

Chapter 1 presents the main purposes of the study. The various rationales for conducting this study are explained in detail including personal interest, a high demand for promoting Thai students' English proficiency and teachers' speaking instruction in the Thai EFL context and the importance of research of teachers' beliefs and practices in developing speaking instruction. Additionally, the context of the present study including a tertiary educational background in Thailand and English in Thai educational system from a primary to a tertiary level are explicated.

Chapter 2 provides a discussion of the theoretical framework for the study in two main parts. The first part is a review of literature on speaking, which presents important aspects of speaking competence, speech production and cognitive process, communicative competence and speaking, the main aspects of speaking skills and important keys relating to teaching speaking. The second part is a review of the literature on teacher's beliefs including the definition of teachers' beliefs, the distinction between beliefs and knowledge, the importance of teachers' beliefs, the influence of teachers' beliefs on practices and factors that influence the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices, sources of teachers' beliefs and a review of previous studies on teachers' beliefs and practices in teaching speaking skills in order to address the existing gap to be filled by the present study.

Chapter 3 presents an account of the research paradigm and the research design adopted in this study. A detailed description of the rationale for choosing the participants, the research instruments, data collection, data analysis, the process of the pilot study together with ethical issues and trustworthiness in a qualitative approach are provided and explained in detail.

Chapter 4 presents the study results in relation to the research questions. The data obtained from the study are described in themes from the literature and themes that emerged from the collected data regarding their beliefs and practices in teaching speaking skills. The sources of their beliefs gained from the data are presented. This includes extracts from their interviews and classroom observation data. The relationship between their beliefs and practices is presented based on the comparison between what they stated in the pre-interviews and what was observed in their actual classrooms.

Chapter 5 provides a discussion of the findings regarding the research questions, key themes from the findings chapter, the findings of earlier studies and the literature. This chapter consists of three main sections. The first is devoted to teachers' beliefs and practices regarding key aspects of teaching speaking. The second discusses various sources forming their beliefs regarding the teaching of speaking. The third section deals with the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices, which was influenced by both internal and contextual factors.

Chapter 6 presents a conclusion that includes the key findings, implications, limitations, recommendations and contributions of the study. This reflects on the importance of this study for developing teachers' speaking instruction, discusses some limitations of the study for other researchers to consider, and indicates what kinds of further studies should be conducted to provide more information on teachers' beliefs about speaking instruction and significant contributions on research on teachers' beliefs and practices regarding teaching speaking skills.

## Chapter 2 Literature Review

As the present study explores teachers' beliefs and practices regarding speaking instruction, sources forming their beliefs and the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices in relation to teaching speaking skills, this chapter provides the theoretical framework for the study. The chapter is divided into two main sections. The first section is a review of the extent literature on speaking, which discusses key aspects of speaking competence, speech production and cognitive process, communicative competence and speaking, the main components of speaking skills and important aspects in relation to speaking instruction. The second section presents a review of the literature on teachers' beliefs including important aspects of teachers' beliefs. The definition of teachers' beliefs is clearly discussed, followed by a discussion of the distinction between beliefs and knowledge, the importance of teachers' beliefs, the influence of teachers' beliefs on their practices, the sources of teachers' beliefs and factors that influence the link between teachers' beliefs and practices. Finally, a review of earlier studies on teachers' beliefs and practices in speaking instruction are presented in detail.

### 2.1 Speaking Competence

The majority of EFL learners need to acquire speaking competence as it can be an indicator of their overall level of English proficiency (Richards, 2008). Bailey (2005) defined speaking as occurring when oral utterances are produced systematically to express meaning. As pointed out by Dincer and Yesilyurt (2013), "speaking is complex and difficult to master ..." (p. 88).

Several components are combined to produce speech. The speaking model proposed by Hymes (1974, 1986) employs the mnemonic acronym to make it easier to recognise the components of speaking. Each letter (S-P-E-A-K-I-N-G) represents a particular aspect that is combined with others when speaking.

First, 'S' refers to 'setting and scene'. While the former involves a place and time that an utterance is produced, the latter refers to "the cultural definition of an occasion as a certain type of scene" (Hymes, 1986, p. 60). This implies that even though the place is the same, the speech might be different due to the changeability of the scene. 'P' stands for 'participants' who exist in a setting and hear what is said (Akman, 2000; Hymes, 1974, 1986); this means both speakers and listeners (Akman, 2000; Hymes, 1974, 1986; Ray & Biswas, 2011). The status of an interlocutor requires the speaker to adjust their language to speak appropriately (Thornbury, 2005). 'E' represents 'end' which refers to the purposes of the speaker or why they contribute to the conversation. The next letter is 'A' representing 'act sequence' which refers to "the format

and order of the series of speech events which make up the speech act” (Akman, 2000, p. 746). This implies that the speaker needs to acknowledge the sequence of the exchange, that is, what should be talked about first. Moreover, speaking is produced in real time, and there is little time for planning (Bygate, 2012; Thornbury, 2005). The speaker speaks without having time to check his/her speech (Bygate, 2012). However, this does not mean that it is ultimately unpredictable (Bailey, 2005). ‘K’ stands for ‘key’, which refers to the tone and manner of the speech as a whole. ‘I’ stands for ‘instrumentalities’, which refers to “the form and style of speech being given” (Ray & Biswas, 2011, p.35). If it is a formal talk, the speaker tends to speak with well - prepared grammatical structures (Akman, 2000). For Hymes (1974, 1986), instrumentalities also includes the channel in which the speech is transmitted. Different channels affect how the language is produced, for example, talking on the phone or face-to-face (Thornbury, 2005). Next, ‘N’ stands for ‘norm’ which is divided into norms of interaction, that is, speaking with concern for the rules of the particular events and norms of interpretation, which allow the speaker to be aware of other interlocutors’ norms from different cultures (Hymes, 1974, 1986). Most spoken language occurs in face- to-face interactions involving the social context and the interpretation of an interlocutor’s attention and attitude through various physical signals (Bygate, 2012). Finally, ‘G’ stands for ‘genre’ which is “the type of speech that is being given” (Ray & Biswas, 2011, p.35) or “a type of speech event” (Thornbury, 2005, p. 14), for example, job interview, joke telling, informal conversation or lecture.

As stated above, in order to establish speaking competence, speakers need to consider several aspects including where the speaking takes place, who is listening, the purpose of the speech, the sequence to be observed within a limited time, suitable tone, forms of language, rules in the given setting and the kind of event. This is supported by several scholars (e.g., Bailey 2003, 2005; Harmer, 2007; Thornbury, 2005) who agree that apart from requiring how to produce linguistic knowledge, learners who have speaking competence should have an ability to use language appropriately with different interlocutors in different social interactions (see Section 2.3.2). This is also relevant to speech production and cognitive processes that can illustrate how individuals retrieve the content related to the purpose of their speech and what process is relevant to producing a speech that is suitable for participants, the purpose of speaking, social norms, sequences of speaking, genres and settings and how they produce the correct structures and appropriate pronunciation. Speech production and the cognitive process which is discussed in the following section can give clear insight into what is involved in speaking.

## 2.2 Speech Production and the Cognitive Process

Levelt (1989) originally proposed a model of speech processing related to producing fluent speech. The model consists of four processing components including conceptualising, formulating, articulating, and self-monitoring. Most of the components have been taken by Goh and Burns' (2012) model for speech production. As an insider researcher (see Section 1.1.1), I was able to appreciate that the latter is less complex. It is a more accessible and understandable model for practitioners while it shares all the same elements with Levelt's (1989) model. Although these models do not take the dialogic aspects of it into consideration, their significance is that they explain clearly the key elements involved in speaking, such as grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation. This is supported by De Jong et al.'s (2012) study, which examined whether L2 knowledge skills and L2 processing skills could predict L2 speaking proficiency. Their measure was adapted from Levelt's (1989) models. Their linguistic knowledge was distinguished into two tests: vocabulary and grammar. While their linguistic processing skills were measured through four reaction time measures through three tasks, their pronunciation skills were measured in three aspects including speech sound, word stress and intonation. Their results revealed that all three aspects relating to Levelt's (1989) model can determine L2 students' speaking proficiency.

Goh and Burns's (2012) model as shown in the Figure 2.1 below is mainly divided into four processes. First, the conceptualisation deals with planning the message content (Bygate, 2012). After choosing the topic or content, a speaker determines relevant information from his/her long - term memory (Goh & Burns, 2012) to express his/her intention (Goh & Burns, 2012; Levelt, 1989; Littlewood, 1992).

Next, the speaker searches for appropriate discourses, words and phrases with accurate grammatical rules to express their intentions in a formulation stage (Bygate, 2012; Littlewood, 1992; Thornbury, 2005, Wang, 2014). Levelt (1989) proposed that "the formulator translates a conceptual structure into a linguistic structure" (p. 11). This is the most difficult part for learners because of the great number of choices relating to grammatical system knowledge (Goh & Burns, 2012), appropriate vocabulary (Thornbury, 2005) and register (Goh & Burns, 2012), which are relevant to events, participants and channels for communication (Thornbury, 2005). Some L2 learners might need to translate some particular words or whole utterances from the target language into their first language during this stage (Goh & Burns, 2012).

The next stage is articulation, which involves the use of articulatory organs to produce sounds (Bygate, 2012; Thornbury, 2005). The speaker selects the pronunciation, stress and

intonation that work as a signal for new and important information , such as questions and the speaker's attitude (Bailey, 2005; Thornbury, 2005). Memory and information process are connected to this process. For native English speakers, attention to how to pronounce words is very low; however, L2 learners experience difficulties when making choices about the right stress or intonation, which can cause anxiety for learners who lack confidence in their pronunciation (Goh & Burns, 2012). Another stage is self-monitoring, which allows speakers to recognise and correct their own mistakes (Bygate, 2012). While native speakers can notice their errors, L2 learners who lack knowledge of grammar and pronunciation are unable to check their errors effectively. This process might be affected by other cognitive processes as learners try to make themselves understood quickly; therefore, they might not pay attention to self-monitoring. For EFL learners, this process does not always work completely, especially for speakers who do not have adequate linguistic knowledge (Goh & Burns, 2012). These various processes are interrelated throughout speech production (Bygate, 2012; Goh & Burns, 2012; Thornbury, 2005). Additionally, automatisisation is very important in speech production as it is an indicator of effectiveness (Bygate, 2012; Goh & Burns, 2012). Experiencing a high demand for producing spontaneous speech on a topic that they are unfamiliar with can cause students cognitive overload that can interfere with their speaking. It is important to note that language learners lack fluency and accuracy in their speech due to a result of a lack of automation (Bygate, 2012). In contrast, for speakers with a great amount of existing knowledge and practice, the cognitive process works automatically. Teachers can help students improve their automatisisation through providing speaking activities that allow them to plan and rehearse before speaking (Goh & Burns, 2012).

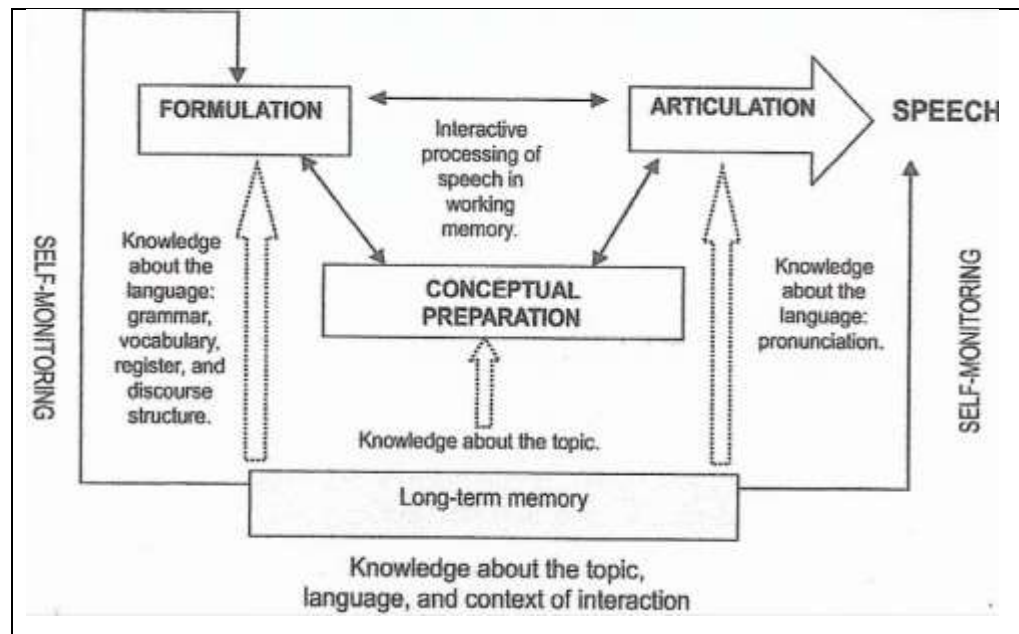


Figure 2.1. Cognitive demands on language learners when producing speech (drawing from Levels' model of speech processing) (Goh and Burns, 2012, p. 36)

This overview of speech production explains the cognitive process of speaking and provides insights for teachers and learners to understand difficulties and combat them in developing speaking competence. Speech production and the cognitive process can explain how they are relevant to aspects in the S-P-E-A-K-I-N-G model as mentioned above. After considering speaking from the speech production aspect, the next section will discuss speaking skills in terms of theories of (intercultural) communicative competence, which explain what is required for competent speakers.

### 2.3 (Intercultural) Communicative Competence and Speaking

Many scholars (e.g., Faech & Kasper, 1986; Johnson, 2008; Larsen-Freeman, 2010; Littlewood, 1981; Richards, 2006) have asserted that communicative competence is the goal of foreign language teaching. Hymes (1972) proposed communicative competence (Byram, 1997; Hymes, 1972; Richards & Rodgers, 2012) to argue against Chomsky's (1965) linguistics theory (Richards & Rodgers, 2012). Then, it was developed by Canale and Swain (1980) as a guideline to develop second language teaching and evaluation. They outlined three types of communicative competence: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence and strategic competence. Discourse competence was later distinguished from sociolinguistic competence by Canale (1983). Although later, other scholars (e.g., Bachman, 1990) proposed a new model of

communicative competence, the Canale and Swain (1980) model continues to be widely used and is supported by many scholars (e.g., Bailey, 2005; Goh & Burns, 2012; Shumin, 2009). Shumin (2009) developed the speaking proficiency model based on Canale and Swain (1980) but with a focus on speaking skills. The model of speaking proficiency includes grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence (see Figure 2.2). However, Baker (2015) and Byram (1997) have argued that communicative competence should be extended to cover intercultural communicative competence, which emphasises using L2 for intercultural communication. This is supported by Richards (2003, 2008) who also maintained that communicative competence should cover cross-cultural awareness (see Section 2.3.5). Currently, the goal of teaching speaking primarily focuses on “cross cultural communication” (Richards, 2003, p. 19). Seliger (1988 as cited in Byram, et al., 1994) pointed out that learners’ attitude towards L2 and culture influence their learning of such language. Goh and Burns (2012) suggested that “the concept of intercultural and cross-cultural communication is now an important area of teaching practice for language teachers” (p.57). Given the strong relationship between culture and language learning, intercultural communicative competence is discussed in more detail in the following section.

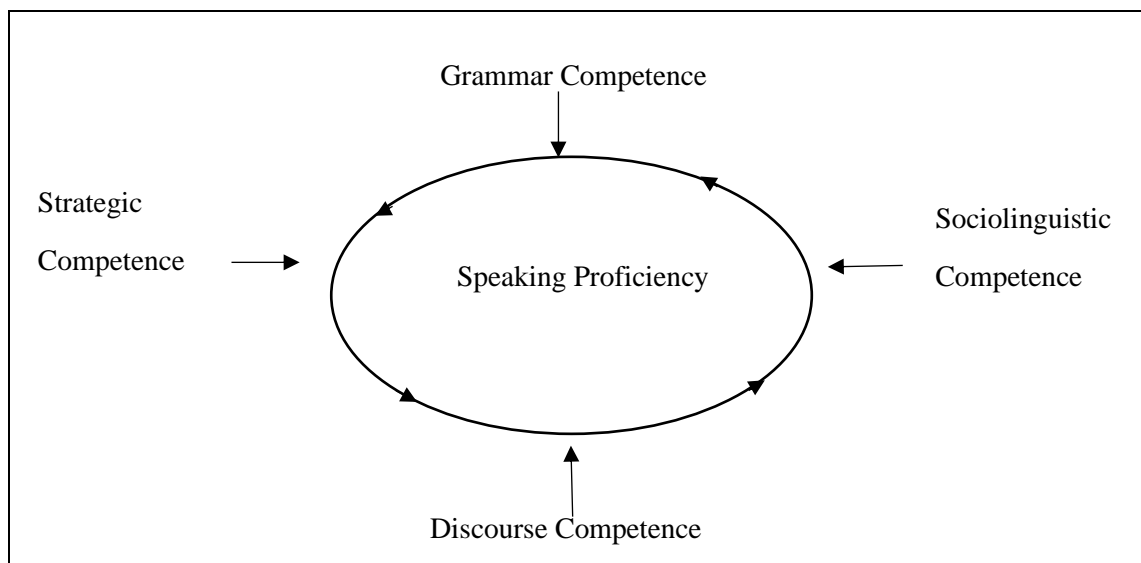


Figure 2.2. Shumin’s model of speaking proficiency (2009, p. 204)



### **2.3.1 Grammatical competence**

Grammatical competence concerns the rules of language, phonemes, morphemes, lexical items, vocabulary and phonology (Bailey, 2005; Canale, 1983; Canale & Swain, 1980; Cook, 2007). Communicative competence cannot occur without grammar and an ability to negotiate meaning. Learners are likely to learn grammar better when learning through communication (Savignon, 1991). This knowledge helps speakers know how to form sentences in a language (Richards, 2006). This competence uses knowledge and skills to deal with how to define, understand and express the meaning of utterances accurately (Canale, 1983). Grammatical competence helps EFL learners produce and understand a language correctly and master the language in terms of grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation, which leads to a degree of fluency (Shumin, 2009). It is suggested that grammatical rules, vocabulary knowledge and pronunciation are important for speakers to carry out their communication accurately and to avoid misunderstandings, which in turn, result in an increasing the level of fluency. However, Byram's (1997) definition of linguistic competence excludes the ability to interpret the meaning of an utterance by native English speakers because as Byram et. al., (1994) argued that "knowledge of the grammatical system of a language has to be complemented by understanding of culture-specific meaning" (p.4), which implies that knowing cultures helps students understand grammar knowledge and meaning.

### **2.3.2 Sociolinguistic competence**

Sociolinguistic competence concerns the sociocultural rules of use. How utterances are produced appropriately in terms of form and meaning in different types of social contexts is the main concern of this competence. Appropriate functions, choices of register including politeness, formality, attitude, ideas, social values and norms of behaviour are taken into consideration in any social situation, and they are produced in both verbal and nonverbal form to suit a given situation (Canale, 1983; Thornbury, 2005). This competence relies on contextual factors, such as setting, participants, topic and social norms (Canale & Swain, 1980). According to Canale and Swain (1980), sociolinguistic competence is equivalent to the aspect of appropriateness proposed by Hymes (1972). Sociolinguistic competence enables EFL learners to use language appropriately within a social context and know what they can say and how they can ask and respond verbally and nonverbally in various situations (Shumin, 2009). This implies that sociolinguistic competence helps speakers convey the language appropriately in different circumstances.

### **2.3.3 Discourse competence**

Discourse competence involves knowledge of how to combine and connect grammatical forms and meaning according to different contexts (Canale, 1983; Thornbury, 2005). Apart from knowledge of grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation, competent speakers should have “the ability to connect utterances to produce a coherent whole” (Goh & Burns, 2012 , p. 51). Knowing how to combine individual utterances, how to manage turn taking when interacting with others and how to use discourse markers to signal intention to interlocutors make up discourse competence (Thornbury, 2005). Byram (1997) and Goh and Burns (2012) have argued that discourse competence should be considered an ability to negotiate for communication with individuals from different cultures. Cohesion and coherence are important in unifying utterances. While cohesion concerns connecting utterances structurally through cohesive devices, for example, synonyms, conjunctions, ellipsis, structures and defining the meaning of a group of utterances, coherence deals with the relationship of various meanings such as functions, attitudes and literal meaning (Canale, 1983), which is in the mind of the listener or reader (Crossley, McCarthy, Salsbury, & McNamara, 2008; Graesser, McNamara, & Louwse, 2003). It also includes the speaker’s background knowledge (Bailey, 2005).

### **2.3.4 Strategic competence**

Strategic competence is required for two main reasons. First, it is needed when speakers want to compensate for a gap in real communication or when they are unable to think of an idea or unable to think of the appropriate grammatical rules at that moment to express the meaning or when other aspects of communicative competence are inadequate (Bailey, 2005; Canale, 1983; Canale & Swain, 1980; Faeh & Kasper, 1986). Second, it is “to enhance the effectiveness of communication” (Canale, 1983, p.11), which can be in the form of paraphrasing, when the speaker does not know the exact word to express his/her meaning or lacks sociolinguistic knowledge, for example, how to address an unfamiliar interlocutor due to his/ her social status (Canale, 1983; Canale & Swain, 1980). Strategic competence helps complete the gap between linguistic knowledge and pragmatic knowledge when the speaker is dealing with unexpected situations. Strategic competence is regarded as important in communicative language teaching. It refers to “the ability to know when and how to take the floor, how to keep a conversation going, how to terminate the conversation, and how to clear up communication breakdown as well as comprehension problem” (Shumin, 2009, p. 208).

Goh and Burns (2012) adopted Canale and Swain’s (1980) communicative competence, but additionally, they classified communication strategies into three types: cognitive,

metacognitive and interaction strategies. First, cognitive strategies are generally used when learners have difficulty using the right words when producing speech. Then, learners try to compare the words they do not know with the ones they do know (Goh & Burns, 2012), which is called ‘approximation’ (Nation & Newton, 2009). Bygate (1987) stated that it is common in many situations for speakers to use general words; however, knowing specific words is necessary when such words are important. Second, metacognitive strategies refer to instances when learners prepare for what they are going to say in advance and improve their weakness after a conversation. Finally, interaction strategies refer to situations where learners face difficulties in explaining what they intend to say; such strategies may involve getting their interlocutor to help them get a message across through, for example, confirmation checks, repetition and giving examples (Goh & Burns, 2012). Nation and Newton (2009) also supported the idea that speakers can ask an interlocutor for help.

### **2.3.5 Intercultural communicative competence**

Byram (1997) defined intercultural communicative competence as an ability “to interact with people from another country and culture in a foreign language...to negotiate a mode of communication and interaction which is satisfactory to themselves and the other and ... to act as mediator between people of different cultural origins” (p.71). Richards (2003) stated that intercultural competence makes both native speakers and EFL learners aware of the appropriateness in communication with others from “cross-cultural settings” (p.19). To maintain effective communication, an ability to simply exchange information is insufficient; an awareness of politeness strategies in various cultures is also necessary (Byram, 1997). One way in which teachers can help learners to be aware of different cultural rules is by presenting example of cultural misunderstandings that often occur and can cause problems (Shumin, 2009).

As Thailand becomes more and more a part of the ASEAN community in which all ten nations in the Southeast Asia region and three countries (ASEAN +3) in East Asia gather together as one community (Baker, 2012; A. Kirkpatrick, 2012), it is important for teachers to raise learners ASEAN intercultural awareness (Kirkpatrick, 2011; Kongkerd, 2013; Nomnian, 2014) to prevent problems from misunderstandings due to various cultural differences (Kongkerd, 2013). The Ministry of Education in Thailand aims to promote Thailand as an international education hub; therefore, improving students’ knowledge of the ASEAN community and ASEAN neighbouring countries is included in their plans (ASEAN Information Center, 2015).

Kuo (2006) stated that learners should acknowledge that interlocutors from different backgrounds might interpret the same thing differently, and Byram et al. (1994) emphasised integrating foreign cultures into foreign language learning. However, Baker (2015) pointed out that communicative competence based on native English speakers has been much more emphasised than developing intercultural competence when ELT teachers are trained in effective communication. Many teachers follow native-speaker models as they rely on the curricula, Common European Framework of Reference for Language or (CEFR) and standardised tests including IELTS and TOEFL, significantly relate to native English speaker norms. In addition, such dominant standardised tests do not pay much attention to English as a lingua franca (Jenkins, 2012). Intercultural communication has been overlooked in the teaching process, including teaching materials, assessment and teaching curriculum (Baker, 2015). This implies that teaching cultural diversity in a language classroom is still an undertaking that is not widely agreed upon and practiced, but it is important to understand the role of cultural knowledge in EFL teacher's beliefs and practices (Li, 2013), and these elements are addressed in this study.

From the above, it is clear that competent speakers require a whole range of competences. However, many native English speakers do not always master a high level of these competences (Burkart, 1998). Meanwhile, given the Thai non-native English teachers' beliefs in the Thai EFL context, it is reasonable to assume the highest level of competency may not always exist. Moreover, these non-native English teachers may also need to have realistic expectations about the level of competence that their students can achieve (Larsen-Freeman, 1991; Saengboon, 2004). Consequently, the following section discusses some important elements for EFL learners to practice in their speaking.

## **2.4 Important Elements of Speaking Skills**

First, it is helpful to define the EFL and ESL contexts in this study. Bailey (2003) defined a foreign language (FL) context as a context that does not use the target language in the community. Therefore, the learners do not have many opportunities to use the language they have learned apart from the classroom. On the other hand, a second language (SL) context is a context in which the target language is used as a medium of communication in the community (Bailey, 2003; Harmer, 2007), and these learners might have moved from other countries to live in the target language country (Bailey, 2003). This study focuses on the Thai context where an

FL in terms of the above definitions is. In this section, grammar, vocabulary and phonology, discourse knowledge and genre knowledge are discussed (Thornbury, 2005).

## **2.4.1 Grammar**

### ***2.4.1.1 Spoken grammar***

At present, learners have been presented mostly with written grammar because of the influence of traditional textbooks, which present “a stilted style” (Thornbury, 2007, p. 8) in conversation. The problem for teachers in teaching a spoken grammar is also a result of the difficult characteristics of spoken English including using regional features and idioms that are difficult for students to follow (Thornbury, 2007). In Thailand, with the influence of the widely-used grammar translation method, written language is more focused on than spoken language. However, Thai students’ grammar knowledge has not been satisfactory either. Saengboon’s (2017a) study of Thai graduates’ grammar knowledge revealed that their participants received a low mean score in grammar knowledge; in fact, their mean score for grammar production was lower than their grammar recognition scores. The participants of that study felt that grammar should have been taught for effective communication. To help Thai students speak English naturally, they need to be taught spoken language (Wanich, 2014). EFL learners mostly communicate in English among each other; therefore, teaching a type of English that is neutral without putting cultural features or strong regional features for both speaking and writing would be an effective solution (Thornbury, 2007).

Due to its circumstance of production, a spoken language is likely to differ from a written language in terms of grammar, lexis, discourses and some processing skills (Bygate, 1987; Goh & Burns, 2012; Luoma, 2004; Timmis, 2018). Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, and Finegan (2004) pointed out that what makes spoken language different is its real-time condition. Mistakes in meaning and wording exist due to time constraints for planning a speech causing repetition in oral communication (Bygate, 1987). Several scholars (e.g., Biber et al., 2004; Carter & McCarthy, 2002; Goh & Burns, 2012; Thornbury, 2005; Thornbury & Slade, 2007; Timmis, 2018) pointed out some important features of spoken grammar, which will be discussed below.

First, the spoken utterance can be divided into three parts: head, body and tail. The heads and tails are the extra parts that are put before and after the main body of the message (Goh & Burns, 2012; Thornbury, 2005; Thornbury & Slade, 2007). Heads can be noun phrases or nouns (e.g., “*And the hotel in Singapore, it was really central...*”) (p.92) (Goh & Burns,

2012) that emphasise the main focus of the body (Thornbury & Slade, 2007). On the other hand, tails enable speakers to modify utterances that are unclear (Carter & McCarthy, 2002; Timmis, 2018) (e.g. “You’re a good customer, *you are.*”) (Goh & Burns, p.92). Both parts help speakers deal with time limitations in planning what to say (Biber et al., 2004). Then, tags, which exist only in a spoken language (Thornbury, 2005), are placed after the negative or declarative statements. Tags combine an auxiliary verb and a pronoun, which can be either positive or negative depending on the type of statement that precedes them (Carter & McCarthy, 2002) (e.g., “That shouldn’t be any problem, *should it?*”) (Goh & Burns, p.92).

Second, vague language is used when speakers do not want to express their message precisely because in some situations, approximation would be better (Carter & McCarthy, 2002). They can use vague language in order to decrease the level of assertiveness (Carter & McCarthy, 2002; Thornbury, 2005) and to make themselves feel more comfortable with their expressions (Carter & McCarthy, 2002). This type of expression generally occurs in informal communication. It also helps speakers fill pauses while producing speech (Thornbury, 2005). Vague language includes phrases like ‘sort of’ (Thornbury, 2005), ‘kind of’, ‘around’, and ‘something’ (Carter & McCarthy, 2002).

Third, Goh and Burns (2012) pointed out that ellipsis occurs when the speakers omits “words, phrases, and even whole clauses” (p. 89) to avoid repetition in their speech, which interlocutors already understand from either the immediate situational context or the linguistic context (Goh & Burns, 2012; Thornbury & Slade, 2007) (e.g., “P: Well, I saw in The Herald there.... V: Did you [see in the Herald]?”) (Goh & Burns, p. 90) Thornbury and Slade (2007) stated that the language items that are usually left out are the subject and the auxiliary verb. Carter and McCarthy (2002) gave the examples that ‘I’ is left out in phrases like “think so, wonder if they’ll be coming to the party or guess they won’t be ringing after all” (p. 14).

Next, deixis can be used to help the speaker identify what they are referring to in a specific context so that the speaker and an interlocutor exist at that particular time (Thornbury & Slade, 2007) (e.g., “ give me *that now*...I want *it.*”) (Goh & Burns, 2012, p. 91). The items that are commonly used as deixis include personal pronouns (e.g., I/you/we/they) referring to, for example, a person who might speak or exist in that setting, demonstrative (e.g., these, that) pointing out, for example, the distance between the speaker and others, and adverbials (e.g., here, now, then) presenting, for example, the moment that the speaker speaks (Carter & McCarthy, 2002; Thornbury & Slade, 2007).

Finally, a spoken grammar generally includes a group of grammar systems that are not generally produced in sentence-length units but in clause-length units to suit a limited time (Bygate, 1987; Luoma, 2004; Thornbury, 2005) to maintain turns in communication (Goh & Burns, 2012). McCarthy (2003) also asserted that instead of hearing complete sentences, especially in an informal conversation, what the interlocutor hears includes “phrases, incomplete clauses, clauses that look like the subordinate clauses, but which seem not to be attached to any main clause, etc.” (pp. 79 - 80). (e.g., “Because I just love Sydney at that time”, “You going?”, “When I get round to booking...” (Goh & Burns, 2012, p. 89),

This implies that the characteristics of spoken grammar above are the result of the limited time for producing speech and the cognitive process (see Section 2.2). Due to the time pressure for planning speaking and the many aspects of the cognitive process, it is common to find utterances with ungrammatical structures or incomplete utterances and repetition (Luoma, 2004; Thornbury, 2012). On the other hand, written grammar and sentence-length units can be seen in a spoken form when speakers deliver a formal speech that they have planned in advance (Luoma, 2004). This idea was supported by Lewis (2009); there is more time to revise written practice, and spoken practice is different as it occurs spontaneously. Importantly, L2 learners can prepare for the language that they will experience in the real world if they realise this about the spoken language (Goh & Burns, 2012).

Apart from grammar, vocabulary is one of the key elements in improving speaking skills. The importance of vocabulary and vocabulary techniques for speaking skills will be discussed in detail next.

### **2.4.2 Vocabulary**

Lightbown and Spada (2017) stated that adult native speakers know approximately 20,000 words. However, the number of words required for spoken language is rather smaller than that of written language. Thornbury (2005) suggested that only 2,500 words are required for speakers to achieve 95 % proficiency in spoken conversation. Nation and Newton (2009) stated that the high-frequency words accounting for 2,000 words can help individuals use English for general communication. Knowing the high-frequency words can help when guessing the meaning of low-frequency words.

Vocabulary is central to improving communicative abilities and promoting meaningful communication (Amiryousefi, 2015; Goh & Burns, 2012). It significantly correlates to the speaking proficiency of second language learners. It is widely agreed that learners with a higher

speaking ability tend to have a larger amount of vocabulary knowledge, which results in greater fluency, accuracy and complexity in their production of oral speech; those who have a limited amount of vocabulary are less fluent, accurate and complex in their oral production (Goh & Burns, 2012; Koizumi & In'nami, 2013). In contrast, students with limited vocabulary often find it difficult to speak, which often results in speaking anxiety. Akkakoson's (2016) study of 126 Thai undergraduate students found that 38.09 % of them had anxiety in speaking English because of their limited vocabulary knowledge. Their students were not able to understand others (Akkakoson, 2016) nor could they express themselves and be understood (Akkakoson, 2016; Goh & Burns, 2012). Singh, Singh, and Eng (2015) remarked that learners become passive learners and lack confidence when speaking in class as the result of having limited knowledge of words. This emphasises the need for teaching vocabulary in speaking instruction.

As pointed out by Thornbury (2005), EFL learners need to learn words that occur frequently or chunks referred to "any combination of words which occur together with more than random frequency" (p. 23) including collocation and spoken discourse markers (e.g., 'well') that occur frequently in conversation. Nattinger (1988) suggested that using collocation, students do not have to construct sentences as they can use these collocations, which are already constructed to express their meaning. Moreover, discourse markers are generally on the high -frequency word list in the spoken corpus (O'Keeffe, McCarthy, & Carter, 2007). In addition, back channel devices (e.g., 'really'), used for showing that you are paying attention to what interlocutors have said, are on the list. Furthermore, words that express attitude and words that can use in several situations (e.g., 'thing') are important for learners to know (Thornbury, 2005). Pawley and Syder (1983) suggested that remembering clauses and clause sequences enhances fluency in communication in daily life. In a nutshell, knowledge of vocabulary is a basis for learners to express their intentions and understand others' messages, which increases their confidence in speaking English.

The next section discusses pronunciation, which is a vital part in terms of delivering speech. Acknowledging how the sound is produced can help speakers to pronounce the sound understandably, which helps improve speaking skills. The key elements for pronunciation are outlined in the following section.



### 2.4.3 Pronunciation

Pronunciation is the key for competent speakers because it plays an important role in the articulation stage of the cognitive process. At the articulation stage, EFL learners are required to recall how to pronounce sounds to produce speech (Goh & Burns, 2012). The section will discuss two aspects, phonetics and phonology, which Carr (2009) suggested are helpful in increasing the development of learners' pronunciation.

#### 2.4.3.1 Phonetics

According to Watson (2009), phonetics is “the study of speech...” (p. 11). It is the study of the production of speech sounds and “how the sound travels through the air” (p.11). The beginning of the sound starting from the air that is produced by the muscles in the chest passing through the larynx before flowing through the vocal tract. To study phonetics, learners need to be familiar with the vocal tract used to produce speech sounds (Watson, 2009). Different organs are located in the vocal tract that are called ‘articulators’ (Roach, 2008, p.8).

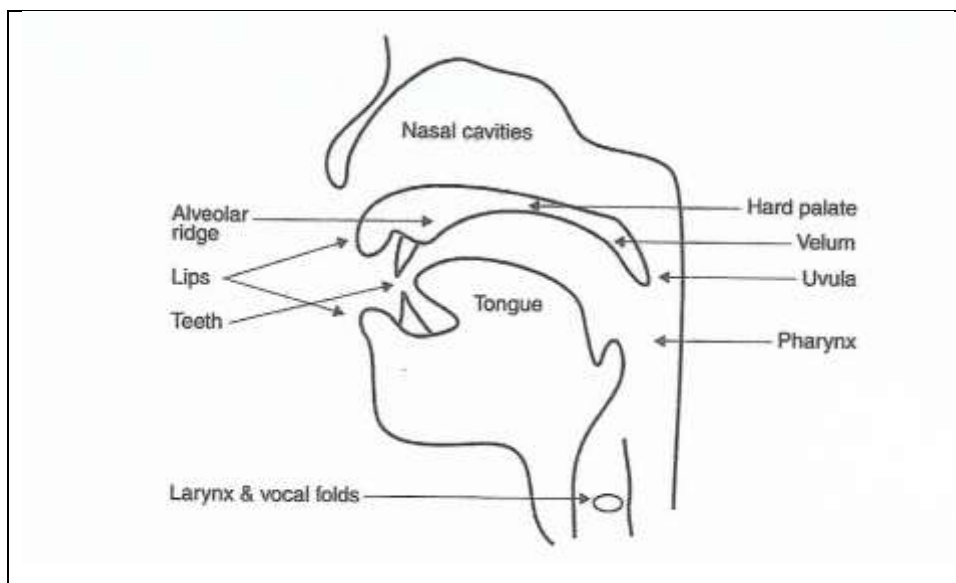
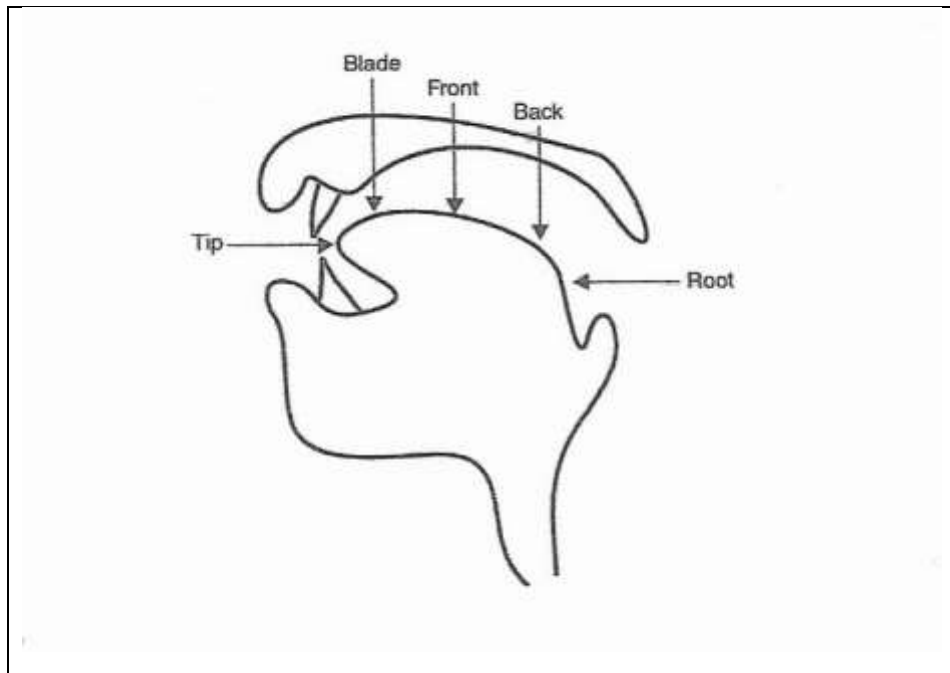


Figure 2.3. The human vocal tract (Watson, 2009, p. 13)

The two main aspects for pronunciation are the place of articulation and the manner of articulation. The place of articulation refers to the places where sounds are produced (Watson, 2009); the larynx is the first place that modifies the air that flows from the lungs (Carr, 2009). The vocal folds are inside the larynx (Watson, 2009), and they adjust the air from the lungs by opening, closing or vibrating. Voiced sounds occur through the vibration of the vocal folds, whereas voiceless sounds occur when the vocal folds are not vibrating (Carr, 2009; Rogerson, 2012).

While the upper lips cannot move, with the lower jaw, the lower lips can move up and down (Watson, 2009). When the upper lip and lower lip connect with each other, a sound called a ‘bilabial’ is produced (e.g., [p], [b]). However, if the lower lip is in contact with the upper teeth, a sound called a ‘labiodental’ is produced (e.g., [f], [v]). The lower teeth can move upwards and downwards, whereas the upper teeth cannot. If the tip or the blade of the tongue moves towards to the upper teeth, a ‘dental sound’ is produced (e.g., [θ], [ð]) (Carr, 2009; Roach, 2008; Rogerson, 2012; Watson, 2009).



*Figure 2.4.* The tongue (Watson, 2009, p. 14)

Figure 2.4 from Watson (2009, p. 14) illustrates clearly the parts of the tongue; each part works with other articulators to produce different sounds (Carr, 2009). The alveolar ridge is the area from the front teeth to the hard palate (Roach, 2008). If the blade or the tip of the tongue touches on this area, a sound called an ‘alveolar’ is produced (e.g., [s]) (Carr, 2009; Roach, 2008; Watson, 2009). The next sound is called a ‘palato-alveolar’ which is produced by the blade of the tongue and the space from the alveolar ridge to the hard palate (e.g., [ʃ]) (Carr, 2009; Watson, 2009). The velum is an important organ because the air cannot pass through the nasal cavity if it is raised, whereas, when it is lowered, the air can flow to the nasal cavity (Roach, 2008; Watson, 2009). If the back of the tongue touches the velum, the sound called a ‘velar’ is produced (e.g., [k], [g]). The vocal folds are a place of articulation because they produce a ‘glottal sound’ in the space in the vocal folds called the glottis (e.g., [h]) (Carr, 2009; Watson, 2009).

The manner of the articulation refers to “how the airflow is impeded during their production” (Watson, 2009, p. 18). There are three types of stricture (Watson, 2009) or constriction (Carr, 2009; Rogerson, 2012); this refers to the extent to which obstruction occurs in the vocal tract (Watson, 2009) including complete stricture (Watson, 2009) or complete closer (Carr, 2009), partial stricture (Watson, 2009) or closed approximation, and open approximation (Carr, 2009; Watson, 2009).

When the air from the lungs is entirely blocked by the lower and upper lips, then the sound is produced through a complete closure called ‘stops’ or ‘plosives’ (Carr, 2009; Watson, 2009). The air is blocked at the beginning and then it is held to create pressure before coming out (Watson, 2009). If the air is blocked with a great deal of pressure, it might create the loud noise or plosion when the air flows out (Roach, 2008). Several sounds are produced in this manner (Roach, 2008; Watson, 2009) including a ‘bilabial stop’ (e.g., [p]), which can be labelled “a voiceless bilabial stop” (p.7), an ‘alveolar stop’ (e.g., [d]), which can be labelled “the voiced alveolar stop” (Watson, 2009, p.7) and others including velar stop (e.g., [g],[k]) and glottal stop (e.g., [ʔ]) (Carr, 2009; Watson, 2009). The next sound, which is also formed with a complete closure is called an ‘affricate’. The difference between a plosive and an affricate is the latter is releasing the air slowly after being blocked (Watson, 2009) e.g., [tʃ] is “a voiceless palatal-alveolar affricate” (Car, 2009, p.14). The last sound with the complete stricture is the nasal sound which is also produced through the nasal cavity (e.g., [m]) (Rogerson, 2012; Watson, 2009).

The sounds that are formed with close approximation refer to the sounds that are produced when the two organs in the vocal tract are not entirely closed; the air can be released with the friction. There are several fricative sounds including a ‘labiodental fricative’ (e.g., [f]), a ‘dental fricative’ (e.g., [θ], [ð]), a ‘palatal-alveolar fricative’ (e.g., [ʃ]) and a ‘glottal fricative’ (e.g., [h]) (Carr, 2009; Watson, 2009). The third type is ‘open approximation’. This form does not produce friction due to the wide space among the articulators (Carr, 2009; Watson, 2009). Four sounds that commonly take place in this form include “[ɹ] in red, [j] in yes, [w] in wet and [l] in loud” (Watson, 2009. p.21)

#### **2.4.3.2 Phonology**

Segmental phonemes and suprasegmental phonemes are the key concerns in teaching pronunciation (Bailey, 2005; Lightbown & Spada, 2017). “Consonants and vowels are called segmental phonemes” (Bailey, 2005, p. 11). Phonemes are combined to make words and phrases (Harmer, 2007), which can be a consonant like /p/ or /b/ or a vowel like /I/ or /ae/ (Bailey, 2003).

Competent speakers know how to make sounds from different phonemes by using articulation organs (Harmer, 2007).

For suprasegmental phonemes, Bailey (2005) proposed that “the word suprasegmental is used because these phonemes (including pitch and stress) carry meaning difference “above” the segmental phonemes when we speak” (p. 13). Intonation refers to the rising and falling of the pitch in an utterance. This is one of the most important parts of a suprasegmental phoneme. It can signal questions by ending with a raised pitch or define the attitude of the speakers (e.g., surprised or scared) and the speakers’ mood (Harmer, 2007). Several Thai EFL teachers experienced problems in developing Thai students’ pronunciation although the study of Thai learners’ pronunciation is very limited (Khamkhien, 2010b). However, according to Wei and Zhou (2002), the main problems in the English pronunciation competence of Thai students can be categorised into three main aspects: consonant and vowels, intonation and word stress due to the difference between the first language, and English pronunciation (Brown & Lee, 2015; Lightbown & Spada, 2017; Wei & Zhou, 2002).

Wei and Zhou (2002) investigated Thai university learners’ problems in English pronunciation and found that the problems affected intelligibility because of the difference between English and Thai. In the Thai language, when consonants are in the final position, they are always unvoiced, and there are no consonant clusters. Smyth (2001) highlighted that speakers with a Thai accent commonly have difficulties pronouncing final consonants and consonant clusters. Thai learners pronounce words with /e/ instead of /ei/ and mispronounce /r/ and /l/, /v/ and /f/, /z/ and /s/ (Wei & Zhou, 2002). Likitrattanaporn (2014) stated that Thai learners normally use voiceless sounds instead of voiced sounds such as /w/ for /v/ and /s/ or /t/ for ‘th’ (Wei & Zhou, 2002). The findings of Sahatsathatsana’s (2017) mixed-methods study of Thai university students’ difficulties in learning English phonetics found that learners had difficulties in pronouncing [θ] and [ð] because these sounds do not exist in Thai.

Another mispronounced sound is missing a word’s final consonant to show grammatical meaning, such as plurality or tenses, because this does not exist in their first language (Lightbown & Spada, 2017). Sahatsathatsana’s (2017) study also found that Thai university learners had a problem pronouncing ‘- ed’. Moreover, as Thai does not have the intonation when asking questions or using statements, Thai learners may confuse how to pronounce the rising or falling intonation in yes/no questions and wh-questions (Wei & Zhou, 2002). The problem of being unable to use correct intonation causes anxiety when speaking English (Singh et al., 2015).

Last, Thai learners do not pay attention to stress on the right syllable (Wei & Zhou, 2002) possibly because Thai is a “tonal language” (p. 8) in which stress is not used to differentiate syllables. Smyth (2001) stated that speakers with a Thai accent commonly place stress on the final syllable of words. Khamkhien’s (2010b) study of 90 university students’ pronunciation competence revealed that Thai undergraduate students’ pronunciation knowledge was rather restricted and that students had the most difficulty with stress in words with several syllables. Errors in pronunciation cause unintelligible pronunciation that is difficult for interlocutors to understand (Wei & Zhou, 2002) .

The next section presents discourse knowledge that helps speakers to speak cohesively and coherently. The concept of cohesion and coherence will be discussed showing how these two concepts can improve speaking skills.

#### **2.4.4 Discourse knowledge**

Goh and Burns (2012) pointed out that speakers need discourse-organisation skills to be able to manage extended discourse by using cohesion and coherence from language knowledge to produce language that is appropriate in specific social contexts. In written language, cohesion refers to “the means available in the surface forms of the text to signal relationship that exist between sentences or clausal units in the text” (Goh & Burns, 2012, p. 56). There are some cohesive devices (e.g., ‘however’, ‘moreover’, ‘for example’) to show the relationship between sentences or clauses in a written text, but in spoken language, cohesion refers to “the grammatical linking of one part of a text to another” (Lewis, 2009, p. 15). A similar grammar form or lexis is repeated to show the link between utterances or across conversation turns (Lewis, 2009; Thornbury, 2005) and to signal the listeners’ attention to different parts in the speech (Goh & Burns, 2012). Cohesion involves several linguistic devices. One of them is grammatical linking through a conjunction (e.g., ‘and’, ‘also’) to link discourses or ‘but’ to show a contrast between discourses (Thornbury, 2005). On the other hand, in writing, “coherence is based on a semantic relationship” (Connor, 1984, p.302) . Coherence exists in the text when an author’s purpose is understandable and his/her ideas are well- organised (Harmer, 2005). In spoken language, coherence refers to “pragmatic linking, the connection between two communicative acts” (Lewis, 2009, p. 15). This implies that it presents the link between a previous utterance and how a speaker respond in terms of meaning even without showing similar linguistic patterns.

Discourse knowledge involves managing turn taking (Thornbury, 2005), which is important in conversation analysis. A turn refers to an utterance at a particular moment. Turn taking is “the sequential order of talk” (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 1999, p. 38). Turn taking management relates to how to take a turn by showing a signal that a speaker wants to talk and how to yield a turn to an interlocutor by noticing his/her signals as well. Common discourse markers (e.g., ‘Well’) can be used at the beginning of a turn or show a contrast of one’s opinion from a previous turn. It is suggested that at a low level, EFL learners can successfully use discourse markers to connect utterances; however, discourse markers (e.g., anyway, right, you know, I mean) are rarely taught in the EFL classroom (Thornbury, 2005).

Only a small proportion of studies focus on discourse markers in EFL or ESL learners’ spoken language. Fung and Carter’s (2007) study of the discourse markers used by secondary school students in Hong Kong is one example. The study compared the markers used with the corpus of spoken British English. The findings from the analysis of the corpus were that the learners were likely to use referential function of discourse marker such as ‘and’, ‘because’, or ‘but’. However, the results showed a small number of other discourse markers such as ‘yeah’, ‘really’, ‘well’, and ‘you know’. In contrast, native English speakers seemed to use all functions of discourse markers. The researchers argued that the learners only used some particular types of discourse markers because their input was unnatural language emphasising grammatical structure rather than a discursal usage. The implication is that teachers can help learners naturally use discourse markers in conversation in their classrooms. This is a point often made by teacher’s handbooks (e.g., Harmer, 2007).

The following section presents genre knowledge for two main purposes: interpersonal and transactional functions. Being aware of these two functions can help speakers to communicate more effectively and successfully.

#### **2.4.5 Genre knowledge**

Two main purposes for speaking are interpersonal and transactional functions. The interpersonal function refers to communication for a social purpose to establish and strengthen a relationship whereas the transactional function aims to exchange information to achieve a particular objective ,for example, an exchange of products or services (Bailey, 2005; Brown & Yule, 1989; Harmer, 2007; Richards, 2008; Shumin, 2009; Thornbury, 2005).

Goh and Burns (2012) noted that the interactional function is not easy to master. Learners might not be able to find words to speak when they are in an interactional exchange

(Richards, 2008) because of the more informal, often colloquial language, needed for interactional talk. Goh and Burns (2012) agreed that the interactional function is difficult to teach because it is less predictable.

On the other hand, for transactional talk, the message is delivered to “get something done” (Bailey, 2003, p. 56) and the language used must be clearer and more specific (Brown & Yule, 1989; Richards, 2008) to avoid misunderstandings (Brown & Yule, 1989). The speaker thus requires communicative strategies to clarify their message. Negotiation through asking for clarification and comprehension check are commonly used in transactional talk. Accuracy is not a primary concern if the message is understood (Richards, 2008). It is essential that learners are provided with ample opportunities to interact with other learners in order to develop meaningful communication (Shumin, 2009).

As both functions are commonly mixed in communication in daily life (Goh & Burns, 2012), teachers should balance their lessons and activities to allow their students to interact with others in these two functions in order to help them communicate in different situations outside the classroom effectively and successfully.

As mentioned above, there are several key elements that are important for improving speaking skills. The next section presents key important aspects for speaking instruction in great detail. This can provide insight into what needs to be focused on in terms of teachers’ beliefs and practices regarding speaking instruction.

## **2.5 Teaching Speaking**

This section will focus on important aspects regarding teaching methods and pedagogy in the classroom for EFL teachers while teaching speaking. This includes accuracy and fluency, complexity, grammar instruction, vocabulary and pronunciation instruction in teaching speaking skills, approaches and methods relevant to teaching speaking skills, language used, affective factors, the model of teaching speaking, and negative washback and speaking skills.

### **2.5.1 Accuracy, fluency, complexity**

This section focuses on accuracy, fluency and complexity as they all relate to students’ speaking proficiency (Ellis, 2009). Several scholars (e.g., Bailey, 2003; Nation & Newton, 2009; Richards, 2003) identified that both accuracy and fluency are important for speaking competence. Complexity has been discussed recently since it is one of the goals in relation to the task- based learning (Brown & Lee, 2015). Skehan (1996) pointed out that complexity is a useful measurement to assess tasks. Ellis (2009) stated that proficient English speakers can use

English accurately and fluently while doing tasks by using complex structures. Teachers are expected to take accuracy, fluency and complexity into consideration when teaching speaking as they are all significant (Bygate, 2012; Chu, 2011). As a consequence, it is important to discuss the three terms as they will relate to other sections discussed in this study.

Scholars have defined accuracy in different ways; however, all of their definitions share some similarities. Goh and Burns (2012) highlighted the way that accuracy refers to "...using correct grammar. ...correct pronunciation..." (p. 43). Bailey (2005) stated that accuracy "...refers to ...selecting the correct words and expressions to convey the intended meaning, as well as using the grammatical patterns of English" (p. 5). Brown and Lee (2015) suggested that accuracy is "(clear, articulate, grammatically and phonologically correct language)" (p. 346). Richards (2006) pointed out the activities that could promote accuracy include practising correct forms with a limited sample of language, controlling choices of language used, focusing less on meaningful communication and practising decontextualised language.

On the other hand, Tavakoli, Nakatsuhara, and Hunter (2017) said that fluency in a broader sense refers to "a speaker's overall speaking proficiency and it may refer to his/her skills in use of language for communication purposes effectively" (p. 5), whereas fluency in a technical sense refers to "ease or automaticity with speech is produced, often demonstrated through flow, continuity and smoothness of speech" (p. 5). Similarly, Bailey (2005) proposed that fluency "is the capacity to speak fluidly, confidently, and at a rate consistent with the norms of the relevant native speech community" (p. 5). Brown and Lee (2015) defined fluency as "(flowing, natural) language" (p.346). Goh and Burns (2012) stated that fluency refers to "speech where the message is communicated coherently with few pauses and hesitations, thus causing minimal comprehension difficulties for the listeners" (p. 43). However, Thornbury (2005) stated that pausing is not always hesitation but provides time for the link between formulation and conceptualisation in the speech production process, and; therefore, some pausing is part of fluency. Thus, fluency is the speakers' ability to speak with flowing and natural speech in a coherent manner with only slight and reasonable pauses. Bailey (2003) and Richards (2006) both have suggested that teachers use activities that promote the students' fluency including focusing on success of communication, using language that is meaningful, employing communicative strategies (Harmer, 2007; Richards, 2006) and using unpredictable language (Richards, 2006).

Complexity refers to using language correctly in more complex forms, for example, subordination to suit the social and cultural context by focusing on the role and the relationship between the speaker and the listener (Goh & Burns, 2012). Housen, Kuiken, and Vedder (2012)



stated that complexity refers to “the ability to use a wide and varied range of sophisticated structures and vocabulary in the L2” (p. 2). In addition, the complexity of the language also relies on sociocultural contexts and the relationship between speakers and interlocutors (Goh & Burns, 2012). In this study, the definition of complexity adopted will refer to using complex sentences correctly. However, at low levels, for example, complexity may certainly not be the aim. The point is that the balance in the way these three concepts are covered in the classroom will depend on a number of factors. Some tasks might not require complexity because it might cause difficulties; therefore, learners’ language ability should be taken into consideration (Brown & Lee, 2015; Goh & Burns, 2012). Furthermore, spoken grammar has its own rules, so accuracy could be extended to those rules in which complexity might not be required. However, in formal prepared speeches, students are expected to speak with more complex sentences (Goh & Burns, 2012).

### **2.5.2 Grammar instruction in teaching speaking**

Knowledge of grammar enables speakers to communicate correctly (Richards, 2006) and effectively (Canale, 1983; Savignon, 1991); therefore, using grammar correctly could promote successful communication. This section will focus on grammar instruction relating to teaching speaking skills.

Long (2000) proposed the terms “focus on form’ and ‘focus on forms’ in terms of teaching grammar. The former ‘refers to how attentional resources are allocated and involve briefly drawing students’ attention to linguistic element...in context, as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning, or communication” (p. 185). It involves the activities that are not prepared to teach grammar items in advance but to focus on the structures deriving from the task. It is basically emphasised in task- based language teaching (Fotos, 1998; Long, 2000). Fotos (1998) added that it helps to “combine communicative language use with instruction on grammar forms in context” (p. 302).

On the other hand, ‘focus on forms’ refers to focusing on “isolated linguistic structures in a sequence prescribed by a syllabus or textbook” (Long, 2000, p. 179). Long (2000) proposed that focus on forms is practiced in many ways including explaining grammar structures explicitly, remembering short conversations, drilling and asking display questions that are used in the grammar translation method and the audiolingual method. Additionally, Long (2000) and Loewen (2018) both stated that ‘form-focused’ instruction is created to cover both focus on form and focus on forms. The strong form of form-focused instruction is very similar to implicit

grammar teaching in “which learners are only exposed to a target grammatical form through modified communicative input” (Fotos, 1998, p. 304). Dekeyser (1994) and Fotos (1998) pinpointed that no obvious grammar rules are highlighted in an implicit grammatical instruction approach; however, learners are exposed to communicative input that emphasises language usage. Arguably, implicit grammatical instruction is not suitable for the EFL context due to a lack of such input (Fotos, 1998). On the other hand, explicit grammatical instruction refers to “rules...formulated (either by the teacher or the students, either before or after examples/practice)” (Dekeyser, 1994, p. 188). In this way, language structures are clearly explained.

Implicit grammatical instruction is very similar to a strong form of the task-based language teaching. Skehan (1996) pointed out that a strong form of task-based learning primarily focuses on tasks. Wells (1985 as cited in Skehan, 1996) stated that tasks are used as a key to improve second language acquisition. Fotos (1998) proposed two types of task-based learning: implicit focus on form and explicit focus on form. The former promotes learners use of the language structures to achieve the task without clearly emphasising the target forms. On the other hand, the latter clearly points out the forms that are required for achieving the task. The explicit focus on form is similar to the one what Fotos (1998) suggested for the EFL context; she stated that informal instruction should be given before allowing learners to do the communicative activities and that teachers should give learners feedback after such activities. Moreover, explicit instruction seems to be more useful for adult learners who have been taught through such instruction as it makes them aware of particular language items (Loewen, 2018).

Interestingly, Alghanmi and Shukri's (2016) mixed-methods study of Saudi Arabian EFL teachers' beliefs and practices in grammar instruction indicated that although teachers believed in teaching grammar implicitly and grammar instruction within a communicative and natural context, they explicitly taught grammar using isolated exercises, drills and memorisation of grammar rules. With a few previous studies focusing on grammar teaching for speaking skills, a study of teachers' beliefs and practices in the Thai EFL university context could provide insights on this issue. Such a study would explore teachers' beliefs about effective ways of teaching grammar in teaching speaking and the role of grammar.

### **2.5.3 Vocabulary instruction in teaching speaking**

Some studies have emphasised that vocabulary is much more important than other linguistic aspects in speaking development (Koizumi, 2012); indeed several scholars (e.g., Harley, 1996; Lin 2015) have agreed that vocabulary plays a key role for improving L2 proficiency. Oya, Manalo and Greenwoods's (2009) study of 73 Japanese students in a language school in New Zealand found that there was a relationship between English vocabulary knowledge and accuracy, fluency and complexity regarding speaking skills.

Lewis (2009); however, stated that grammar and vocabulary knowledge might not be enough for learners to be competent speakers; they need multiword units for fluency. He proposed the lexical approach in order to provide a better view on lexis, which naturally exists in language. The lexical approach has several key principles; one of them is that "language consists of grammaticalised lexis, not lexicalized grammar" (p. vi). This implies that lexis is more central than grammar in language learning. The lexical approach was created to emphasise the importance of lexis, which refers focusing on words or combining words rather than language structures. Words and, chunks (Richards & Rodgers, 2012), which include collocation, lexical phrases and formulaic language (Thornbury, 2005), are the main focus in the approach (Lewis, 2009). Nation and Newton (2009) supported the teaching of collocation because learning formulaic language enables learners to express their intention as various formulaic expressions contain pragmatic functions and can shorten the time from the planning stage to the articulation stage in the cognitive process (see Section 2.2) (Thornbury, 2005).

Goh and Burns (2012) found that fixed formulaic and idiomatic expressions help improve learners' speech. Nation (2003) found that learning multiword units increases fluency. Learners can notice them from the text or acquire them through a great deal of input. Richards and Rodgers (2012) stated that lexical phrases and collocations are promoted in the task-based language learning to increase fluency in speaking. Lexical phrases including polywords, phrasal constraints and situational utterances promote students' fluency as they do not remember a single word but the larger structure, which is useful for their interactions (Nattinger, 1988). This can imply that learning multiword units including formulaic language and collocations can improve learners' fluency as it takes less time during the cognitive process. However, Richards (2008) argued that when students with a low level of English proficiency rely greatly on "a lexicalised system of communication" (p. 29) to make themselves understood, it affects the accuracy of their language.

Thornbury (2002) suggested that using translation can define the meaning of the vocabulary, and students can learn new phrases and expressions through the use of translation for communicating meaning (Al-Musawi, 2014). Nation (2003) stated that translation “provides the meaning in a simple, clear and comprehensible way” (p.138) and that students prefer using translation for learning new words in order to save time (Choomthong, 2014). This notion is supported by the findings of Latsanyphone and Bouangeune’s (2009) study of the use of the first language for teaching 169 Laotian EFL university students with low levels of English proficiency. They concluded that using L1 could increase their retention of new vocabulary for both isolated words and words in context because it provided them clear definitions and explanations. Similarly, Hummel’s (2010) study of the effectiveness of translation on 191 French university students’ vocabulary learning in a TESOL programme revealed that the use of translation could increase their participants’ short-term vocabulary retention. Additionally, López-Barrios, Alcázar and Altamirano’s (2017) mixed-method study of EFL Argentinian high school teachers’ beliefs and practices in teaching vocabulary revealed that while the participants recommended various techniques for teaching vocabulary, they were observed using translation for defining the vocabulary most frequently.

On the other hand, Thornbury (2002) pointed out that although providing translation is a time saving device and provides both form and meaning, when dealing with the unpredicted vocabulary in the classroom, students might not remember the vocabulary for very long. It may be that by not searching for the meaning, learners may easily forget it. Moreover, reliance on translation for meaning of vocabulary could interfere with the students’ ability to think in English when speaking. Boustani’s (2019) mixed-methods study of 258 Tunisian EFL students’ use of translation as a strategy for learning vocabulary revealed that the majority of their participants learned the new vocabulary through translation and they tended to think in Arabic first before translating it into English when speaking.

Thornbury (2002) stated that while providing an explanation of the meaning of the vocabulary might take longer than using translation, students have to work harder to understand the meaning. He pointed out that “they might be more cognitively engaged” (p. 81) and this, by implication, could mean a stronger connection with the meaning and potentially longer-term memory retention. Nation (2013) suggested that teachers could help students learn vocabulary through a definition by explaining a clear and simple definition, signalling the definition they gave to students, helping them remember the definition through, for example, relating its meaning with the word parts or using a mnemonic technique, drawing their attention to the

same word several times and not explaining words with similar meaning or form at the same time.

Elicitation is a very useful technique, particularly, with vocabulary that engages learners with the lesson and is seen to increase students speaking time (Thornbury, 2002; Usman, Ayouni, Samad, & Fitriani, 2018). Nunan (1999) defined the term 'elicitation' as "a procedure by which teachers stimulate students to produce samples of the structure, function, or vocabulary item being taught" (p. 306). In relation to techniques, the focus on 'coping strategies' is also relevant to developing speaking skills. Thornbury (2002) suggested that using coping strategies for production could help speakers express what they wanted without knowing the exact word by using vague language such as 'sort of 'and 'kind of'. Additionally, other techniques for promoting students vocabulary include teaching learners affixes, encouraging learners to use the words that they learn frequently (Nation & Newton, 2009), using semantic mapping, pictures or diagrams (I. S. P. Nation, 2013; Nattinger, 1988), providing example situations, and using synonyms and antonyms or a definition (Thornbury, 2002).

Games have been used for assisting vocabulary learning, and word guessing games are widely used (Harmer, 2007). Previous studies have revealed the effectiveness of using games on vocabulary learning for EFL students. Yip and Kwan's (2006) study of the effectiveness of online games on 100 EFL undergraduates' vocabulary learning in one Hong Kong university during a nine-week period through a pre-test and post-test indicated that the online vocabulary games helped their student participants enhance and retain vocabulary knowledge longer. Medina and Hurtado's (2017) mixed-methods study of the use of the Kahoot game on university students' learning vocabulary in Ecuador revealed that their students' post-test scores were higher than their pre-test scores. Interestingly, EFL students from both studies reported positive attitudes towards using the games. Wells and Narkon (2011) claimed that vocabulary games can help support teacher- directed teaching and promote students' understanding of important content. They also promoted student's vocabulary acquisition while students were enjoying the games. Apart from this, games can motivate students to learn and engage with the classroom activities, connect classroom to real world contexts and promote students' communication in the target language (Huyen & Nga, 2003). Moreover, Al-Issa's (2009) quantitative study of teacher students' beliefs in using games for teaching English revealed that their participants believed that games could help them manage the classroom, create a relaxed, friendly, fun, and motivating atmosphere, and at the same time it could promote students' English language learning.

A. Kirkpatrick (2012) argued that learners who remember a large amount of vocabulary might not use the words appropriately. Thornbury (2002) referred to this issues stating, “knowing the meaning of a word is not just knowing its dictionary meaning (or meaning)-it also means knowing the words commonly associated with it (its collocations) as well as its connotations, including its register and its cultural accretions” (p. 15). Vocabulary knowledge can be divided into receptive knowledge and productive knowledge (I. S. P. Nation, 2013; Thornbury, 2002). While receptive knowledge is knowing the meaning of the word, productive knowledge refers to using that word in producing utterances. Similarly, Nattinger (1988) pointed out two ways of teaching vocabulary including comprehension of vocabulary and production. Comprehension of vocabulary promotes an understanding of the words before storing them in the memory, such as using context clues and paired association word families; production allows students to retrieve those words from memory. Given the importance of vocabulary as the basis for spoken language production, its role in teaching speaking skills is clearly relevant to the focus of this doctoral study.

#### **2.5.4 Pronunciation instruction for teaching speaking**

Since 2015, Thailand has been part of ASEAN community, and English is used as the lingua franca (Baker, 2012; Kirkpatrick, 2011), which according to Kirkpatrick (2011) is “a common language between people who do not share a mother tongue” (p.2). Hayes (2010) asserted that in the Thai context, being close to native-speaker norms might be too demanding for teachers. Teachers and learners should develop their language ability to achieve the goal of communication and develop “a multilingual identity” (p. 316). A multilingual model should be a goal for pronunciation among people in the ASEAN community rather than a native-like model (Kirkpatrick, 2011). Nomnian (2014) stated that an awareness of ASEAN varieties should be raised among people in the ASEAN community, including Thailand, to help them communicate effectively in various contexts, strengthen relationships with other ASEAN members, accept a variety of accents and unite ASEAN people.

Jenkins (2000) suggested that the lingua franca core (LFC) model provides the elements of pronunciation that make it intelligible or understandable among non- native speakers. She proposed two features: core and non-core. If the speaker does not follow the core features, their pronunciation cannot be easily understood by others, whereas the non-core features are less likely to lead to misunderstanding the pronunciation (Lim, 2016). According to Jenkins (2002), the lingua franca core is easier to teach than the native English speaker model including RP

(Received Pronunciation) and GA (General American). Jenkins claimed that it provides a core that is suitable for non-native speakers to improve their intelligibility. Deterding (2011) summarised Jenkins's (2000) LFC core and non-core features as follows:

#### Core Features

- All the consonants, except [θ] and [ð]
- Initial consonant clusters
- Vowel length distinctions
- The mid-central NURSE vowel
- Nuclear stress (Deterding, 2011, p. 92)

#### Non-Core Features

- [θ] and [ð]
- Final consonant clusters
- Vocalized L
- Individual vowel quality
- Reduced vowels
- Lexical stress
- Intonational tones
- Rhythm (Deterding, 2011, pp. 92 - 93)

However, while the idea of ELF mutual intelligibility is acceptable among non-native speakers and supported by several proponents (e.g., Baker, 2012; Deterding, 2011; Kirkpatrick, 2011), many important aspects of how to implement English as a lingua franca into the Thai classroom remains unexplained or unclear. Several scholars (e.g., Snodin & Young, 2015; Kuo, 2006) have argued against this concept in terms of using it as a pronunciation model. It requires further discussion and an agreement of ELF curriculum, principles of teaching, standard teaching approaches, assessment and teaching materials; therefore, this might take several years to implement in Thai ELF classrooms (Geerson, 2013).

Previous studies explored similar findings of the NES models (American and British) that have dominated in the Thai context. Snodin and Young's (2015) survey-based study of 251 Thai students' preference of pronunciation and found that the highest proportion of the

participants rated the US variety of English first followed by British English. The researchers found that English as a lingua franca was not well known among Thais as the model for teaching English, and the learners' preference was based on the native English speakers to whom they have been exposed. In the same vein, Saengboon's (2015) survey-based study found Thai tertiary level participants preferred American and British accents as their pronunciation models. Khamkhien (2010b) remarked that English is taught in Thailand as a foreign language and many Thai learners prefer their pronunciation to be closer to a native-like as they view this model as a "prestige norm" (p.757).

Apart from this, NES preferred pronunciation models were common among EFL teachers in Asia as revealed in earlier studies (e.g., Galloway & Rose, 2014; Lim, 2016). Young and Walsh's (2010) study of 26 non-native English-speaking teachers' beliefs about their model of English by comparing English as international language and English as a lingua franca with native-speaker models revealed that most of their participant teachers used the US variety of English as a model for teaching, especially those in Asia, including Thailand, as many of them were trained to teach this model and their students were exposed to an American model through the great influence of American mass media, such as music and movies. Young and Walsh's (2010) results showed that although Jenkins' (2000) concept of ELF was interesting for the majority of teachers in the study, they found that it still did not provide a clear indication of the content, vocabulary or model of pronunciation used for teaching in the classroom.

Ploywattanawong and Trakulkasemsuk (2014) asserted that common ASEAN ELF features are still not stable; therefore, a native-speakers model is preferable as shown in the results of the studies mentioned above. Kuo (2006) pointed out that some learners might feel it important to be exposed to native-speaker models if they aspire to academic careers or work in native speaking-parts of the world. This notion is supported by Timmis's (2002) survey-based study of 600 international students and teachers from 45 nations in the UK that revealed that the majority of their student participants, including the students who tended to interact with non-native speakers, reported that they preferred having a native-like pronunciation.

In fact, other studies (e.g., Buss, 2016; Lim, 2016) also revealed similar findings relating to EFL teachers' lack of awareness of LFC. Lim's (2016) mixed-methods study of three Cambodian pre-service EFL teachers about their goal in teaching English pronunciation and their perception towards ASEAN English as a lingua franca (ELF) found that their participants believed that intelligibility was their goal for teaching pronunciation. In practice, however, the teachers were noticed to rarely teach pronunciation. Only one teacher pointed out one



pronunciation mistake that interfered with intelligibility. One of the participants mentioned students' mispronunciation of the word 'team' (/ti:m/) for 'theme' (/θi:m/). However, the sound [θ] was part of non-core features that did not interfere with intelligibility. This implies that he did not have an awareness of the LFC. Although, the teachers held positive beliefs towards the variety of ASEAN English, they hesitated to introduce the diversity of ASEAN English into the classroom because of the students' preference for native English speaker's models. This is in line with the results of studies mentioned above. Thus, there is an ongoing debate as to whether or not to implement ELF into the classroom. The current study focusing on Thai EFL university teachers' beliefs and practices in the Thai context may shed more light on this ongoing debate.

### **2.5.5 Approaches and methods relevant to teaching speaking**

The following section discusses teaching approaches and methods that have been used in teaching speaking skills in various countries including Thailand; these include approaches and methods including direct method, audiolingual method, communicative language teaching (CLT) and task-based language teaching. Although the grammar translation method has long been used in English teaching and learning including in the Thai EFL context (Feley,2005; Punthumasen,2007; Sengboon,2004), this method does not focus on teaching speaking skills (Larsen-Freeman, 2010; Richards & Rodgers, (2012). Therefore, the grammar translation method will not be discussed in this section.

Other approaches and methods have been developed over the last several years to remedy the weaknesses of earlier approaches and methods to improve English language teaching. A clarification of the terms used to discuss approaches and methods is necessary. Several scholars (e.g., Anthony, 1963, Brown, 2010; Harmer, 2007) defined the term 'approach' in the literature as follows. First, Anthony (1963) defined an approach "as a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language and the nature of language teaching and learning. ... It describes the nature of the subject matter to be taught" (pp. 63 - 64). This definition appears to support the views put forward by Richards and Rodgers (2012) who said that approach "refers to theories about the nature of language and language learning that serve as the source of practices and principles in language teaching" (p. 20). This definition is similar to other scholars (e.g., Harmers, 2007). However, I chose Richards and Rodgers's (2012) definition of an approach in this study because it defines clearly and inclusively what and why things going on in the classroom are influenced by theories regarding language and language learning and teaching.

On the other hand, Richards and Rodgers (2012) pointed out that “a method is theoretically related to an approach, is organizationally determined by a design, and is practically realized in procedure” (p. 20). Design is the important link that realises an approach to a method. Several components are combined in terms of design to contribute to a method including procedure, the teachers’ and learners’ roles, activities and a syllabus. This is relevant to the Harmer’s (2007) definition, “a method is the practical realization of an approach” (p.62). In this study, I chose Richards and Rodgers’s (2012) definition because it provides an overview of all components contributing to a method.

#### ***2.5.5.1 Direct method***

This method uses the target language entirely and was taught dominantly in the United States (Bailey, 2005; Harmer, 2007; Richards & Rodgers, 2012). The goal of this method is communication; it places much emphasis on daily spoken language and encourages learners to use the target language naturally and frequently. Learners learn new vocabulary naturally through producing full sentences instead of memorising lists of vocabulary (Larsen-Freeman, 2010). They focus on using language effectively as opposed to the grammar translation method (Finocchiaro & Brumfit, 1988). Teachers teach vocabulary with an emphasis on structures through demonstration, authentic materials and association of ideas. Pronunciation and grammar are also the focus of this method (Larsen-Freeman, 2010; Richards & Rodgers, 2012); grammar is not taught explicitly but inductively as situations are the focus of the syllabus. Learners discover the rules of structure from several given examples (Larsen-Freeman, 2010). This implies that both accuracy and fluency are emphasised.

Previous studies relating to the use of the direct method were conducted in the Thai EFL context. Pongpuen et al.’s (2018) mixed-methods study of the effectiveness of the direct method on improving six 5<sup>th</sup> grade students’ English proficiency focusing particularly on grammar revealed that the direct method could promote their participants use of the verb inflectional morphemes and improve their speaking and listening skills. Apart from this, Tieocharoen and Rimkeeratikul’s (2019) mixed-methods study of teaching methods that could impact students’ learning strategies in Thai and Vietnamese EFL teachers’ classrooms revealed that while in the Thai EFL classroom, the grammar translation method and CLT had been commonly used, in the Vietnamese EFL classroom, the participants employed the grammar translation method, direct method and the collaborative teaching approach. This implies that in their study, the direct method had rarely been used in the Thai EFL classroom.

The direct method is widely used in Europe; however, Sweet, criticised this method because it only emphasises using the target language for teaching without incorporating the standard principles of teaching. It may not be practical for EFL contexts including Thailand because it requires teachers with a high level of speaking competence or native-speaking teachers (Richards & Rodgers, 2012). However, in the Thai EFL classroom, where many of English teachers are non-native English teachers, the language used is mainly Thai (Khamkhien, 2010a). Moreover, the direct method is significantly opposed to the grammar translation method as the first language is prohibited in the classroom and the clear principle for teaching is not yet established whereas the traditional methods provide clearer principles of teaching (Richards & Rodgers, 2012).

Apart from this, there are other disadvantages of the method that might not be suitable for the Thai EFL classroom. This method may not suit a large class size where individuals have different needs. Moreover, the teachers cannot use translation; therefore, it takes a large amount of time for explanation (Tieocharoen & Rimkeeratikul, 2019). On the other hand, a simple explanation in L1 might be easier for them to understand (Richards & Rodgers, 2012). Bailey (2005) stated that the direct method became less popular when the audiolingual method was introduced.

#### ***2.5.5.2 Audiolingual method***

The audiolingual method is regarded as one of the first approaches providing an explicit view on teaching oral skills (Bailey, 2005). The input comes before output and oral skill comes prior to written skill (Bygate, 2012). The principle of this method is based on behaviourism, which consists of three important elements: a stimulus, a response and reinforcement. A teacher provides a stimulus, learners react to it and then it is reinforced by the teacher's praise or positive feedback from peers (Richards & Rodgers, 2012).

Since theoretical basis of this method is behaviourism (Bailey, 2003), it mainly focuses on accuracy and tries to eliminate mistakes at the sentence level. The goal of the method is to form good habits through the repetition of correct utterances and positive reinforcement (Bailey, 2005; Harmer, 2007; Larsen-Freeman, 2010; Richards & Rodgers, 2012); therefore, mistakes are corrected immediately so students will not learn incorrect forms (Bailey, 2003). Larsen-Freeman (2010) stated that "the more often something is repeated, the stronger the habit and the greater the learning" (p. 43). Teachers provide the model of the target language for learners to focus on

pronunciation and structures and pay attention to pronunciation, intonation and accuracy through drilling.

In this method, vocabulary is taught in context (Richards & Rodgers, 2012), and learners are taught grammar after finishing practice (Larsen-Freeman, 2010; Richards & Rodgers, 2012). This encourages students to absorb the language structures from the examples provided (Larsen-Freeman, 2010). Techniques used in the audiolingual method include dialogue memorisation, repetition drills, question and answer drills, transformation drills and so forth (Larsen-Freeman, 2010). Wanich (2014) highlighted that scripted dialogues that focus on a perfect use of language and memorisation are used for teaching speaking in Thailand; however, students are using a scripted dialogue that is likely to be written language, as opposed to the spoken language used in normal speech. Unsurprisingly, this way of teaching is influenced by written grammar in the grammar translation method.

However, it has been noted that the use of repetition does not hold the interest of learners (Bailey, 2005; Richards & Rodgers, 2012). The main criticism is that learners are not able to apply the skills to employ in a real conversation (Ellis, 1990; Richards & Rodgers, 2012). Learners who practised speaking by repeating dialogues from the textbook are not prepared for the real communication (Bailey, 2003). Repetition of the sentences can make students produce those sentences fluently and automatically; however, it does not help them to speak fluently and effectively in actual spontaneous conversations (Bailey, 2005). Bailey (2003) stated that fluency cannot be developed if students' mistakes are corrected constantly. Teachers should consider their oral mistakes a part of their learning through giving practice to promote students' fluency. Additionally, this method ignores the relationship between form and meaning and social contexts (Bygate, 2012), which is the focus in CLT.

Despite the issues outlined above, the audiolingual method has long been used in Thailand (Khamkhien, 2010a; Seangboon, 2004; Seangboon, 2017). Previous studies revealed the effectiveness of the audiolingual method on improving Thai EFL students' speaking skills. Kunnu and Sukwises's (2014) study of the use of the audiolingual method on developing nine Thai EFL adult students. The findings revealed that after using techniques from the audiolingual methods for 20 hours, the participants increased their fluency and spoke English more confidently. Similarly, Hidayati's (2016) study of the use of the audiolingual method on developing Thai EFL high school students' pronunciation ability found that through repetition drill, the participants were able to pronounce words intelligibly.

The audiolingual method has been applied so much in Thailand because of the way it allows teachers to manage large classes easily, particularly through drilling. The learners can be asked to drill the dialogue in pairs or groups, and the teacher can randomly call on some pairs to check their pronunciation. However, the repetition of some selected dialogues might not help learners be ready for authentic communication. The technique used in this method including dialogue memorisation, do not, in fact, promote students' fluency in real-life communication (Ellis, 1990). Moreover, the learners might be demotivated to learn because they are not interested in the dialogues selected by the teacher.

The following section discusses the communicative language teaching approach, which developed in many ways as a reaction to the weaknesses of traditional methods. It focuses on promoting communicative competence, which is different from the audiolingual method, which focuses on repetition to build good habits (Richards & Rodgers, 2012).

#### ***2.5.5.3 Communicative language teaching (CLT)***

Richards and Rodgers (2012) pointed out that the goal of CLT is to promote communicative competence (see Section 2.3). The knowledge of language form, meaning and function are important, and speakers can select the appropriate form for the social context and the interlocutors and negotiate to convey meaning. They acknowledge the use of cohesion and coherence to link utterances together to communicate effectively (Larsen-Freeman, 2010).

Howatt (1984) categorises CLT into two versions: a strong form and a weak form. The former refers to “language is acquired through communication” (p. 279) or ““using English to learn it””(p. 279) whereas the latter allows learners to have many chances to use language for communication, that is, “learning to use’ English,” (p. 279). In this way, the language items are taught before the communication activities (Bailey, 2005). This implies that the strong version emphasises learning language through having communication with others, whereas the weak version provides learners language structures before they use the language through communicative activities.

From the above, Littlewood's framework (1981) can be considered a weak version of CLT (Manta, 2013). The framework is categorised broadly into pre-communicative activities and communicative activities. The pre-communicative activities are subdivided into structure activities and quasi-communicative activities. Pre-communicative activities are created to prepare learners for practicing the isolated elements of knowledge and skills that are necessary for communicative abilities. Quasi-communicative activities are likely to create more relevance

between the structure form and functional meaning. For communicative activities, learners must focus on social meaning and functional meaning, which are reflected in using different language forms. Learners are expected to link their pre-communicative knowledge and skills into communicative meaning (Littlewood, 1981). Similarly, Richards (2006) classified three types of practices: mechanical practice, which is similar to controlled practice (e.g., drilling focusing on practicing grammar items), meaningful practices where students are required to use provided language but also make their own choices of language to make it a more meaningful, and communicative practice where students can use authentic language for communication.

Several scholars (e.g., Anderson, 2016; Criado, 2013) stated that PPP (presentation, practice, production) is also a weak version of CLT. Anderson (2016) added that, in fact, PPP was originally created during the rise of CLT not the audiolingual method and this weak form “has proven to be the most practically viable in language classrooms and ELT materials to date.” (p.226). This implies that Littlewood’s (1981) framework and PPP share similarities. Criado (2013) concluded that PPP consists of three stages: in the presentation stage, the language structures are presented implicitly or explicitly ; next, the practice stage emphasises practicing the target structures accurately through activities; and the productive stage allows learners to use the language fluently and freely through communicative activities (e.g., role plays and information gap activities). Accurate language and the ability to complete the activity are the goals. Communicative activities help learners communicate with their peers in tasks that are similar to communication outside the classroom (Harmer, 2007).

Working in pairs or groups plays an important role in communicative language teaching (Bailey, 2005; Larsen-Freeman, 2010; Richards, 2006). It encourages learners to have ample opportunity to talk ,which enhances their motivation and fluency (Richards, 2006). Learners are encouraged to learn through working with their peers while the teachers work as facilitators and monitors (Foote, 1997). The teacher’s role is not to provide the exact answer but to provide clues so that learners can discover answers for themselves (Dillenbourg, 1999). However, there are some limitations of using group work. The teachers traditionally have been trained to control the class and some learners are familiar with being passive, isolated or inferior learners (Ibrahim, Shak, Mohd, Zaidi, & Yasin, 2015). Learners with a low motivation might not take any actions leading to a conflict within their group. It is advisable that teachers provide a suitable guidelines to help each of them acknowledge their responsibility; therefore, they will help each other and evaluate their work (Colbeck, Campbell, & Bjorklund, 2000; Pattanpichet, 2011).

According to Richards (2006), for current classroom activities characteristics, grammar items are not taught separately, but through communicative activities that can motivate learners to master the language and help them to reflect their need for learning some language forms after finishing the activities. Communicative activities can motivate learners to communicate, interact and negotiate meaning. The activities combine both explicit and implicit grammar learning, and fluency is a key dimension of communication. The different language skills should be integrated to contribute meaningful communication while making mistakes and trials are the process of language learning, which is different from the audiolingual method, which limits learners' mistakes through providing correct responses (Larsen-Freeman, 2010; Richards & Rodgers, 2012)

Kam (2002) claimed that CLT has been used widely in 15 EFL countries in East Asia since the 1980s. Educators and the governments in some of these countries aim to promote communicative competence for their students; therefore, the national policies highlight the implementation of CLT, which encourages teachers to apply it in their classrooms (Islam & Bari, 2012; Liao, 2004; Littlewood, 2007; Nishino, 2008). In Thailand, the government also focuses on developing learner-centred instruction and communicative approaches relevant to CLT (Islam & Bari, 2012) as was stated in the "Thailand English Curriculum 1996" (Punthumasen, 2007, p. 2).

While some researchers (e.g., Wu, 2011; Ngoc, 2012) revealed that teachers and learners were satisfied with CLT as the majority of the teacher participants reported that they had a positive attitude towards CLT, but other scholars raised concerns towards the implementation of CLT in EFL contexts. Yu (2001) pointed out that the role of a teacher as a knowledge transmitter seems to be rooted in Chinese culture. Many unqualified teachers tend to use the grammar translation method as it allows them to teach basic English. A high number of learners in each class also interferes with the implementation of CLT. Gatbonton and Segalowitz (2005) pointed out that teachers from many countries, including China, seem to be familiar with teaching grammar structures, using drilling and providing vocabulary lists, which impedes their use of communicative activities including games, role plays and problem-solving activities.

Additionally, several scholars highlighted the challenges in using CLT in EFL contexts. Musthafa (2001) claimed that the environment that supports the success of communicative competence does not exist in the Indonesian EFL context where their teachers mostly use L1 and learners lack exposure to English in daily life; as a result, teachers are not likely to adopt a communicative approach. Likewise, the teacher participants in Al Asmari's (2015) study reported that their Saudi Arabian EFL context might be challenging for implementing CLT because it

requires students to be exposed to authentic English input and to provide opportunities for students to use English. Clear illustrations of teachers' challenges in the implementation of CLT approach are to be found in several studies in EFL contexts (e.g., Choi, 2000; Nishino, 2008; Wu, 2011).

In the Thai context, the findings of earlier studies were similar regarding the way that traditional teaching approaches and methods still played an important role in teaching English. In Tayjasantant and Barnard's (2010) mixed-methods study of the teachers' beliefs and practices in the implementation of CLT in Thai high schools, all teachers viewed CLT as beneficial for teaching English. However, the techniques they used mostly included practicing language structures, repetition and translation, which are mainly used in the grammar translation method and the audiolingual method (Larsen-Freeman, 2010). The findings showed that most teachers used more Thai than English for giving instruction and a teacher-centred approach was dominant throughout their lessons. Accuracy was emphasised over fluency. In the same vein, Tarat's (2016) mixed-methods study of five Thai EFL teachers relating the implementation of CLT revealed that only three teachers had an understanding of CLT and were able to effectively implement it into their lessons. However, the other two still used traditional teaching techniques and relied on textbooks. The reason for using translation was cited as the low level of learners' English proficiency. Khamkhien (2010a) argued that CLT in Thailand is not successfully implemented and that teachers are still unfamiliar with it. Apart from this, other studies have pointed to other teacher difficulties, for example, their inadequate knowledge of CLT (A. Kirkpatrick, 2012) and insufficient English ability (Kaur et al., 2016), which could impede their use of CLT.

According to Ellis (2003b) and, Zhao (2011) the strong version of CLT is task-based learning originally from CLT (Ellis, 2003a; Richards & Rodgers, 2012; Skehan, 2003). The following section will discuss task-based learning as the approach that has had a major influence on the teaching of speaking.

#### ***2.5.5.4 Task-based language teaching***

In task-based language teaching, tasks play an important role in language learning (Richards & Rodgers, 2012). It focuses on meaning through using language to achieve the tasks (Bygate, Skehan, & Swain, 2013), which allows learners to focus both on language and the process of learning and also brings the authentic language outside into the classroom (Nunan, 2004). However, there is no clear agreement on one exact definition of 'tasks' (Crookes, 1986 as cited in Ellis, 2003b).



Long (1985) proposed that “examples of tasks including painting a fence, dressing a child, filling out a form, ... In other words, by “task” is meant the hundred and one things people do in everyday life” (p. 89). This implies that the term ‘task’ involves more than language learning, rather a task are the daily actions of individuals. However, Prabhu’s (1987) definition of task seems to involve the idea of learning through the task, that is, “an activity which required learners to arrive at outcome from given information through some process of thought, and which allowed teachers to control and regulate the process” (p. 24). Its places emphasis on the outcome of the task through learners’ thinking; however, the teacher still plays an important role throughout the process. The definition of tasks seems to develop continuously. Prabhu (1987) and Skehan (1996) also focused on the outcome of the task as it is needed to be assessed and meaning focus is emphasised. Skehan’s (1996) definition is “an activity in which meaning is primary, there is some sort of relationship to the real world, task completion has some priority, and the assessment of task performance is in terms of task outcome” (p. 38).

Nunan (2004) stated that “a task is a piece of classroom work that involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is focused on mobilizing their grammatical knowledge in order to express meaning” (p. 17). In the current study, I chose Nunan’s (2004) definition to represent the task as it allows learners to use language knowledge to form meaning and to interact among themselves to achieve the outcome of the task.

Ellis (2003) states that task-based language teaching is considered as a strong form of CLT. In other words, tasks have basically been employed throughout a language curriculum. Willis (2008) implements tasks into a cycle of teaching by classifying the process of task-based learning into three steps: pre-task, task cycle and language focus. At the pre-task stage, learners are introduced to the topic and the goal of the task is explained. Some essential words and phrases that can be used in the task are pointed out by a teacher but not in the same way as presenting new language forms. Willis and Willis (2012) asserted that task-based language learning does not provide learners a series of language forms to practice. This can refer to implicit grammatical instruction (see Section 2.5.2). Learners learn the target language through their attempt to achieve a task. The outcome of the task is the exchange of meaning through language. In the task-cycle stage, learners have to plan their own tasks in groups or pairs and present their work to the class. However, teachers and learners discuss the language or learners do some practice on particular language items in the language focus stage (Willis, 2008). On the other hand, Ellis (2009) argued that “there is no single way of doing TBLT” (p.224). He proposed five characteristics of TBLT

that shared some similarities with other scholars (e.g., Ellis, 2003; Long, 1985) and included encouraging natural language use, promoting learner-centeredness, implementing focus-on-form, using unfocused or focused tasks and rejecting traditional approaches such as present-practice and production stage (PPP).

In contrast, several scholars are proponents of the weak form. Nunan (2006) suggested that both form and meaning are working together to achieve the task. Nunan (2004) stated that it is beneficial for learners to focus on form before completing tasks as classrooms are the place for them to practise language before experiencing it in the real world. This is similar to task-supported language teaching (TSLT). There is a clarification between these two types of tasks (Ellis, 2013; Grace, 2015). While task-based learning “requires a syllabus in which the content is specified entirely in terms of the task to be performed...” (Ellis, 2013, p. 5), task-supported language teaching works “as a means of providing opportunities for practising pre-determined linguistic items” (Ellis, 2013, p. 5). This means that task-based learning teaching (TBLT) is based on meaning-focused tasks (Silva, 2006), which does not provide explicit grammar instruction before the task while task-supported based language teaching (TSLT) does. Task-based learning teaching is regarded as a strong version of CLT where communication is a focus rather than grammar, and fluency is valued over accuracy (Grace, 2015). On the other hand, TSLT “incorporates tasks into traditional language-based approaches to teaching” (Ellis, 2003, p. 27). Ellis (2003) concludes that both types of tasks promote more communicative in language teaching.

Task-supported language teaching is regarded as a weak form of CLT as it employs present-practice and production (PPP). Language items are introduced to students as examples during the presentation stage. Teachers can either explain such items or not. Then, students practise these items through exercises. In the final stage, tasks are used (Ellis, 2003b). While exercise is “a language-tied controlled practice...” (p. 204), tasks are “link[ed] to real-world process of communication” (p. 204). However, the difference between PPP and task-supported language teaching is that for task-supported language teaching, students are not aware of specific language items. They decide to use such items in order to convey meaning through the interaction with the complete task (Silva, 2006).

While the debate of weak form and strong form still exists, Skehan (1996) suggested that the outcome of the tasks in task-based learning should be assessed in three aspects: complexity, accuracy, fluency (CAF) (see Section 2.5.1). Several studies (e.g., Mangu, 2008) explored the effectiveness of task-based learning in these three aspects in promoting speaking production.

Mohammadipour and Rashid's (2015) experimental study of the effectiveness of using the task - based language learning together with a cognitive approach with 72 Malaysian undergraduate learners' English-speaking ability revealed that task-based learning can promote learners' accuracy, fluency and complexity which resulted in developing their speaking proficiency. In their study, the learners conducted consciousness raising activities through authentic video clips to absorb the language for the future task. They were taught the related language and pronunciation and had a chance to plan their task at the pre-task stage to prepare the language in terms of accuracy, fluency and complexity. During the task, they were encouraged to make presentation in front of the class. At the post- task stage, learners received feedback from their peers and teachers to correct errors and promote the complexity of their language. Likewise, Mayo, Agirre and Azkarai's (2017) study of the impact of task repetition on 120 Spanish EFL young students' oral production regarding complexity, accuracy and fluency (CAF). Their findings revealed that a group of students with procedural task repetition (same task type, but different content) had increased accuracy and fluency.

Recently, researchers have been interested in task-based language teaching in foreign language (Shehadeh, 2017) with broader topics of interest (e.g., Newton & Bui, 2017; Wen, 2017) (Bryfonski, 2020). In Thailand, to improve students' English proficiency, several teaching approaches and methods including TBLT have been experimented with by educators and English teachers (Khamkhien, 2010a). However, previous studies carried out in EFL contexts including in Thailand demonstrated that teachers still were not familiar with TBLT. McDonough and Chaikitmonkol's (2007) mixed-case study of nine Thai EFL university teachers and 35 learners' beliefs towards task-based language teaching over the course of one year illustrated that the learners and the teacher participants believed that task-based language teaching encouraged learners to think on their own and benefited their academic tasks in the real world. However, they expressed concerns that learners who were used to learning through a traditional approach and teachers ill equipped with knowledge of task-based learning needed much more instructional guidance. Apart from this, studies in the area of TBLT in the Thai context still have not provided solid evidence of the impact of TBLT on English education (Wongdaeng, 2020), emphasising the need for further studies on TBLT in the Thai context.

Similarly, teachers in similar EFL contexts also were not familiar with TBLT. Zheng and Borg's (2014) qualitative study of three secondary school EFL Chinese teachers' beliefs in TBLT revealed that their teachers had a limited understanding of TBLT. Their understanding of TBLT seemed to be narrow and it related to CLT, for example, in pair and group work. Two experienced

teachers introduced grammar items into practice more often than what was suggested by the curriculum whereas an inexperienced teacher followed the curriculum more strictly. The main sources shaping their implementation of TBLT were a textbook that provided guidance for teaching, their beliefs in the importance of grammar and large class size.

In conclusion, the knowledge pedagogy linked to the teaching of speaking has developed gradually. In the 1970s, the focus was on repetition, drilling, memorising and responding to drills based on the audiolingual method. CLT has been implemented in teaching since the 1980s, and communicative syllabuses have been used instead of grammar-based syllabuses. Many speaking courses aim to promote fluency through using tasks and communicative activities so that learners have more opportunities to use real communication to improve their speaking skills (Richards, 2008). However, CLT approaches in practice have been less evident in studies in the Southeast Asia and Thai contexts.

The aspects of language use in the classroom have often been debated in English language teaching. While some approaches and methods supported different extents in using L1, others argued against the use of L1. The use of L1 and L2, then will be discussed in the following section.

### **2.5.6 L1 vs L2**

The use of L1 in English language classrooms has been viewed in different ways according to different approaches and methods (Nazary, 2008). The language used in the grammar translation method is mainly the students' first language, but this practice, is generally frowned upon in the direct method and the audiolingual method. More recently, judicious use of the students' first language has been regarded as acceptable in the CLT approach (Larsen-Freeman, 2010). Some scholars (e.g., Al- Nofaie, 2010; Choomthong, 2014; Hall & Cook, 2014) agree that L1 should be used at some points; however, others (e.g., Krashen, 1981; Mahmoudi & Amirkhiz, 2011) emphasise the danger of overuse of L1, which they believe can interfere with students' target language learning process.

Atkinson (1987) highlighted many advantages of using L1 in teaching English including eliciting language from students, checking their understanding, giving instruction for low- level students, allowing students to explain knowledge to each other, presenting grammar structures, and so forth. Harmer (2007) remarked that using L1 in L2 classrooms can help explanations particularly grammar rules with low-level students, allowing learners to have more discussion time in the classroom, giving teachers a better understanding of students' needs and allowing a comparison of L1 and L2 to reduce a student's misunderstanding or errors. In addition, the use of

L1 has been suggested as a way of building rapport with students and increasing low-level students' motivation (Choomthong, 2014).

There are several studies (e.g., Jadallah & Hasan, 2010; Schweer Jr, 1999) supporting the use of L1 in the English classroom. Al-Nofaie's (2010) mixed-methods study of three Saudi Arabian teachers and 30 students' attitude toward the use of the L1 found that these participants had a positive attitude toward the use of L1 in the classroom. Their use of L1 was mainly in explaining difficult words and grammar rules and giving exam instructions. Using L1 for defining difficult words helped them save time whereas giving instructions for the exam in L1 reduced students' anxiety. Similarly, Hall and Cook's (2014) study of the use of L1 in a large-scale study of 2,785 teachers from 111 countries revealed that 73.5 % of these teachers used L1 in the classroom to some extent although they believed that English should be used as the main medium for giving instruction. L1 was used, for example, to explain grammar structures and unclear meanings in English and to establish rapport with students to create a good classroom atmosphere. These participants also reported that they preferred using L1 with lower-level students rather than with higher-level students.

In opposition to the findings above, Mahmoudi and Amirkhiz's (2011) mixed-methods study of Persian EFL pre-university students' attitudes towards the use of L1 in Iran found that students believed that overusing L1 could be demotivating for them in learning English. These students were not satisfied with their teachers' overuse of L1, and students felt that they wasted time that could have been used to practice the language they were learning and that extensive use of L1 prevented their ability to think directly in the target language. It is widely agreed that overuse of L1 can prevent students from exposure to the target language (Choomthong, 2014; Harmer, 2007) and hinder them from being able to think directly in English (Choomthong, 2014). These negative impacts may all interfere with students' development of their communicative skills (Tarat, 2016).

From a different perspective, overuse of L1 in L2 classrooms has been identified as resulting from deficiency in spoken English among teachers. Karnnawakul's (2004) research report revealed that many of Thai teachers were "least proficient at speaking" (p.80) compared to their receptive skills, and many of them preferred using L1 in their classrooms. Additionally, several scholars (e.g., Kanoksilapatham, 2007; Kaur et al., 2016) remarked that English teachers in Thailand have a low level of English proficiency, and as a result, mainly use Thai in the classroom. The overuse of L1 in the Thai EFL context was illustrated in several studies (e.g., Limtrairat & Aksornjarung, 2015; Tayjasantant & Barnard, 2010). Nonkukketkhong, et al.'s

(2006) case study of five Thai secondary school teachers perceptions towards the use of the learner-centred approach revealed that these teachers mainly used Thai for teaching. In Choomthong's (2014) review article on this topic, she concluded that extensive use of L1 causes Thai students to have problems in being able to effectively communicate in spoken English and contributes to their lack of confidence. Apart from this, other studies (e.g., Choi, 2000; Jafari et. al, 2015) revealed that teachers in other EFL contexts also faced a similar problem regarding their lack of proficiency in speaking. Chen and Goh's (2011) mixed-methods study of 331 Chinese EFL tertiary teachers from 44 universities illustrated that they were disappointed with their own low self-efficacy in speaking.

Choomthong (2014) stated that teachers' use of L1 does not always impede students' speaking proficiency if the teachers have been trained to teach English communicatively. Given the attention this issue has received, any investigation of Thai EFL teachers' beliefs and practices regarding teaching speaking skills is likely to provide useful data relating to beliefs and practices toward the language used in speaking instruction.

The following section discusses affective factors that seem to influence students' speaking skills. Being aware of this issue, teachers can help students to reduce student anxiety when speaking and also increase their willingness to communicate in L2.

### **2.5.7 Affective factors and speaking skills**

Affective factors, for example, anxiety, are believed to be influential in students' foreign language learning (Bhatti & Memon, 2016; Henter, 2014). Arnold and Brown (1999) pointed out that "anxiety is quite possibly the affective factor that most pervasively obstructs the learning process" (p.8). The focus now has been extended from anxiety in language learning in general to anxiety in learning particular skills including speaking. Young (1990) stated that students often claim that speaking in a foreign language seems to be "the most anxiety-producing experience" (p. 539). Several scholars (e.g., Goh & Burns, 2012; Heng, Abdullah & Yusof, 2012; Zhiping, 2013) have supported the idea that anxiety is one of the main factors affecting speaking performance when students have to produce their speech immediately without much time for planning. Additionally, student's anxiety impacts their willingness to communicate in L2. However, teachers can help improve students' speaking if they are aware of their anxiety (Goh & Burns, 2012). As the present study focused on the area of teacher's beliefs and practices in speaking skills, students' anxiety toward studying speaking skills should be taken into consideration.

Anxiety refers to a “subjective feeling of tension, states of apprehension, nervousness, and worry” (Koh & Burns, 2012, p. 26). Generally, scholars classify anxiety into two types: trait anxiety and state anxiety. The former refers to an individual’s stable personality trait, whereas the latter refers to temporary anxiety that is evoked by stimuli (Spielberger, 1983 as cited in Horwitz, 2001). MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) pointed out that another type of anxiety that mainly relates to language learning is that of “situation specific anxiety” (p. 515). Woodrow (2006) specified that situations that contribute to anxiety include language classrooms (Heng, Abdullah, & Yusof, 2012).

Anxiety has a huge impact on language learners’ English speaking (Goh & Burns, 2012). Previous studies (e.g., Akkakoson, 2016) revealed a correlation between student’s anxiety and their speaking performance. Zhiping’s (2013) case study of eight international students’ causes of anxiety when speaking English and their solutions in a Malaysian university demonstrated that students with a high competence in speaking skills had a low level of anxiety in speaking. Young’s (1990) study of students’ sources of anxiety in speaking a foreign language with 135 undergraduates and 109 high school students revealed that the students were afraid of speaking in the foreign language in front of the class. Although students needed some feedback from the teacher, they especially wanted positive feedback, which they felt could reduce their anxiety.

Significantly, several studies (e.g., Ananda, Febriyant, Yanmin & Mu’ in, 2017; Bhatti & Memon, 2016; Young, 1990; Zhiping, 2013) shared similar results around corrective feedback that could cause student anxiety in their speaking. B. Mak’s (2011) survey-based study of factors causing 313 Chinese students’ anxiety in speaking in the classroom in a university in Hong Kong indicated that when teachers pointed out students’ errors while they were speaking in front of the class, it caused them anxiety. Akkakoson’s (2016) survey-based study of 282 Thai university students’ anxiety in studying English conversation revealed that the Thai EFL undergraduates were afraid of being criticised, and it made them feel negative toward the speaking class. Ölmezer-Öztürk and Öztürk’s (2016) mixed-methods study of 12 18-20 year-old elementary -level Turkish EFL students’ perceptions towards types and timing for oral corrective feedback illustrated that using immediate corrective feedback made them aware of their errors, but that, it also caused anxiety and discouraged them from participating in class, particularly when the teacher continuously corrected them. Interestingly, these participants saw delayed corrective feedback as helpful and that it could reduce their anxiety.

Indeed, much anxiety can be reduced when teachers create an appropriate classroom atmosphere, and this is illustrated in the findings of some previous studies. Zhiping's (2013) study mentioned above, illustrated that students were satisfied with the teacher's strategies to deal with their anxiety by making jokes and appreciating their responses. This is also in line with Young's (1999) study, which revealed that teachers use of humour and relaxed and patient personalities could decrease student anxiety.

Another area that has been researched in recent years regarding speaking skills is willingness to communicate (WTC). What increases anxiety can also reduce willingness to communicate (MacIntyre, Dörnyei, Clément, & Noels, 1998). Macintyre et. al (1998) defined willingness to communicate as "a readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using a L2" (p. 547). They highlighted that WTC in L2 learners is the goal of education and proposed the heuristic model of variables influencing WTC for L2 learners. The model takes linguistic, communicative and social psychological variables that might affect "one's "willingness to communicate." (p. 545) into consideration. These variables could be the indicator and explanation of L2 speakers' willingness to communicate (Mahdi, 2014). Kang (2005) argued that learners with a high level of WTC tended to use L2 as a medium for communication authentically and that WTC also promotes learner autonomy. All this reinforces the need to promote students' WTC, which in turn influences the development of students' L2 speaking ability. The key message is that it is a priority to lower student anxiety in the classroom.

Apart from the key aspects mentioned above, it is important to present a model for teaching speaking as it provides a circle that allows for a systematic approach to teaching speaking skills. The teachers can apply the process from the model including creating the lesson plan, the classroom activities and providing feedback. The model for speaking instruction will be presented in the following section.

### **2.5.8 A model for teaching speaking**

Teaching speaking can be considered a difficult task for many teachers as it is complex and involves many dimensions. However, a number of scholars have attempted to construct models of teaching speaking (e.g., Florez, 1999; Goh & Burns, 2012; Wang, 2014) that can be used to guide teacher practice. In this section, the Goh and Burns (2012) model is discussed in detail, with references to other models in order to demonstrate how it can make explicit the important stages in teaching speaking and how it may be practical for both language novices and experienced teachers to follow. I chose this model because it provided distinct steps for how to teach speaking in which EFL teachers could apply for using in their classrooms. Apart from this, their beliefs and practices could be compared with the model for improving their speaking instruction. The Goh and Burns (2012) model seems to be influential in Wang's (2014) model,



which was constructed to use with Chinese EFL students. Furthermore, the Goh and Burns model provides stages in developing speaking skills that were not seen in Florez's (1999) model including promoting fluency, the stage of task repetition and feedback from teachers.

The Goh and Burns (2012) model consists of seven stages in a cyclical process. The first stage, "focus learners' attention on speaking" (p.153), aims to prepare learners to realise why they need to develop their speaking and prepare them to plan how to achieve the outcome of an activity. Learners' existing knowledge relating to an activity can be stimulated at this stage. In the second stage, "providing input and/or guide planning" (p.156), learners are prepared for the language items and given the content of what they are going to say. This is supported by Wang's (2014) model in which learners need time for preparing useful language items, vocabulary and strategies to reduce their anxiety and gain authentic input as a role model, which is consistent with Florez's (1999) stage for teaching speaking that emphasises presenting a role model, such as a video, that allows learners to notice the language and the context in a real-world situation. The third stage is "conducting speaking task" (p.159) where learners use the language to complete the activity, for example, an information gap or a problem-solving activity, without focusing much on accuracy to promote fluency (Goh & Burns, 2012). Bailey (2005) agreed that these activities encourage learners' negotiation for meaning resulting in improving their language. Moreover, activities, such as 4/3/2 activities (Nation & Newton, 2009), in which the time for speaking is reduced from four minutes to two minutes are suggested by Wang's (2014) model to promote fluency. The fourth stage is "focus on language /skill/strategies" (p.159), and the goal of this stage is to encourage accuracy through carefully considering selected parts from the previous stage.

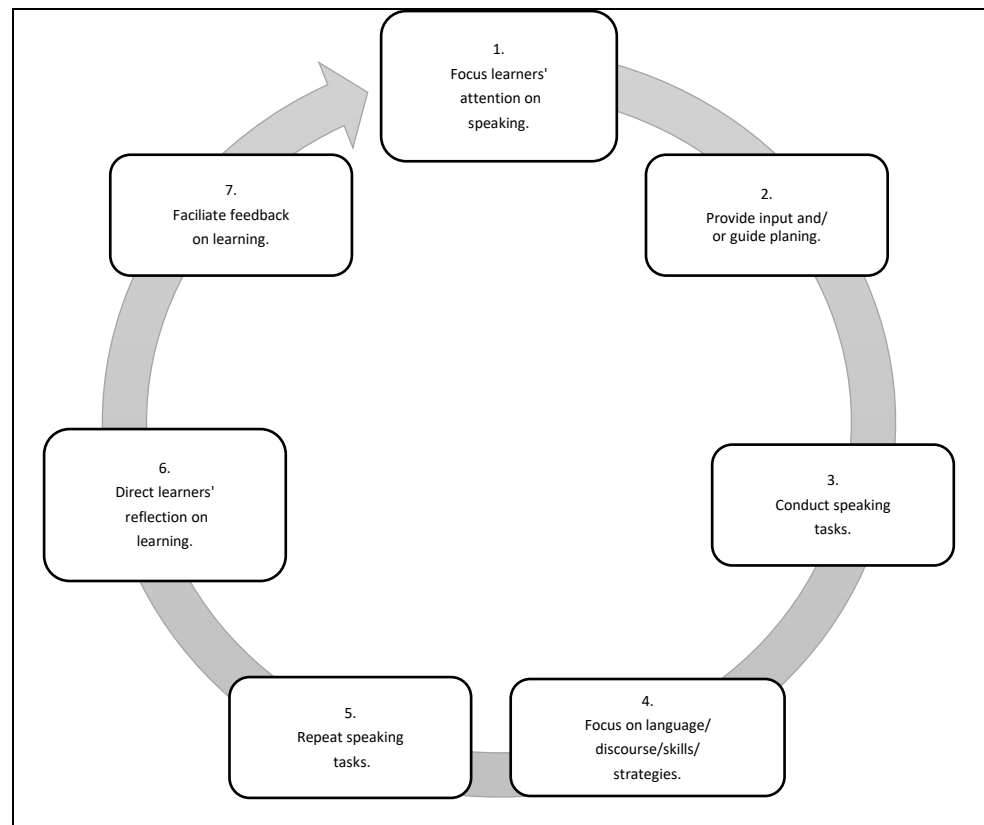


Figure 2.5. The teaching-speaking cycle (Goh & Burns, 2012, p. 153)

The fifth stage is “repeat speaking task” (p.160), which allows learners to repeat what they have done in the third stage but change the focus or interlocutors. A. Burns (2012) pointed out that what makes the fifth stage different from the third stage is closer attention to the language items in the fourth stage, which makes their performance better than that in the third stage. This stage is also provided in Wang’s (2014) model; however, some models (e.g., Florez, 1999) do not provide the repetition stage. The sixth stage is “direct learners’ reflection” (p.161) where learners have a chance to reflect on their own performance individually or, in pairs or groups. The last stage is “facilitate feedback on learning” (p.163) in which the teacher provides feedback on what learners have done from the beginning (A. Burns, 2012; Goh & Burns, 2012). While self-evaluation is pointed out in both Florez’s (1999) and the Wang’s (2014) models, teachers’ feedback is only seen in Wang’s model.

The Goh and Burns’ (2012) model provides all stages that can be applied to the Thai EFL context as the model is accessible, applicable and easy to follow for practitioners. Thai EFL teachers can follow the model when designing their speaking lesson to improve students speaking skills. Learners will benefit from working with peers and having ample opportunities to speak (Goh & Burns, 2012), which suits the Thai EFL context where students have few opportunities to speak the target language outside the classroom. Focusing students’ attention on speaking can prepare Thai EFL students for tasks while providing their input through examples, including

authentic materials, increasing their exposure to the target language. In this way, students gain the new language in terms of, for example, vocabulary and grammar structures to use in the next stage. Importantly, as Thai EFL teachers seem to have problems in balancing accuracy and fluency in the classroom (Nonkuketkhong et al, 2006; Tarat, 2016), following the model particularly from stages three to five, which allows students to conduct speaking tasks before focusing on language and then repeating their speaking tasks, can help teachers promote both students' fluency and accuracy. Additionally, learners can benefit from having a chance to reflect on their performance in terms of what they need to be improved upon from their own perspectives while also getting personal feedback from teachers to improve their speaking proficiency. In this way, it can reduce Thai EFL students' anxiety when facing corrective feedback in front of the class (Akkakoson, 2016).

Apart from concerns relating to aspects that support students' speaking skills, teachers should be aware of the impact of negative washback on improving students speaking skills. This issue is discussed in the next section.

### **2.5.9 Negative washback and speaking skills**

An important concept related to testing and assessment in English language teaching is that of washback. This has significance for a study of this nature because washback is about the relationship between a test and its impact on teaching and learning (Smith, 1991). In other words, teachers' beliefs and practices are always likely to be influenced by the perception of the importance of tests that their students have to undertake and the role of the curriculum. The concept of negative washback is discussed as follows.

Bailey (2005) pointed out that a test should measure what teachers have taught and what students have learned, and a valid test refers to "a test that measures what it is intended to measure" (p. 21). However, Bailey (1996) referred to "the influence of testing on teaching and learning" (p. 259) or so called 'washback', which exists in many classrooms (Alderson & Wall, 1993) as a test can be a determiner of what is taught and how it is taught (Bailey, 1996). Negative washback refers to how it impedes students' development (Bailey, 2005; Taylor, 2005).

Washback appears when teachers and students are forced by the test "to do things they would not necessarily otherwise do" (p. 117) to help students achieve good scores (Alderson & Wall, 1993). Teachers could satisfy their employer and might not feel guilty or embarrassed if they help students prepare for the test well enough to help them pass the exam. To prevent

themselves from such negative feelings, it leads to “teaching to the test” (Smith, 1991, p.9). This includes narrowing of the curriculum by focusing on content that will be tested and discarding other parts that will not be on the test (Green, 2013; Smith, 1991) resulting in negative washback. Kilickaya (2016) stated that teachers might use techniques that can increase students’ scores; however, their ability in language used including speaking skills might not be improved if speaking skills are not tested.

Several previous studies (e.g., Cheng, 1997; Lee & Bath - maker, 2007) illustrated that teachers’ teaching was influenced by the exams their students were taking. Aftab, Qureshi and Willaim (2014) studied of the effect of washback on English exams among Pakistani college teachers and students and found that there was negative washback from English intermediate exam on content and teaching methodology. Teachers were teaching to the test and were influenced by the process of assessment. The syllabus did not suit the use of CLT, and teachers’ goals were to improve students’ writing and reading skills in preparation for the test rather than paying attention to speaking and listening skills as the test did not focus on communicative skills. This is consistent with the results of Kilickaya’s (2016) study of the impact of an English test on the teaching of 30 Turkish EFL teachers. His findings illustrated that the teachers were affected by the style and content of the exam. The teachers taught students grammar rules through an explicit grammar approach and lists of vocabulary for students to remember. While two teachers reported that they attempted to promote students’ listening and speaking skills, only a small amount of time was spent on improving such skills. Although they were aware that all skills, including speaking, were important to help students communicate in English, the format of the test forced them to focus on the grammar, reading and vocabulary that would be tested to help students achieve high scores. This implies that the absence of a speaking test might be the key factor. This is possibly due to the fact that testing speaking can be too time consuming and difficult to administer and evaluate; therefore, a speaking test is often excluded from exams, which means that more techniques for assessing speaking skills are required (Hirai & Koizumi, 2009).

Likewise, Amengual- Pizarro’ s (2009) study of whether the English test affected their Spanish EFL teachers’ English instruction revealed that the test had a great impact on how they taught English, showing a negative washback on the exam. Speaking skills were ignored in the classroom as it was not included in the test; as a result, there was less oral interaction in the classroom. All of the participants reported that they taught all of the skills covered in the exam, whereas four out of seventeen participants insisted that they did not teach any other skills that

would not be tested. This suggests that the participants were narrowing the curriculum to focus on the content of the exam. Interestingly, the majority of the participants accepted that they had been affected by students' results of the exam. Clearly, these studies show that when the format and content of the test excludes speaking assessment, teachers focus far less on speaking skills.

The next section discusses teachers' beliefs including definitions relating to teachers' beliefs, the distinction between teachers' beliefs and knowledge, the importance of teachers' beliefs, and the influence of teachers' beliefs on practices. Moreover, sources of teachers' beliefs, and factors affecting the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices together with research on teachers' beliefs and practices in teaching speaking will also be discussed. This section will provide a better understanding of teachers' beliefs, how beliefs influence teachers' practices, the origin of teachers' beliefs and the factors that impact the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices. Together with the literature related to speaking skills and speaking instruction, including important issues in the Thai context that were discussed above, it will be beneficial for investigating Thai EFL teachers' beliefs and practices, the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices and the sources forming their beliefs in relation to speaking instruction in the Thai EFL context.

## **2.6 Teachers' Beliefs**

### **2.6.1 Defining teachers' beliefs**

In studies of teacher beliefs, researchers have used different definitions of 'beliefs' (Borg, 2001; Eisenhart, Shrum, Harding & Cuthbert, 1988), which points to the complexity of this area of research (Abdi & Asadi, 2015). Pajares (1992) stated that what makes it difficult is a lack of a clear definition of beliefs and belief structures. Therefore, it is pivotal to arrive at a workable definition.

According to Pajares (1992), "defining beliefs is at best a game of player's choice" (p.309) and he proposed several terms similar to beliefs including "attitudes, values, judgements, axioms, opinions, ideology, perceptions, conceptions, conceptual systems, preconceptions, dispositions, implicit theories, explicit theories..." (p. 309). The terms suggested by Pajares (1992) imply that there are different terms of beliefs in which researchers can adopt a definition of beliefs that best fits their study. Therefore, it seems that a clear definition of beliefs is primarily required in this study. Before introducing that definition, the following section reviews some similar definitions of beliefs provided by various scholars.

Harvey (1986) defined beliefs as “a set of conceptual representations which signify to its holder a reality or given state of affairs of sufficient validity, truth or trustworthiness to warrant reliance upon it as a guide to personal thought and action” (p.146). Richardson (1996) indicated beliefs as “psychologically-held understandings, premises or propositions about the world that are felt to be true” (p.4) while Pajares (1992) defined beliefs as “an individual’s judgment of the truth or falsity of a proposition, a judgment that can only be inferred from a collective understanding of what human beings say, intend and do” (p. 316). Beliefs also work best to help predict one’s actions (Nespor, 1985; Pajares, 1992). Borg (2001) stated that “a belief is a proposition which may be consciously or unconsciously held, is evaluative in that it is accepted as true by the individual, and is therefore imbued with emotive commitment, further, it serves as a guide to thought and behavior” (p. 186).

All the above definitions agree that beliefs are what individuals hold surrounding some thing(s), the world or reality that they consider to be true (Borg, 2001; Harvey, 1986; Richardson, 1996), which also relate to the individual’s feelings (Nespor, 1985; Pajares, 1992) and influences their thoughts and actions (Borg, 2001; Harvey, 1986; Nespor, 1985; Pajares, 1992). Therefore, Borg’s (2001) definition was chosen to define beliefs in this study and covers the definitions provided by other scholars.

Definitions stated previously refer to a general definition of beliefs. According to Borg (2001), teachers’ beliefs “refer to teacher’ pedagogic beliefs, or those beliefs of relevance to an individual’s teaching” (p. 187). Pajares (1992) pointed out that beliefs about teaching, their roles and duties, their learners and content are held by every teacher. In this study, I focused on teachers’ beliefs relevant to teaching speaking skills in many aspects that may or may not transfer into their actual practices in the classroom because I also investigated the relationship between their beliefs and practices. Importantly, according to Pajares (1992), “beliefs cannot be directly observed or measured but must be inferred from what people say, intend, and do” (p.314). Therefore, teachers’ oral expressions, their thoughts and their behaviours needed to be considered.

### **2.6.2 Distinction between beliefs and knowledge**

This section sets out the distinction between beliefs and knowledge as this concept will be important for discussing teachers’ beliefs regarding speaking skills in this study. Teachers may hold beliefs that may be inaccurate in that they do not reflect existing knowledge in the field; nevertheless, these beliefs may be held and transferred into teachers’ practices. Moreover, a lack of important knowledge in speaking instruction may interfere with the transfer of teachers’

beliefs to their practices regarding teaching speaking skills. Therefore, the distinction between beliefs and knowledge should be discussed next.

Distinguishing beliefs from knowledge is still questioned in research on pedagogy and teacher education (Richardson, 1996). In educational research, it appears that there is no clear general agreement; however, some scholars have attempted to distinguish between these two terms. Pajares (1992) held that the difference is that “belief is based on evaluation and judgement; knowledge is based on objective fact” (p.313). Similarly, according to Buehl and Beck (2015), “knowledge is externally verifiable...whereas beliefs are subjective claims the individual accepted as being true” (p. 67). This implies that while beliefs refer to an individual’s evaluation towards something, knowledge refers to more demonstrable facts. Kagan (1992) pointed out that the professional knowledge of most teachers can be considered beliefs when knowledge is insisted upon as true from “the basis of objective proof or consensus of opinion” (p. 73). On the other hand, knowledge can be changed and improved owing to the development of evidence and argumentation (Nespor, 1985). Pajares (1992) argued that one can still believe in knowledge that is already proved to be wrong. Richardson (1996) proposed that knowledge needs evidence to support it, whereas beliefs do not need approval from others. Nespor (1985) argued that beliefs can be an instrumental tool to define goals and tasks and influence individual judgement regarding whether or not to acquire new knowledge; on the other hand, knowledge systems vary on what problem needs to be solved. Therefore, individuals are far more affected by beliefs than knowledge when managing tasks and solving problems. An individual’s beliefs can be a better predictor of action than their knowledge (Nespor, 1985; Pajares, 1992).

Nespor (1985) identified four characteristics (based on Abelson, 1979) that distinguish beliefs from knowledge: existential presumption, alternativity, affective and evaluative loading and episodic structure. First, the existential presumption is the belief that is not arguable as it is a truth shared among all humans (Pajares, 1992). Second, the alternativity can be explained as “conceptualization of ideal situations significantly different from present realities” (Nespor, 1985, p. 13), for example, the teacher sets an ideal of her classroom without having knowledge or experience and in that way, it is difficult for it to happen in the real world; therefore, the classroom practice may not run smoothly. Next, affective and evaluative loading refers to how an individual’s knowledge can be separated from feeling as individuals’ feelings do not involve gaining knowledge. This implies that beliefs are more relevant to affective and evaluated aspects than knowledge. Finally, episodic structure refers to episodes of individual’s own past

experience that influence beliefs, whereas knowledge is organised semantically (Nespor, 1985; Pajares, 1992).

However, while several scholars attempt to distinguish the two terms, some scholars do not accept that a distinction can be made. Grossman et al. (1989) stated that “while we are trying to separate teachers’ knowledge and beliefs about subject matter for the purposes of clarity, we recognise that the distinction is blurry as best” (p.31). This is echoed by Pajares (1992) who stated that “it was difficult to pinpoint where knowledge ended and belief began” (p. 309). Several scholars seem to emphasise the overlap between beliefs and knowledge. As Larenas et al. (2015) noted, “beliefs are anchored knowledge” (p.172), which means that beliefs present knowledge that works best in action. Apart from this, the relationship between beliefs and knowledge is reflected by Mansour (2009), who pointed out that while beliefs influence how individuals receive new knowledge, knowledge also affects beliefs. Van Driel, Beijaard, and Verloop (2001) suggested that knowledge and beliefs are intertwined in teachers’ minds.

Despite the lack of consensus about the distinction between beliefs and knowledge for the purposes of this study, beliefs and knowledge are taken to be distinct from each other in accordance with the ideas discussed above (e.g., Buehl & Beck, 2015; Kagan, 1992; Nespor, 1985; Pajares, 1992; Richardson, 1996). Teachers’ beliefs significantly guide how they define teaching tasks and are involved in managing knowledge that is important for their tasks. Therefore, in this study, the position is taken that beliefs are distinct from knowledge as knowledge can be proved to be true whereas beliefs are held subjectively as being true by individuals.

The following section presents the importance of teachers’ beliefs and provides a better understanding of how studies on teachers’ beliefs can be beneficial for improving teachers’ professional growth and students’ English proficiency.

### **2.6.3 The importance of teachers’ beliefs**

It is widely held that teachers’ beliefs have a significant impact on the comprehension of their thought process and teaching practices (Abdi & Asadi, 2015; Farrell & Yang, 2017; Richards & Lockhart 1997; Richards, Gallo & Renandya, 2001; Zheng, 2009). Since, the 1970s, research emphasis on teachers’ thought processes have led to an increasing number of studies in the area of teachers’ beliefs, which has greatly developed professional and educational growth (H. Zheng, 2009). As reviewed, from 1976 to 2002, 64 studies on teachers’ cognitions were published (Borg, 2003), and since then a number of other studies have been added (e.g., Li,



2013; Li & Walsh, 2011; Phipps & Borg, 2009) maintaining the interest in teachers' beliefs and practices.

There are a number of reasons that explain recent interest in research on teachers' beliefs. Understanding teacher's beliefs can provide insights into various aspects of their teaching and also help develop English language learning and teaching knowledge (Borg, 2001; Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2017; Xu, 2012). At the same time, investigating sources of teacher beliefs, how teachers put their beliefs into practices and factors hindering their implementation can provide insight into teachers' professional growth and how it can be promoted (Yoshihara, 2012).

Teachers' beliefs are important in guiding instructional decisions and practices (Abdi & Asadi, 2015; Othman & Kiely, 2016; Richards & Lockhart, 1997; Xu, 2012) as the beliefs help them understand the teaching process which influences how they deal with the challenges they experience in day- to- day teaching. Additionally, teachers' beliefs impact their welfare, which inevitably influences learners' learning, their language ability, their motivation and the classroom atmosphere (Xu, 2012). This implies that beliefs are greatly important in the process of developing a teacher's professional growth (Richards et al., 2001).

#### **2.6.4 The influence of teachers' beliefs on practices**

Richards and Lockhart (1997) stated that "...what teachers do is a reflection of what they know and believe..." (p.29). Teachers hold beliefs that guide their behaviours (Borg, 2001; Farrell & Ives, 2015; Harvey, 1986) and significantly impact their teaching in many ways including their teaching methods, teaching attitudes and developing learners' achievement (Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2017; Shinde & Karekatti, 2012).

Beliefs work as lenses for teachers to understand new experiences, which influences how they organise classrooms, select the content to teach, manage their relationship with learners (Abdi & Asadi, 2015), deal with difficulties, motivate learners to learn and improve learners' language ability. It also guides how teachers plan, what they do and what method they decide to use (Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2017). Teachers' beliefs affect their decision making and practices, which consequently, contributes to teaching culture (Richards & Lockhart, 1997). Teachers hold different beliefs and these are reflected in their different styles of teaching (Abdullah & Majid, 2013).

On the other hand, Buehl and Beck (2015) argued that "congruence between beliefs and practices may not be a desirable state if teachers are implementing practices based on

maladaptive beliefs” (p. 73). Although the term ‘maladaptive beliefs’ is not defined explicitly, it implies that they are beliefs that do not take into account the latest best practice ideas and approaches for teaching with respect to the literature. This issue is interesting to explore as it has been rarely discussed in previous studies. Teacher’s lack of knowledge on teaching knowledge and subject matter might also be one of the factors forming maladaptive beliefs. Kuzborska’s (2011) study of eight Lithuanian EAP teachers’ beliefs and practices regarding reading instruction revealed that there was congruence between teachers’ beliefs and their practices in teaching reading using a skills-based approach, focusing on vocabulary, reading aloud, and using whole class instruction and translation. However, her study suggested that the participants should use a metacognitive-strategy approach, which is considered the most appropriate approach for teaching reading and supported by the literature. Farrell and Ives (2015) urged teachers to reflect upon their beliefs to maintain those that lead to good practices and change those that lead to negative practices. Teachers should reflect upon their beliefs to adapt to new perspectives based on academic studies (Kuzborska, 2011). To improve classroom practices and teacher education, an understanding of teachers’ beliefs is necessary (Mellati et al., 2013).

In the next section, sources forming teachers’ beliefs will be discussed in detail. This can provide insight into what kinds of sources influence the shaping of teachers’ beliefs. Additionally, it is beneficial for this study as these sources of beliefs can be related to sources forming teachers’ beliefs regarding speaking instruction, which will be the main focus of this study.

## 2.6.5 Sources of teachers' beliefs

The Borg's framework (1997 as cited in Borg 2003) illustrates the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices and the sources forming teachers' beliefs.

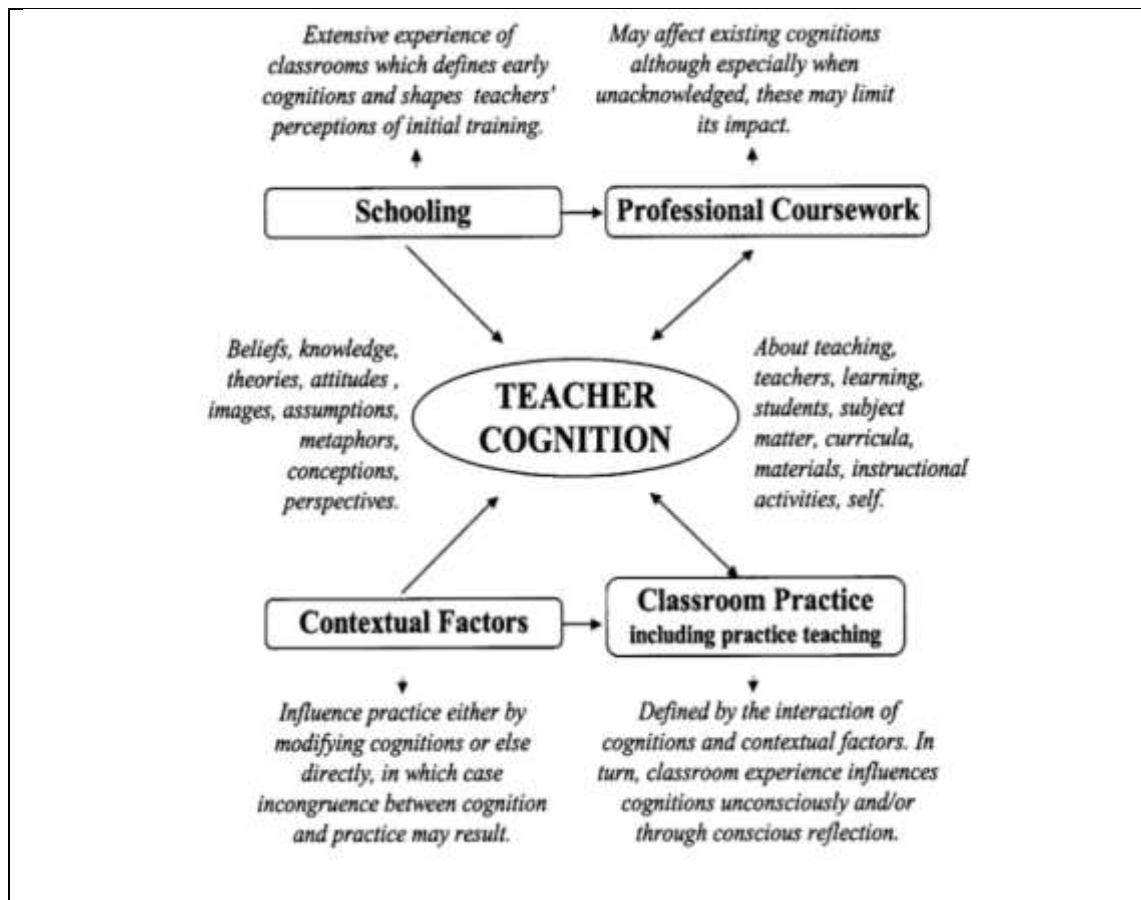


Figure 2.6. Teacher cognition, schooling, professional education, and classroom practice (Borg, 1997 as cited in Borg 2003, p. 82)

Borg (2003) suggested that experience as a learner is greatly influential in the formation of teachers' beliefs throughout their careers. Although professional coursework also contributes to teachers' beliefs, those programmes that overlook existing beliefs prior to the coursework are not highly effective. It is very likely that beliefs that were shaped during a school period affect the formation of beliefs more than attending professional coursework training. Additionally, teacher experience is also influential in shaping teachers' beliefs unconsciously and consciously.

It is widely held that beliefs have an important influence on practice (Johnson, 1992; Wang, 2006); therefore, discussing the sources of beliefs is important. The following section reviews studies relating to the sources of teachers' beliefs and evaluates their findings. These include experience as learners (Lortie, 1975; Debreli, 2016), teacher education programmes (Debreli, 2016; Li, 2019), teaching experiences (Abdullah & Majid, 2013; Sato & Kleinsasser,

1999), and continuing professional development (Richards & Lockhart , 1997; Scott & Rodgers, 1995).

#### ***2.6.5.1 Experience as learners***

Nisbett and Ross (1980) noted that beliefs that are shaped through an early experience are resistant to change. Richards and Lockhart (1997) stated that how teachers teach also reflects the way they were taught when they were students. This is what Lortie (1975) called “the Apprenticeship of Observation” (p. 61), which refers to the number of hours teachers spend as students observing their teachers. It is considered the most powerful source of teachers’ beliefs.

In the Thai context, several studies revealed that teaching experience was an important source forming teachers’ beliefs. Tayjasanant and Barnard’s (2010) study of Thai EFL high school teachers’ belief regarding the use of CLT found that all of the participants were taught through traditional approaches and methods, for example, the grammar transition method and the audiolingual method, which were transferred into their own practices. Hayes’s (2010) case study of one Thai EFL teacher’s lived experience in her actual context found that the participant’s role models were her primary and secondary school teachers as they were very active and enthusiastic, which made her feel positive towards learning English.

Other studies in EFL contexts revealed similar findings. Debreli’s (2016) study of Turkish pre-service EFL teachers’ sources of beliefs reported that the participants followed their characteristics of their favourite teachers and teaching approaches and argued against those they had disliked. They were satisfied with teachers who were caring and had a sensitive manner when dealing with students, whereas they disliked teachers who made embarrassed them or looked down on them. Similarly, Öztürk and Gürbüz’ s (2017) mixed-methods study of Turkish EFL participants’ sources of beliefs reported that they reflected traces of their teachers. For example, one of the participants reported that he used the same activity his teacher had used in his own classroom.

Similar results were reported in the studies conducted in ESL contexts. Yoshihara’s (2012) study of three cases of ESL teachers’ beliefs and practices in Hawaii found that what the participants did in their classrooms could be traced back to how their teachers taught them. This is in line with the findings of Abdullah and Majid’s (2013) study of Malaysian ESL university teachers’ sources of beliefs. They found that learning experience was one of the dominant sources forming beliefs of lecturers. The participants reported that their previous teachers were influential in providing them with a good basis for their English ability and their positive attitude towards learning English. In the same vein, Farrell and Ives’s (2015) study of one ESL

teacher's belief regarding reading instruction found that during reflective practice in interviews, the participant realised that he used some aspects of his teacher's activities in his own classroom and that how he ran the activities was similar to his teacher's practices. Although earlier studies focused on beliefs in different areas, what seems to be similar among these studies is that experience as a learner was the primary origin of teachers' beliefs.

Another interesting point is that some studies (e.g., Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2017) illustrated that teachers' self-learning experience could also form their beliefs. Their participants applied their own language learning techniques to their classroom. Baleghizadeh and Nasrollahi Shahri (2014) studied three Iranian EFL teachers' conceptions regarding speaking competence and found that their participants' experiences in learning English by themselves outside the classroom were also the source in the formation of teachers' beliefs with respect to speaking instruction. Their results revealed that three EFL participants employed their own learning strategies in their classrooms. For example, one of the participants reported that most of his speaking competence was improved by acquiring the language through authentic materials such as movies and music lyrics. In his classroom, he also asked students to watch movies and listen to music to gain phrases and sentences and discussed those movies and music in his classroom. His asking students to talk to each other outside the class could be traced back to his own learning experience. Apart from experience as a learner in the classroom mentioned above, self-learning experiences were found to be influential in the formation of teachers' beliefs.

### ***2. 6.5.2 Teacher education programme***

Borg (2003, 2006) proposed that a teacher education programme can shape teachers' beliefs. In the current study, a teacher education programme refers to a programme regarding language teaching that provided the participants a degree relating to language teaching or education. Some previous studies (e.g., Alghanmi & Shukri, 2016; Debreli, 2016) revealed that teacher education programmes could form teacher's beliefs and some studies (e.g., Borg, 2011; Mellati, et al, 2015) revealed that pre-existing beliefs were firmed up after attending the programme. Against this, however, other studies (e.g., Pennington & Richards, 1997) revealed that teachers faced difficulties during the early years of their teaching after attending such programmes.

Alghanmi and Shukri's (2016) survey-based study of Saudi Arabian EFL participants' beliefs in grammar teaching found that 90% of these participants reported that teacher educational programmes were influential on their beliefs. This is in accordance with Debreli's (2016) interview-based study of 16 Turkish pre-service university teachers' sources of beliefs in learning and teaching. She found that their beliefs in learning and teaching were formed the

most during their earlier years of attending ELT programmes. The participants formed their beliefs from the information they were given from their modules. For example, they believed that communicative language teaching was effective and that using explicit grammar teaching could limit a student's learning. These beliefs were directly based upon instruction from their course lectures.

From a different perspective, Freeman and Johnson (1998) stated that "teachers are not empty vessels waiting to be filled with theoretical and pedagogical skills, they are individuals who enter teacher education programmes with prior experiences, personal values, and beliefs that inform their knowledge about teaching and shape what they do in their classroom" (p. 401). This implies that teachers may already hold their existing beliefs before attending teacher education programmes (Abdullah & Majid, 2013). This notion is in line with the findings of Mellati et al.'s (2015) study of 150 Iranian teachers' sources of pedagogical beliefs. They found that the teacher education programmes impacted these teachers' beliefs only when the programme introduced the approaches, methodology and techniques that were relevant to their pre-existing beliefs. In the same vein, Borg's (2011) mixed-methods study of how a teacher education programme shaped six in-service teachers' beliefs in the UK found that their participants' pre-existing beliefs were also heightened after attending the programme; on the other hand, their pre-existing beliefs were not changed. Likewise, Li's (2019) study conducted with two pre-service teachers studying in an MA programme in TESOL in the UK indicated that pre-service teachers' beliefs regarding teaching and the relationship between teachers and students, for example, teaching approaches, designing activities, student teacher involvement developed and changed. However, their beliefs regarding language and language learning that were formed during their experiences as learners were resistant to change.

On the other hand, several studies revealed that challenges that teachers experienced in their actual classrooms after completing their educational programmes. Pennington and Richards's (1997) study of how teacher educational programmes influenced inexperienced secondary school English teachers in Hong Kong who just graduated from a TESL programme revealed that their participants found that it was difficult to adjust what they learned in the teacher education programme with their real-life classrooms. When facing challenges, they seemed to use teaching styles that were different from those that their teachers suggested, such as using L1, relying on grammar instruction and having a teacher-led classroom. Similarly, Öztürk & Gürbüz's (2017) study of three Turkish EFL teachers' sources of beliefs found that

one of their participants had difficulties in the actual classroom because their teacher education programme did not provide them with many opportunities to practice teaching.

These studies highlight the importance of this source on forming teachers' beliefs particularly when related to their pre-existing beliefs. However, in some studies (e.g., Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2017; Pennington & Richards, 1997), participants reported that they were not well prepared to face the real-life classroom context after attending their teacher education programme.

### ***2.6.5.3 Teaching experiences***

Richards and Lockhart (1997) and Borg (2003) asserted that teachers' experiences form their beliefs throughout their teaching careers. They directly experienced techniques that were effective (Richards & Lockhart, 1997). Abdullah and Majid (2013) stated that novice teachers gain more experience in teaching through several years of their instruction. It is a period of experimentation to find their individual teaching style. Their experience as novice teachers formed beliefs that replaced the ideal language teaching that they were taught in an educational programme to cope with the reality that occurs in the actual classroom. Their attempt to adjust approaches to fit the real situation shaped their new beliefs, which impacted on how they selected teaching materials and activities for students as well as how they dealt with situations in the classroom.

Several previous studies (e.g., Farrell & Yang, 2017; Kuzborska, 2011; Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999) revealed that teaching experience was influential in the formation of teachers' beliefs. Öztürk and Gürbüz's (2017) mixed-methods study of the sources of three Turkish EFL teachers' cognition illustrated that their teaching experience was the main source forming their beliefs through a trial-and-error process. Their participants reported similarly that during their teaching experience, they had developed their own teaching beliefs as they spent time evaluating which teaching principles were the most effective. They adapted what they had learned into their own styles of teaching to be more practical. This revealed similar results as other studies conducted in the ESL context. Yoshihara's (2012) mixed-methods study of three ESL teachers' beliefs and practices in Hawaii revealed that one participant's experience in trying different methods while teaching became the source forming her belief in using a multi-method approach as she found that it suited the content in her classroom. As mentioned above, there is clear evidence that teacher experience plays an important role in shaping teachers' beliefs.

#### ***2.6.5.4 Continuing professional development***

Continuing professional development in this study refers to any professional development course for training teachers regarding language teaching after becoming in-service teachers. Richards and Lockhart (1997) pointed out that teachers' beliefs are derived from the knowledge that they gain from training courses. Previous studies (e.g., Alghanmi & Shukri, 2016; Scott & Rodgers, 1995) reported that continuing professional development, for example, training courses, were regarded as the source of teachers' beliefs; on the other hand, some studies (e.g., Rashidi & Moghandam, 2015; Wyatt & Ončevska Ager, 2016) suggested that the provided training courses did not meet teachers' expectations.

Scott and Rodgers's (1995) study illustrated how a writing training course changed secondary high school teachers' conceptions about teaching writing. Their participants reported a positive perception towards teaching writing after being trained in a nine-week workshop. The participants also changed their method for grading learner's written work. This is in line with Alghanmi and Shukri's (2016) mixed-methods study of Saudi Arabian EFL teachers' beliefs and practices in grammar instruction; the participants reported that training courses were an important source forming their beliefs.

On the other hand, Rashidi and Mogandam's (2015) mixed-methods study of Iranian university teachers' beliefs and practices found that participants believed that their training courses provided "kind of fit-to-all prescriptions" (p. 268) that might not be practical for their classrooms. Wyatt and Ončevska Ager's (2016) survey-based study of Macedonian teachers' cognition in relation to continuing professional development found that bombarding the participants with continuing professional development using a top-down approach could decrease teachers' motivation. To clarify, in their study, in the top-down approach, the participants were not involved in what content would be provided or updated for promoting their professional growth, for example, workshop and training courses. On the other hand, in the bottom-up approach, the participants could initiate or take part actively in what aspects they desired to develop, for example, carrying out action research. They also found that in continuing professional development, carried with the top-down approach might not meet teachers' needs and satisfaction. They suggested that teachers should be engaged with the continuing professional development through the bottom-up approach.

Apart from sources forming teachers' beliefs, another aspect that is important for studying teacher's beliefs and practices is factors that are influential in the relationship between



teachers' beliefs and their practices. The next section presents the factors discussed in the literature in detail.

### **2.6.6 Factors affecting the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices**

Buehl and Beck's (2015) framework (See Figure 2.7) proposed both internal and external factors that either facilitate or impede the congruence between teachers' beliefs and practices. Internal factors, what are "within the teacher" (p.73), include other beliefs , for example, core and peripheral beliefs (Phipps & Borg, 2009), self-efficacy beliefs, sense of responsibility beliefs , contradictory beliefs , knowledge, and self-awareness and self-reflection. External factors, "residing in the environment" (Bulehl & Beck, 2015, p. 73), include contextual factors from classroom to national and state contexts. In the present study, contextual factors at the classroom level were the primary focus; however, other level factors also were taken into consideration. This is relevant to Borg's framework (1997 as cited in Borg, 2003) (see Figure 2.6) that contextual factors or external factors can cause a mismatch between teachers' beliefs and practices.

The following sections will explain and discuss the nature of internal factors including other beliefs covering core and peripheral beliefs, self- efficacy beliefs, sense of responsibility beliefs, contradictory beliefs, conscious and unconscious beliefs, self-awareness and self-reflection, and teacher knowledge, and contextual factors from students, educational systems and teaching materials affecting the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices.

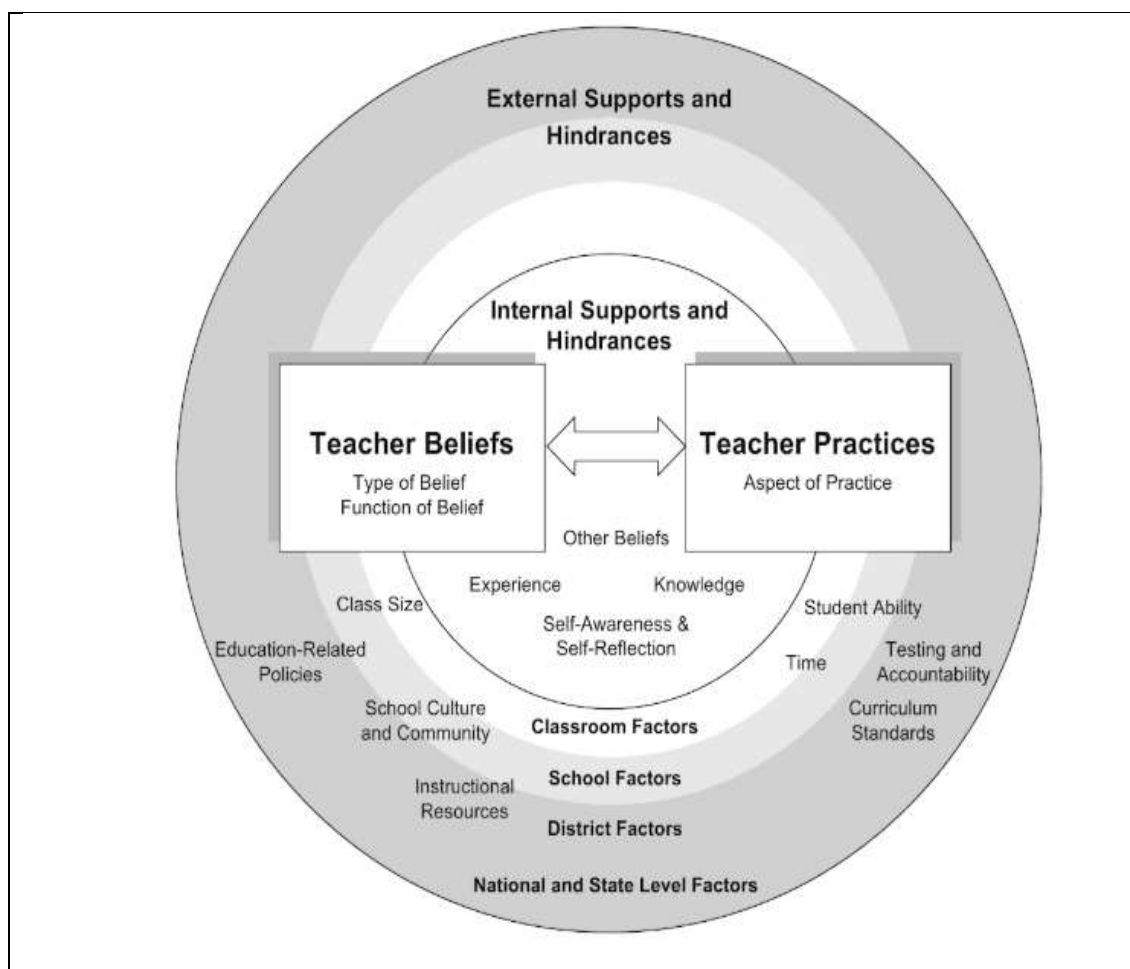


Figure 2.7. Relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices in a system of internal and external support and hindrances (Buehl and Beck, 2015)

### 2.6.6.1 Internal factors

#### Other beliefs

Buehl and Beck (2015) stated that "...beliefs exist in a multidimensional system in which some beliefs are more central than other" (p. 75), which supports the idea proposed by Rokeach (1970) that individuals do not hold all beliefs equally, but they vary upon "a central-peripheral dimension" (p. 3). The system of beliefs is shaped like an atom. The closer beliefs are to a nucleus, the more difficult they are to change. The beliefs that are more central have a greater connection with others in the system.

Li (2013) pointed out that "...there is no strict one-to-one correspondence but that the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices is complex" (p. 176). The mismatches between teacher's beliefs and practices "are a reflection of their beliefs sub-system, and of the different forces which influence their thinking and behaviour" (p.38). Phipps and Borg (2009)

remarked that the mismatch between teachers' beliefs and practices is a result of the complexity of beliefs as exemplified in the statement: "I believed in X but I also believe in Y", with practice being influenced to a greater extent by whichever of these beliefs is more strongly held" (p. 388).

Kumaravadivelu (2012) and Phipps and Borg (2009) stated that beliefs are distinguished into two categories: core beliefs and peripheral beliefs. A core belief has greater influence on shaping the teaching approach. It is less likely to feature in any incongruence between teachers' beliefs and practices. The tension between a teacher's beliefs and practices is more likely to be the consequence of peripheral beliefs. In other words, if the disparity occurs between a core belief and a peripheral belief, the peripheral belief might not be presented in the teachers' practice (Phipps & Borg, 2009).

Gabillon (2012) stated that a teacher's core beliefs are "resistant to change" (p.194). Breen, Hird, Milton, Oliver, and Thwaite (2001) said that all core beliefs will be implemented in teaching practices, whereas peripheral beliefs are likely to be flexible depending on the contexts. Likewise, Phipps and Borg (2009) said that "core beliefs are more powerful influence on behavior than peripheral beliefs" (p. 381), and they also suggested that "a characteristic of core beliefs is that they are experientially ingrained, while peripheral beliefs, though theoretically embraced, will not be held with the same level of conviction" (p.388). The beliefs that an individual does not directly experience are less central (Rokeach, 1970), which implies that beliefs that are directly felt to be effective through a teacher's experience equate to core beliefs whereas beliefs that teachers form through theory alone are likely to be peripheral beliefs.

Several studies have found teachers' beliefs were indeed transferred into their practices; those beliefs were possibly core beliefs. Kuzborska's (2011) mixed-methods study of eight Lithuanian EAP university teachers' beliefs and practices in teaching reading skills for advanced learners found that several participants' beliefs were consistent with their practices relating to a skills-based approach. Likewise, Farrell and Ives's (2015) mixed-methods case study of the relationship between the stated beliefs and practices in L2 reading instruction demonstrated that most teachers' beliefs, such as using various reading skills and strategies, using pair and group work and developing other skills apart from reading skills, were consistent with their practices.

Furthermore, Mellati et al.'s (2013) mixed-methods study of the relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' beliefs about language teaching and practices found as a significantly positive relationship between their beliefs and their practices. In the same vein, Alghanmi and

Shukri's (2016) mixed-methods study of 30 female Saudi Arabian EFL teachers' beliefs and practices in teaching grammar found that 76 % of their beliefs, such as providing plenty of time to teach grammar, focusing on accuracy over fluency and correcting students' errors immediately to avoid forming bad habits were transferred into their practices. However, some beliefs, such as using the implicit grammar approach within a communicative context were not observed.

On the other hand, several studies (e.g., Farrell & Lim, 2016) revealed divergence between teachers' beliefs and practices and found that these were related to core and peripheral beliefs. Phipps and Borg's (2009) mixed-methods study of the inconsistency between three Turkish EFL teacher's beliefs and practices in grammar instruction found that while practices were not consistent with teachers' language learning beliefs, those practices were instead congruent with another set of teacher beliefs about learning. For example, while teachers held their beliefs about a context- based presentation for teaching grammar, these beliefs were overridden by other beliefs about engaging learners to focus on the lesson causing the teacher to teach grammar through a rule- based presentation. The study provided an important finding relating to the way teacher's beliefs in learning constituted their core beliefs, which were more powerful than their beliefs in language learning, or their peripheral beliefs. A similar finding was also supported by Melketo's (2012) study of 10 EFL teachers' beliefs and practices in teaching writing, which found that the inconsistency between teachers' beliefs and practices was due to their core and peripheral belief systems. One of the participant's belief about motivating students and engaging them to learn overrode his belief in providing chances for student-centred writing. What is clear from these studies is that beliefs about language learning were more often peripheral than beliefs about learning in general.

Within teacher cognition research, a number of other types of beliefs have been identified as impacting on the relationship between beliefs and practices. Among these self-efficacy beliefs (Chen & Goh, 2011; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007; Xu, 2012), sense of responsibility beliefs (Li, 2013; S.H.-y Mak, 2011), contradictory beliefs (Buehl & Beck, 2015; Green, 1971), and conscious and unconscious beliefs (Borg, 2001; Rokeach, 1970) feature heavily in the literature and these beliefs are discussed below.

Dellinger, Bobbett, Olivier, and Ellett (2008) defined self-efficacy beliefs as "teachers' individual beliefs about their own abilities to successfully perform specific teaching and learning related tasks within the context of their own classroom" (p.751). To what extent teachers' self-efficacy beliefs could be transferred into their practices relates to the level of confidence they

have towards their knowledge and skills (Buehl & Beck, 2015). Buehl and Beck (2015) proposed that “teacher’s self- efficacy beliefs have been routinely identified as predictors of practices” (p. 68). Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2007) maintained that teachers’ self-efficacy can be increased if they have an expectation that their teaching will be successful whereas their self-efficacy beliefs can be decreased when they predict that their teaching will not be satisfactory. Teachers with a high self-efficacy have been found to work hard to improve their students’ learning. In attempting to help students develop, teachers with high self-efficacy tend to continually learn new teaching pedagogies. On the other hand, teachers with low self-efficacy feel uncomfortable in terms of managing their classrooms and do not seem to build students’ self-efficacy by, for example, giving compliments. They sometimes limit their teaching skills and try to control the class in an aggressive manner (Xu, 2012).

Previous studies conducted in EFL contexts have illustrated that participants’ self-efficacy beliefs influenced their teaching. Choi and Lee’s (2018) mixed-methods study of Korean EFL secondary teachers’ self-efficacy revealed that the participants who had a high level of self-efficacy particularly in classroom management, often used communicative-focused practices, whereas those with a low level of self-efficacy did not feel comfortable implementing communicative practices in their classrooms. This is supported by Chen and Goh’s (2011) mixed-methods study of 331 Chinese EFL university teachers’ challenges in teaching speaking which demonstrated that their participants’ low level of self-efficacy beliefs in their oral English proficiency was clearly linked to challenges they faced in delivering speaking instruction.

Lauermann and Karabenick (2011) referred to teachers’ sense of responsibility as “a sense of internal obligation and commitment to produce or prevent designed outcomes or that these outcomes should have been produced or prevented” (p. 127). Meanwhile, Buehl and Beck (2015) proposed that teachers’ sense of responsibility beliefs facilitated the relationship between teachers’ beliefs and practices. In other words, when teachers believed that they were responsible for student outcomes, their beliefs seemed to be consistent with their practices. Some previous studies have revealed that teachers’ sense of responsibility belief was observed in their practices; for example, Li’s (2013) qualitative study of one experienced Chinese EFL high school teacher’s beliefs and practices revealed that the participant’s sense of responsibility in providing useful knowledge to students was transferred into his practices as his short-term goal was to help his students pass the college pronunciation exam. S. H.-y Mak’s (2011) study of one pre-service EFL teacher in Hong Kong found that the participant’s sense of responsibility beliefs overrode her other beliefs. For example, the participant felt responsible for transmitting knowledge and this

overrode her belief in promoting more student talk. These studies demonstrate how teachers' sense of responsibility can transfer into their practices more often than other beliefs.

Another type of belief has been identified as 'contradictory belief'. Green (1971) stated that "men have an incredible capacity to hold strongly to beliefs that are inconsistent. Still, there need to be no difficulty in believing two incompatible things, provided the beliefs are never set side by side and their inconsistency revealed" (p. 47). Buehl and Beck (2015) asserted that "teachers may hold beliefs that are contradictory" (p.75), and Green (1971) proposed that individuals can hold beliefs that contradict each other without realising that they are contradictory. Contradictory beliefs are transferred differently into practices depending on the context (Buehl & Beck, 2015). Earlier studies in EFL contexts (e.g., Li, 2013) illustrated participants' contradictory beliefs. Buss's (2016) study of Brazilian EFL teachers' beliefs and practices in relation to teaching pronunciation found that their participants held contradictory beliefs regarding teaching pronunciation. Although these teachers believed that intelligibility should be a goal for teaching pronunciation, they also focused on some sounds (e.g., /θ/ and /ð/) that did not interfere with intelligibility based on the LFC. However, it is possible that their contradictory beliefs were a result of gaps in knowledge regarding the LFC.

Additionally, Rokeach (1970) and Borg (2001) (see Section 2.6.1) stated that individuals could hold beliefs consciously or unconsciously, and these have become known as conscious and unconscious beliefs. Several studies (e.g., Farrell & Lim, 2005; Farrell & Ives, 2014; Farrell & Yang, 2017) have revealed similar results in that some practices that were observed in the classroom were not reported as their participants' stated beliefs during interviews. Their participants did not realise some of their beliefs until they had opportunities to reflect upon them, and these were, in fact, unconscious beliefs. This was supported similarly by Farrell and Yang's (2017) study of one EAP teacher's belief regarding speaking instruction in Canada; their participant's practices, for example, correcting students' pronunciation errors and correcting their spelling, were not reported as their stated beliefs. This suggests that the participants did not recognise their unconscious beliefs. Woods (1996) stated that "teachers (often in a subordinate power relationship with supervisors, evaluators, theorists, and researchers) may prefer to claim allegiance to beliefs consistent with what they perceive as the current teaching paradigm rather than consistent with their unmonitored beliefs and their behavior in class" (p. 71). This emphasises the importance of reflecting on teachers' beliefs, which will be discussed below.

### **Self-awareness and self-reflection**

Self-awareness and self-reflection facilitate the congruence between teachers' beliefs and practices (Buehl & Beck, 2015). Phipps and Borg (2009) encouraged teacher education programmes to encourage teachers to reflect on their beliefs and practices and the relationship between them to bring them to a higher level of consciousness. This notion has been supported by a number of scholars (e.g., Farrell & Lim, 2005; Farrell & Bennis, 2013).

Significantly, some studies (e.g., Farrell & Yang, 2017) found that participants who were not aware of their beliefs were those who had never had the opportunity to reflect on their beliefs. Additionally, several studies (e.g., Farrell & Ives, 2014; Farrell & Yang, 2017) have revealed that teacher participants seemed to be aware of their beliefs after reflecting on them. This is in line with Melkoto's (2012) mixed-methods study of the tension between teachers' beliefs and practices in teaching writing. He found that raising awareness of the inconsistency between a teacher's beliefs in using peer evaluation and feedback and their practices through discussion could help him monitor his beliefs, which finally was transferred into his practices. This finding is supported by S. H.-y Mak's (2011) mixed-methods study of tension between EFL teachers' beliefs and practices in Hong Kong, which found that through reflection teachers' beliefs frequently, one of the participants reshaped her belief in reducing the proportion of teacher talk in the classroom by allowing students to talk more.

### **Teacher knowledge**

Buehl and Beck (2015) stated that tensions between teachers' beliefs and practices could be caused by teachers' lack of important knowledge, that is, subject knowledge and teaching knowledge. Earlier studies in EFL contexts have revealed that the teachers' limited knowledge interfered with the relationship between their beliefs and practices in ways that will be described below.

In Rashidi and Moghadam's (2015) study of incongruence between Iranian EFL teachers' beliefs and practices, the participants reported that their lack of teaching skills and lack of expertise in organising communicative classrooms prevented them from implementing CLT approaches. Similarly, Jafari et al.'s (2015) mixed-methods study of Iranian EFL high school teachers' beliefs in the implementation of CLT revealed that their difficulties in implementing their perception in using CLT approach into their practice were due to their lack of knowledge of strategic, sociolinguistic features of English and their deficiency in spoken English. In addition, Li's (2013) case study of the relationship between one Chinese secondary

school teacher's beliefs and practices showed that the teachers' belief in communicative skills was not always consistent with her practice because she lacked cultural knowledge on the topic that students spontaneously raised in her classroom. This is also consistent with findings in Choi's (2000) survey-based study of 97 Korean EFL teachers' beliefs and practices using CLT. This study found that teachers' deficiencies in spoken language and limited knowledge of NES cultures caused some tensions between their beliefs in the use of CLT and their practices.

However, Chen and Goh's (2014) mixed-methods study of 527 Chinese university teachers' knowledge in teaching speaking revealed that pedagogical content knowledge could be influenced by positive learning experiences, their self-perceived speaking ability and their familiarity with pedagogical methodology. However, other factors such as training programmes, teaching experience and overseas experience were found not to influence their knowledge. This was possibly because the training courses did not focus on speaking skills and the duration for the training courses was short. Their study findings imply a need to revisit the curriculum in training courses in order to emphasise speaking skills and teaching knowledge relating to speaking skills in such programmes.

#### **2.6.6.2 Contextual factors**

Several scholars (e.g., Borg, 2003; Li & Walsh, 2011; Phipps & Borg, 2009) have suggested that contextual factors can hinder the implementation of teachers' beliefs into practices. The following section focuses on the main contextual factors noted in the literature including factors related to learners, educational systems and teaching materials.

##### **Factors related to learners**

Borg (2009) proposed that teacher's points of view relating to tensions between teacher beliefs and practices can be caused by student factors in different ways. His forms include "I believe in X but my students expect me to do Y" (p. 387) "I believed in X but my students learn better through Y" (p. 387) and "I believe in X but my learners are motivated by Y" (p.387). His frameworks are similar to previous studies that revealed that tensions between teachers' beliefs and practices can be caused by student-related factors.

Öztürk and Gürbüz's (2017) study of three Turkish EFL teachers' beliefs and practices found that students' low levels of English proficiency caused inconsistency between teachers' beliefs and practices. One of the participants had to adjust her activities into an easier version to match students' levels of English and used L1 to explain grammar; both these actions were inconsistent with her beliefs. In the same vein, Jafari et al.'s (2015) mixed-methods study of Iranian EFL teachers' perceptions and challenges regarding the use of CLT found that, although



these participants held positive perceptions towards the use of CLT, their students' low levels of English proficiency and their low motivation in developing their speaking skills prevented implementation of CLT. These findings were confirmed by Rashidi and Modgandam's (2015) study of incongruence between Iranian EFL teachers' beliefs and practices based on a sociocultural perspective. They found that students' lack of social and background knowledge and motivation caused some tension between their teachers' beliefs and practices. These studies in similar EFL contexts shared the similarity that facing unexpected situations caused by students can prevent teachers from transferring their beliefs into practices.

### **Factors related to educational systems**

A number of studies conducted in EFL and ESL contexts revealed similar results that challenges from educational systems, for example, the format of an exam, time constraints and course syllabus interfered with the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices in ways that will be discussed below.

Jafari et al.'s (2015) study illustrated that one of the important factors interfering with the implementation of CLT for Iranian EFL high school teachers was the challenge from an educational system that included large class sizes and a grammar-based exam. With a large number of students, teachers wasted a great deal of time organising group work. The standardised test that focused on grammar and vocabulary forced the participants to ignore the development of students' oral competence (see Section 2.5.9). In the same vein, Choi's (2000) survey-based study of Korean EFL teachers' beliefs in the implementation of CLT demonstrated that the national English exam and large class size caused some mismatches between teacher's beliefs and practices in the implementation of CLT. Furthermore, Öztürk and Gürbüz's (2016) study showed that the exam influenced how teachers taught as they slightly adjusted their plans due to the exam.

Additionally, Rashidi and Moghadam's (2015) study of the tension between teachers' beliefs and practices showed that their participants complained that the regulations created by administrators hindered the transferring of their beliefs into practices. Farrell and Yang's (2017) study of one EAP ESL teacher's beliefs in teaching speaking illustrated that the syllabus of the programme caused tension between beliefs and practices. Additionally, various studies (e.g., Farrell & Bennis, 2013; Melketo, 2012; Rashidi & Moghadam, 2015) have revealed similar results where participants reported that time constraints caused some tension between their beliefs and practices.

### **Factors related to teaching materials**

Previous studies have revealed that factors relating to teaching materials were influential in terms of the tension between teachers' beliefs and practices. At the same time, other studies indicated that this factor could help teachers transfer their beliefs into practices.

In Choi's (2000) study of Korean EFL teachers' beliefs and practices, divergence between their beliefs and practices was attributed to teaching materials including a shortage of authentic materials and facilities supporting the use of audio and visual teaching materials and unrealistic demands on the amount of textbook content to cover. This is in line with Rashidi and Moghadam's (2015) study, which illustrated that a paucity of teaching materials supported by the school such as visual and audio teaching materials hindered the transfer of teachers' beliefs into practice. In the same study, the textbook that was used was published by European publishers and contained NES cultural content, which excluded local cultural content, leading to some mismatches between beliefs and practices.

On the other hand, some studies conducted in the ESL context revealed that teaching materials led to congruence between teachers' beliefs and practices. Farrell and Ives's (2015) case study of one ESL teacher in a language school at a university in Canada revealed that convergence between his beliefs and practices was a result of the format of the textbook, which encouraged him to conduct the activities he wanted to employ. This is consistent with findings in Farrell and Yang's (2017) case study of one EAP teacher regarding teaching speaking. This study found that their participant reported that following the steps in a textbook could facilitate consistency between beliefs and practices. Clearly, teaching materials are an important external factor that is influential on the link between teachers' beliefs and practices.

### **2.6.7 Research on teacher's beliefs and practices in teaching speaking**

Research on teacher's beliefs have primarily focused on teaching grammar; however, not many studies on teachers' beliefs relating to teaching speaking skills have been conducted (Borg, 2003). This emphasises the need for additional studies relating to this field. This section presents some previous studies on teachers' beliefs and practices regarding speaking instruction and addresses the gap in the literature to be filled by the current study.

Dincer and Yesiyurt's (2013) interview-based study of seven Turkish pre-service English teachers' beliefs about teaching speaking focused on the teachers' motivations and their views on speaking skills and found that their participants perceived that speaking was the most important skill, but at the same time, they believed that they lacked speaking proficiency

themselves. The participants, with either intrinsic or extrinsic motivation in speaking English, had a negative view toward their teachers' speaking instruction. The problems resulted from using traditional teaching methods, insufficient teaching activities, a paper-based test, primary school and high school curricula that lacked focus on teaching speaking, and the students' lack of opportunities to practice speaking English. However, their study focused only on the aspect of motivation of pre-service teachers and did not study the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices regarding speaking instruction in the classroom.

Next, Baleghizadeh and Nasrollahi Shahri's (2014) interview-based study of two experienced Iranian EFL teachers and one novice Iranian EFL teacher's cognitions in terms of how they learned to speak, and their beliefs that how their students should learn to speak and their practices demonstrated that this belief could be traced back to their personal ways of practicing speaking when they were young. The experienced teachers emphasised practice through private speech, for example, practicing talking to themselves, whereas the novice teacher encouraged learners to practice speaking with others. Interestingly, they found that the experienced teachers applied theories into their teaching whereas the novice teacher did not. Similar to Dincer and Yesiyurt's (2013) study, this study did not employ classroom observation to explore their teachers' actual practices.

In addition to the above, Tleuov's (2016) doctoral thesis conducted a mixed-methods multiple case study focusing on beliefs regarding four Kazakhstani secondary school teacher's practices in teaching speaking, and the relationship between their stated beliefs and their practices. There were both consistencies and inconsistencies between teachers' beliefs and practices in certain aspects, such as, the use of L1, error correction and pair work and group work, due to teachers' perception of context, for example, students' abilities, expectations of authorities and parents' expectations, together with core and peripheral beliefs. Although, his study focused principally on the relationship between secondary school teachers' beliefs and practices through interviews and classroom observation, he did not investigate how their beliefs and practices relating to key elements of speaking skills such as pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary; in this way, it was similar to Farrell and Yang's (2017) study which investigated one EAP university teachers' beliefs and practices regarding teaching speaking in Canada. They focused on three main areas: the teachers' role, teaching L2 speaking and the students' role. They found that for most of the time, their beliefs were congruent with their practices. Their beliefs regarding teaching L2 speaking, for example, using humour and calling students by their names and judiciously using of L1 were observed in their classrooms. However, their beliefs

regarding students' roles in which students should take the initiative for their own learning was not observed. Instead, the participant was seen asking students most of the questions throughout the lessons. It is worth pointing out that their study explored the relationship between the stated beliefs and practices and the tensions between beliefs and practices with only one EAP teacher in the ESL context in a NES country. As Yin (2014) pointed out, a single-case study is less effective than a multiple- case study in terms of, for example, findings, and is likely to be questioned with regard to how the participant was selected.

Significantly, two more studies revealed that teachers' beliefs and practices focused on key elements of speaking skills. Yue'e and Yunzhang (2011) investigated the relationship between teachers' cognitions and practices of two Chinese college English teachers who taught oral English to first-year students. The study covered three main themes related to teaching oral English: the nature, the content and oral teaching strategies. The findings revealed both congruence and incongruence between the cognitions and practices. Clearly, both participants' beliefs that grammar was not important for speaking and student- centred approach was important for teaching speaking were observed in the classroom. However, some tensions between their beliefs and practices were mainly caused by contextual factors including time constraints and the teachers' insufficient theoretical knowledge. However, their focus was restricted to a few aspects of speaking skills, such as grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation, and, in fact, they did not explore them in great depth.

Meanwhile, in Gandeel's (2016) doctoral thesis, she conducted a mixed-methods multiple case study of five female Saudi Arabian university teacher' beliefs and practices in teaching speaking that illustrated that the participants' speaking instruction was mainly based on the textbook, a teacher-centred approach and accuracy. Grammar and vocabulary were the focus, and their beliefs and practices were not greatly based on pedagogical theory. There were both convergences and divergences between their teachers' beliefs and practices. However, the limitation of these studies is that they did not use an instrument, for instance, a stimulated-recall interview, which might help the participants to recall what they had done in their classroom to gain more data about the relationship between their beliefs and practices. Although some of previous studies focused on general of aspects in speaking instruction, other important issues, for example, spoken grammar, LFC for teaching pronunciation, affective factors and issues relating to speaking instruction in the context of their study, for example, and intercultural awareness, were not investigated.

According to Borg (2003), the focus of teachers' beliefs and practices had mostly been on grammar and general aspects rather than specific skills. Although there have been some studies on skills more recently, it seems that compared to other aspects, the studies of teachers' beliefs and practices in the area of speaking are very limited. Several scholars (e.g., Borg, 2003; Li, 2013; Li & Walsh, 2011; Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2016) pointed out that from the literature on teacher's beliefs and practices, most of them have been conducted in ESL contexts, whereas few studies have paid attention to non-native English EFL teachers. It is also clear that, studies on teachers' beliefs and practices in teaching speaking skills in Thailand have been very scarce.

To address the gap, this thesis reports on a study of Thai EFL university teachers' beliefs and practices in relation to teaching speaking skills in the Thai context. The main focus covers not only teachers' beliefs and practices regarding various key aspects of teaching speaking skills but also other issues relevant to the Thai EFL context, for example, ASEAN varieties of English and intercultural knowledge. Additionally, in this study, the relationship between Thai EFL teachers' beliefs and practices and the sources forming their beliefs are also examined.

This chapter presents speaking competence, speech production and the cognitive process including the model for speech production to provide key aspects of speaking skills. Additionally, it provides key elements of teaching speaking and the model for teaching speaking presenting stages for EFL teachers to apply for their speaking courses before discussing the important issues relating to teachers' beliefs. As previous studies on teachers' beliefs and practices regarding teaching speaking, particularly in the Thai EFL context, are very scarce, reviewing the literature mentioned above in two main sections: the key elements regarding speaking skills and speaking instruction, and the key aspects of teachers' beliefs provide important information of what areas should be investigated during data collection to gain in-depth data in terms of their beliefs and practices in teaching speaking skills in the Thai EFL context in order to answer the research questions of this study.

## **2.7 Summary**

This chapter discussed the theoretical framework underpinning this study. The literature on speaking including speaking competence, speech production and cognitive communicative competence and speaking, and key components of speaking and important issues in relation to speaking instruction have been highlighted. This chapter also presented a review of the literature on teachers' beliefs which includes the definition of teachers' beliefs, a clear distinction

between belief and knowledge, the importance of teachers' beliefs, the influence of teachers beliefs on practice together with factors that have an impact on the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their practices. Importantly, this chapter reviewed earlier studies on teachers' beliefs and practices regarding speaking instruction and addressed the gap to be filled by this study.

## Chapter 3 Methodology

This chapter presents the research questions and the rationale for choosing the research paradigm, and, design. The teacher participant profiles and teaching materials are described in detail along with data collection, data analysis and the process of the pilot study. A detailed description of the key ethical issues and the issue of trustworthiness in a qualitative approach are explicated in order to maintain the quality of the research.

### 3.1 Research Questions

The purposes of the study were to investigate Thai EFL university teachers' beliefs and practices in relation to teaching speaking skills, to explore the sources of teachers' beliefs in teaching speaking, and to examine the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices regarding speaking instruction. This study sought to answer the following research questions.

1. What are Thai EFL university teachers' beliefs in relation to teaching speaking skills?
2. What are Thai EFL university teachers' practices in relation to teaching speaking skills?
3. What are the sources forming Thai EFL university teachers' beliefs in relation to teaching speaking skills?
4. What is the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices in relation to teaching speaking skills?

### 3.3 The Research Design

As stated above, the research paradigm of this study has been discussed. Therefore, the rationale for the research design of this study relevant to the research paradigm is elaborated in detail.

This study proposes a qualitative research design and a multiple case study design following an iterative approach design which are explained below.

### 3.2 Research Paradigm

The term paradigm was originally used by Thomas Kuhn, a science philosopher, to explain how the world is seen through specific lenses (Coe, 2012). Several scholars later refined the definition of paradigm. Waring (2012), for example, defined a paradigm as "a person's conception of the world, its nature and their position in it, as well as a multitude of potential relationships with that world and its constituent parts" (p. 17). At the same time, Coe (2012) defined the paradigm as "a world-view or perspective-being shared by groups of researchers who adopt the whole paradigm as the one true way and defend it in opposition to any other set of views" (p. 5). Guba (1990), on the other hand, defined the paradigm as "a basic set of beliefs that guides action" (p. 17). Denzin and Lincoln (2000) proposed that "these beliefs shape how the qualitative researcher sees the world and act in it" (p. 19). This implies that a paradigm is how the researcher views the world,

which in turn, affects the way he/she conducts their research. A research paradigm consists of three main aspects that guide the researcher: ontology, epistemology and methodology (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), ontology refers to “the nature of reality” (p. 37), and epistemology refers to “the relationship of knower to known” (p.37). Guba (1990) defined methodology as “how... the inquirer [should] go about finding out knowledge?” (p.18). Researchers need to take their fundamental assumptions into consideration in order to know how to choose their methodology (Waring, 2012).

Lincoln and Guba (1985) contrasted two views; a positivist paradigm and a naturalist paradigm that can also be labelled an interpretive paradigm (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000) or constructivism (Grbich, 2007; Guba, 1990). The positivist paradigm consists of internal validity, external validity, reliability and objectivity to maintain the validity and reliability of the study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Internal validity refers to the extent of the results of the study that was caused by the independent variable. This ensures the casual relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable. External validity refers to generalisation of the results of the study to other contexts , that is, the extent to which the results of the study can occur in other contexts (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Reliability refers to “consistency or repeatability of measurement” (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017, p. 33). This means the extent to which the results that are produced by the same instruments are consistent over time. Last, objectivity refers to minimising bias, including personal ideas and subjectivity, that can occur in the study as much as possible (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017).

Moreover, a positivist paradigm highly depends on objectivity that does not take individuals’ subjective experience or their values into consideration (Burns, 2000; Park, Konge, & Artino, 2020). The assumption of this paradigm is that “facts are true and the same for all people all the time.” (Burns, 2000, p.10). Also, the researcher also should not be involved with the participants while collecting data (Park, Konge, & Artino, 2020). Proponents of the positivist paradigm believe that a single reality exists and that a researcher and the object to be studied are separate (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) and predetermined; hypotheses are set to be tested in an environment that can be controlled (Guba, 1990). This may not be applied for qualitative research as for qualitative researchers; taking part in the setting and the context that are studied provide a better understanding of the phenomenon (Krauss, 2005).

Proponents of the interpretive paradigm argued that “realities are multiple, constructed, and holistic” (p.37) and the results of studies using this paradigm cannot be predicted due to the diversity of realities (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Guba (1990) argued that “relativism is the key to



openness and the continuing search for ever more informed and sophisticated constructions. Realities are multiple, and they exist in people's minds" (p. 26). Individuals are essential in defining multiple realities (Waring, 2012), and "research should aim to understand individual cases and situations and to focus on the meaning that different actors bring to them" (Coe, 2012, p. 7). This current study, therefore, was based on the interpretive paradigm to examine teachers' beliefs and practices by gaining information from the participants themselves to contribute more knowledge in the particular context within each case and across cases. For ontology, I took relativism as the starting position (Guba, 1990).

For epistemology, I took a subjectivist position. Realities are involved with individual's minds, and as a consequence, the way to investigate specific realities is through "subjective interaction" (Guba, 1990, p.26). This implies that the interaction between the researcher and the object of investigation cannot be separated (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). According to Grbich (2007), the interaction between an inquirer and objects constructs knowledge. This is supported by Coe (2012), who stated that "all knowledge is subjective and socially constructed" (p.7). This study collected data through interaction between the participants and me in order to gain a better understanding of the data.

Finally, Waring (2012) pointed out that methodology is derived from ontological and epistemological positions and dictates the procedure to be followed. Guba (1990) asserted that it attempts to gain the rich insights of information by expanding how to communicate with the known for the information. For this paradigm, the realities cannot be predicted and controlled. Based on my ontology and epistemology positions, I adopted a qualitative research design with a multiple case focus to investigate six Thai EFL university teachers' beliefs and practices regarding teaching speaking skills.

### **3.3.1 Qualitative research**

The proponents of qualitative research hold that it can make sense of the target phenomena in a way that quantitative research cannot (Silverman, 2005). As stated by Denzin and Lincoln (2000), qualitative research can provide more insight into participants' views by using methods that explore more detail than quantitative research, which seems to separate a researcher from the study's participants. While quantitative researchers set hypotheses to be proven by using several random samples and statistical analysis, qualitative researchers study a small number of cases and interpret the data they have collected (Silverman, 2011). The proponents of quantitative research argued that reliability is questioned in qualitative research (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). Liamputtong and Ezzy (2007) argued that qualitative research is more flexible than the

quantitative approach. These qualities are neither good nor bad, they are simply dependent on the type of investigation the researchers are conducting (Silverman, 2005).

Creswell (1998) proposed that there are various reasons for using a qualitative approach; an important one is that it helps to explore what happens in a realistic setting. According to Denzin and Lincoln (2000), “Qualitative researchers stress the socially constructed nature of reality, the intimate relationship between the researcher and what is studied, and the situational constraints that shape inquiry” (p.8). It is noteworthy that a small number of cases are conducted in qualitative designs in order to gain detailed data (Dornyei, 2016; Flick, 2011; Miles & Huberman, 2007; Silverman, 2005) with a purposive sampling method (Miles & Huberman, 2007). Qualitative research allows more opportunities to gain an in-depth view of the participants’ perspectives (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Dornyei, 2016; Flick, 2011; Liamputtong & Ezzy, 2007; Mason, 2002). To gain as much data as possible from the participants, the design needs to be open (Dornyei, 2016; Flick, 2011) to allow access to the real context and interpretation of the world that is observed through several methods, including interviews, case study and observation (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000).

Through this approach, as a researcher, I was also considered the primary ‘instrument’ for collecting data by performing each step starting from collecting data to analysing data to presenting the outcome. The benefit of using qualitative research was receiving a great amount of data because the participants were free to respond in a way that they thought related to them within their specific context. In this study, I used several instruments including interviews and observations, which allowed me to locate myself in the authentic setting, where I could have intimate interactions with a small number of participants to gain in-depth information; this helped me understand the participants and interpret the data effectively. However, the drawbacks of this kind of research include the fact that it is time consuming and may not be generalisable enough. It is argued that qualitative research does not focus highly on generalisations (Dornyei, 2016; Flick, 2011). Another concern is that it is important to increase an awareness of role of the researcher since there is a risk of becoming too involved, which can result in data bias (Dornyei, 2016).

In addition, Grbich (2007) proposed four types of qualitative inquiry. One of them is an iterative approach which refers to “...going out into the field, collecting data, and subjecting these data to a critically reflective process of preliminary data analysis to determine ‘what is going on’ in order to build up a picture of the data emerging and to guide you in the next set of data collection” (p.21). This is supported by Dornyei (2016) who suggested that unlike quantitative

analysis, which is a linear process, qualitative researchers “move back and forth between data collection, data analysis and data interpretation depending on the emergent result” (p. 243). The process of collecting data in this study was similar to this cycle, in that I first interviewed the teachers to determine their beliefs; I then observed their actual practices and used the video-stimulated recall interviews to gain insights into the relationship between their beliefs and practices. Finally, I conducted a final interview to gain more detail regarding some aspects that required further explanation.

The qualitative research design and an iterative approach to investigate six Thai EFL university teachers’ beliefs and practices in speaking instruction allowed me to investigate individual cases in detail to understand the relationship between beliefs and actual practices in Thai EFL contexts. Data regarding how they interpreted their own situations and my interpretation through close interaction and various research instruments, including pre-observation interviews, video-stimulated recall interviews, classroom observations, a final interview and field notes provided a thorough exam of the topic.

### **3.3.2 The case study**

Stake (2000) stated that “a case study is both a process of inquiry about the case and the product of that inquiry” (p. 436). The case study allows researchers to focus on both the outcome and the relationship of what causes the outcome in holistic way (Denscombe, 1999). This is supported by Yin (2014), who further stated that it helps the researcher to investigate a case while maintaining a holistic view. Therefore, the case study can be defined as a method that allows the researcher to study a case or cases in detail as it provides an overview of events because the researcher can observe the relationship in an authentic situation. Yin (2014) stated that it is typical in the area of education and many other fields to utilise the case study as a method in order to make sense of “complex social phenomena” (p.4) by closely observing an individual case or cases.

Stake (2000) classified the case study method into three types: intrinsic, instrumental and collective. The intrinsic case study is conducted to understand a particular case as the case itself is interesting but not to understand “some abstract construct or generic phenomenon” (p.237). The instrumental case study aims to “generalize *from* a case study” (Cousin,2005, p. 422). A case is investigated in detail in order to understand other similar cases (Cousin, 2005). The one that suited this study was the collective case study, which combines individual cases to examine a phenomenon deeply so as to gain insight. In this study, I conducted six cases of Thai

EFL university teachers through investigating individual cases and examining the data across cases.

Stake (2000) proposed that

individual cases in the collection may or may not be known in advance to manifest some common characteristic. They maybe similar or dissimilar, redundancy and variety each important. They are chosen because it is believed that understanding them will lead to better understanding, perhaps better theorizing, about a still larger collection of cases (p. 437).

Several scholars proposed the characteristics of the case study. The case study matches well with the investigation of situations where behaviours cannot be controlled (Creswell, 1998; Denscombe, 1999; Yin, 2014). Dornyei (2016) stated that the case study method helps gain richer data and a greater understanding of the object of the study than other methods. Another important aspect stated by Creswell (1998) is that the case study is particularly well suited for situations involving time and setting. This is supported by Miles and Huberman (2007) and Denscombe (1999) who asserted that all cases involve a particular actual setting. The characteristics of the case study involved studying a small number of cases to explore each case deeply (Creswell, 1998; Denscombe, 1999).

To increase the validity of the findings of the case study, methodological triangulation (Denzin, 1978 as cited in Janesick, 2000), which is the combination of many methods to collect data, was the technique chosen for this case study. The methods were various and included observations and interviews (Denscombe, 1999; Yin, 2014). The use of a multiple case study design has been recently increasing because using more than an individual case study can provide more opportunities to conduct a more thorough study (Yin, 2014). Miles and Huberman (2007) stated that cross case analysis provides a deeper understanding and a clearer explanation for the study. Dornyei (2016) recommended that researchers use more than one case in order to lessen the problem of “idiosyncratic unpredictability and audience criticality” (p. 155). As stated by Miles and Huberman (2007), the findings among cases that share a similarity in one setting are considered to be strong findings. Therefore, the current study used a multiple case design to examine six Thai EFL teacher’s beliefs and practices in relation to teaching speaking skills to have a better understanding of the issues and to contribute useful knowledge.

However, I was also aware of the disadvantages of case study methodology, especially the issue of generalisation (Denscombe, 1999; Stake, 2000). Miles and Huberman (2007) argued that for a multiple case design, “we are generalizing from one case to the next on the basis of match to the underlying theory, not to a larger universe. The choice of cases usually is made on conceptual grounds, not on representative grounds” (p.29). Denscombe (1999) explained that the

researcher can provide enough detail for others to be aware of whether the study can be generalised to their context. Apart from this, the case study emphasises the interpretation of data rather than using statistical data, making it less rigorous. Therefore, to maintain validity, this study used multiple methods including two pre-observation interviews, three non-participant classroom observations, three video-stimulated recall interviews, a final interview and field notes.

### **3.4 The Participants**

The six participants of this study were selected with a purposive sampling method (Liamputtong & Ezzy, 2007; Miles & Huberman, 2007), which places an emphasis on choosing “information-rich cases” (Patton, 2002, p. 46) that provides “in-depth understanding and insights into the findings instead of empirical generalisations” (Liamputtong, 2009, p. 12). The participants were chosen because they could offer the rich data necessary for the purposes of the study (Patton, 2002). This method is supported by previous studies (e.g., Tleuov, 2016) on teacher s’ beliefs. In this study, the six participants selected were EFL university teachers who were responsible for teaching speaking courses and were willing to participate in the study.

To recruit participants, I first sought permission from deans of two universities. In one university, only two teachers responded, so I focused on the second university. Initially, it was difficult because the number of teachers teaching these courses was few. However, fortunately for me, with high demand of students, new courses were opened. More teachers were available, and the full number of the participants was achieved from one university. The following section presents an overview of each participant including their profiles, their educational backgrounds, work experience and their professional training development (see Appendix J). There were six participants in this study. To assure their confidentiality and anonymity, the participants’ names (Pensiri, Wasin, Sakari, Teerawut, Janista and Araya) were pseudonyms.

#### **3.4.1 Pensiri**

Pensiri was an experienced teacher at the Department of Foreign Languages. As can be seen in Table 3.1, she graduated with a bachelor’s degree in French and English from a university in Thailand. After graduating, she continued her study and earned a masters’ degree in educational linguistics. She reported a specific focus on teaching speaking for 20 of her 32 years of experience in the classroom. Among the six participants, she had the most experience in teaching speaking. Additionally, she had spent short stays in Singapore, Australia and the UK taking short courses on testing, English for Tourism and EAP, respectively. She also attended teacher training courses in Thailand, for example, active learning. Her course entitled, English Conversation, was observed. There were 43 students in her class; 40 were female.

### **3.4.2 Wasin**

Wasin was an English teacher in the Department of Foreign Languages. As shown in Table 3.1, he graduated with a bachelor's degree in an English-related field. Before he earned a master's degree in teaching English as an international language, he was an English tutor. He had four years of teaching experience at the time of this study. Although, he had never been trained in any courses focusing on speaking instruction, he had taken one-day course on using technology for teaching and active learning. He was responsible for the course focusing on listening and Speaking skills. His class was with reasonably large with 37 first-year students from an English-related programme; 30 students were male.

### **3.4.3 Sakarin**

Sakarin was a newly recruited teacher in his department, but he had previously been an English lecturer at another university. Table 3.1 shows that he graduated with a bachelor's degree in English and that he completed a master's degree in teaching English as an international language in Thailand. Out of his seven years teaching experience, he reported specifically teaching speaking skills for approximately five years. He also spent a month in New Zealand studying teaching pedagogy and teaching techniques. His course entitled 'English Conversation' was observed. There were 37 students in his class, and they were mainly accounting majors and mostly female.

### **3.4.4 Teerawut**

Teerawut was an experienced teacher. As shown in Table 3.1, he graduated with a bachelor's degree in English, and he completed a master's degree in linguistics in Thailand and another master's degree in TESOL in Australia. He had 35 years of teaching experience, and specifically reported teaching speaking skills for approximately 24 years. He reported that he had never participated in any special training regarding speaking skills instruction, although, he had attended training once in New Zealand, but he could not remember exactly what he was taught. He was observed in his course entitled 'English Conversation', which had 25 registered students from different majors; 16 were male. However, his actual class attendance in every lesson was observed to be fewer than 10 students. Teerawut remarked that possibly the reason was that he did not provide any scores for classroom attendance.

### **3.4.5 Janista**

Janista was an experienced teacher, who had graduated with a bachelor's degree in English in Thailand. As seen in table 3.1, after graduating, she continued her studies and earned a master's degree in TEFL from a university in Australia. She recently graduated with a doctoral degree in TESOL during the time of this study from a university in the UK. Out of her 23 years teaching experience, surprisingly she reported that she was responsible for teaching a speaking course for only approximately one year. She had never taken part in any training focusing on teaching speaking except for a training course focused on using games for teaching many years ago. She was observed in her course entitled 'English Conversation'. In her class, there were 35 students,

and only five of them were female. Most of the students were majoring in mechanical engineering, although a few of them were studying in an English-related programme.

### 3.4.6 Araya

Araya was the least experienced in teaching at the tertiary level. As illustrated in the Table 3.1, she had been a tutor for eight years and had experience in teaching a speaking course for three years. She graduated with a bachelor's degree in language for development and became a tutor at a private language school before obtaining a master's degree in teaching English as an international language in Thailand. Importantly, she never attended any training courses. She was observed in her course entitled 'English Conversation'. There were 22 male students and 18 female students from different majors including fashion design and computer engineering.

\* The exact title of the course is not given in order to ensure anonymity.

Table 3.1

#### *Participant Profiles*

<b>Name</b>	<b>Educational Background</b>	<b>Teaching Education</b>	<b>Continuing Professional Development</b>	<b>Teaching English (Years)</b>	<b>Teaching Speaking English (Years)</b>
Pensiri	B.A.in French &English, Thailand M.Ed.in educational linguistics, Thailand	M.Ed.in educational linguistics, Thailand	Cert.in language testing, Singapore Cert. in English for tourism, Australia	32	20
Wasin	B.A.in an English related field. M.A. in Teaching English as an international language, Thailand	M.A. of Arts, Teaching English as an international language, Thailand	Using technology for teaching, Thailand Active learning, Thailand	4	4
Sakarin	B.A. in English, Thailand M.A. in Teaching English as an international language, Thailand	M.A. of Arts, Teaching English as an International language, Thailand	Teaching pedagogy and teaching techniques, New Zealand Using technology for teaching, Thailand	7	5
Teerawut	B.A. in English, Thailand M.A. in linguistics, Thailand M.A. in TESOL, Australia	M.A. in TESOL, Australia	Teacher training, New Zealand	35	24
Janista	B.A. in English, Thailand M.ED. (TEFL), Australia Ed.D (TESOL), UK.	M.ED.(TEFL), Australia Ed.D (TESOL), UK.	Using games for teaching, Thailand	23	1
Araya	B.A. in language for development, Thailand M.A. in teaching English as an international language, Thailand	M.A. in teaching English as an international language, Thailand	-	8	3

*Note.* Exact titles of degree programmes are not given in order to ensure anonymity.

### 3.5 Course Materials

This section presents an overview of the course materials used by these teachers, which provides an understanding of the structures of the textbook including its content, exercises and activities. More importantly, in this study, the course materials were one of the contextual factors that influenced the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices and involved different themes regarding teaching speaking skills. While five out of six teachers used the in-house textbook, Wasin used a commercial book 'English New Upgrade 3' which claimed to focus on practising communicating in English.

#### 3.5.1 In-house textbook

The in-house textbook was based on a functional syllabus and consisted of six units focusing on language functions. However, the first unit presented various types of questions including a yes-no question, a wh-question and an indirect question with extensive exercises encouraging students to form questions correctly. Such exercises can be termed 'controlled practice' (see Section 2.5.5.3). In other words, these exercises were rather traditional focusing on practising specific grammar items.

**Task 1**

**A. Make questions with auxiliary verbs. Write Yes/No questions for these sentences.**

1. She is French.	<i>Is she French?</i>
2. It's raining	_____
3. They're at school.	_____
4. They are learning English.	_____
5. He has finished his report.	_____
6. He was born in 1994.	_____
7. They were at home yesterday.	_____
8. They are going to Japan.	_____
9. She will buy a new car.	_____
10. She should wear a uniform.	_____
11. They have visited France.	_____
12. She might come late.	_____

Figure 3.1. Extract of the exercise from Unit 1 from the in-house textbook

Units 2 to 6 focused on language functions including greetings, introducing oneself and others, socialising in relation to requesting, offering, asking for permission, telephoning, making an invitation, giving directions and so forth. It is noteworthy that the textbook focused on



transactional functions based on a functional syllabus with less focus on interpersonal functions (see Section 2.4.5).

Richards (2006) divided exercise activities into mechanical practice or controlled practice (e.g., repetition drills), meaningful practice where students choose their own language, but they are still restrictive and guided in many ways as opposed to another type of practice, communicative practice (see Section 2.5.5.3). Exercises provided in the textbook were a kind of controlled practice including completing conversations by using phrases or sentences provided, matching questions in each function with answers, reordering a conversation and matching sentences with situations. It was noticeable that there was limited communicative practice provided in each unit. For example, the textbook provided a few information gap activities, but there were no other activities focused on communication, such as role plays, stimulations, discussions, and debates.

The activities were not designed to be ‘tasks’ in terms of task-based learning theory that replicates real world situations in which the primary focus is achieving the tasks (see Section 2.5.5.4). In the textbook, there were very few communicative practices. As noticed, two dialogue memorisation activities were included, which asked students to create a dialogue before practicing speaking with their partner. Such approaches might be seen as techniques used in the audiolingual method, meaning that these techniques do not really focus on real-life communication because the audiolingual method focuses so much more on memorising and automatising language production.

Figure 3.2 shows what appears to be a substitution table in the in house-textbook, similar to those used for drills, another technique in the audiolingual method. Figure 3.3 shows an exercise following up on the previous table. Such an exercise could be labelled ‘meaningful practice’ (Richards, 2006) as language control is still included. Students still have to make meaningful choices in order to complete the dialogue.

## SKILL PRESENTATION

A Request means the act of asking for something to be given or done, especially as a favor or courtesy.


Requests:


Making a request	Granting a request	Declining a request
<p><b>Asking for a thing</b></p> <p>Can I have a cup of tea, please?            Could I borrow you money?</p> <p>Can you give a coffee?            Could you pass me the salt?                      lend some money?</p> <p><b>More formal</b></p> <p>I wonder if I could have a coffee, please?            Would it be possible for me to borrow your book?</p>	<p>OK.            Sure.            All right.            (Yes,) Of course.            Certainly.            Here you are.</p>	<p>No, sorry.            I'm sorry.            Sorry, ...            No, I'm afraid not.            I'm afraid...  <b>(It's more polite to give reason)</b></p>
<p><b>Asking someone to do something</b></p> <p>Can you help me?            Could do me a favor?            May</p> <p>Can            Could you open the door, please?            Would</p> <p>Can I ask you a favor?            Could to take these letters to the post office?</p>		


Figure 3.2. Extract of the content about offering from the in-house textbook


**Practice**  
**A: Complete the following conversations.**

- A: May I borrow your pen, please?  
 B: \_\_\_\_\_


- A: Can I turn on the radio louder?  
 B: \_\_\_\_\_


- A: \_\_\_\_\_ use your notebook computer?  
 B: Sorry, I'll use it right now.  
 A: Oh! \_\_\_\_\_ then.


- A: Have you got any paper clips?  
 B: \_\_\_\_\_, I haven't got any.  
 A: Thanks anyway.



*Figure 3.3.* Extract of a dialogue frame completion from the in-house textbook

Interestingly, there were no supplementary materials (e.g., audios files and videos) provided with the textbook to practise pronunciation. Furthermore, the textbook did not present any key pronunciation features such as consonant and vowel sounds, intonation and stress. On the other hand, there was an attempt to provide some spoken language, for example, in Unit 3 (e.g., ‘sure’, ‘okay’, ‘of course’ and ‘all right’). To exemplify, the book provided phrases such as ‘that sounds good.’ in Unit 3, which corresponded to the medium of speaking rather than writing. However, such examples are not ‘spoken grammar’.

As was seen in Section 2.5.1.1, spoken grammar is formed very often not in a full sentence but in incomplete sentences and clauses, which are the key characteristics of spoken grammar. Therefore, one might expect the speaker to say ‘sounds good’. Furthermore, the textbook did not present any vocabulary or provide any vocabulary exercises. Importantly, it appears that the textbook paid attention only to NES norms because there were no particular regional expressions which could have been presented through transcripts and listening texts. This omission illustrates that it did not raise any awareness of world Englishes, including ASEAN varieties of English. Additionally, no content on ASEAN cultures was included in the textbook.

### 3.5.2 Commercial book

The commercial book ‘English New Upgrade 3’, that Wasin used in his course claimed that it provided “a lot of practice communicating in English – about interesting topics” (Gershon& Mares, 2008, p 4). While this book focused on language functions, it also focused on grammar items used in each language function. It consisted of 11 units and each unit consisted of a grammar section, a language function, a conversation tool, speaking and listening activities and vocabulary exercises.

Table 3.2

*Extract of the Table of Contents from English New Upgrade 3 (Gershon & Mares, 2008, p. 2-3)*

Page	Unit	Topic	Grammar	Function	Conversation tool	Check out	My vocabulary	Grammar reference
24	4. Time flies	Past activities, Personal facts, The 90s	Past continuous Present perfect continuous for, since, ago	Talking about past experiences talking about personal facts	Agreeing with someone	Lifestyle survey	29 (page)	107 (page)
30	5. Did you know ...?	Facts and trivia; World knowledge; language; Customs	Passive Supposed to; expected to; have to	Talking about facts and trivia Talking about obligations Expressing expectations	Extending examples	The World knowledge quiz	35 (page)	108 (page)

As shown in Figure 3.4 below in the grammar section of Unit 4 (‘Time Flies’), the textbook presents sentences with different tenses including present perfect tense and past continuous tense. This appears so that students can see examples of the sentence structures in different tenses, which could be used in the follow-up practice, that is, a fill in the blank dialogue for practising grammar that is also similar to meaningful practice (Richards , 2006) (see Section 2.5.5.3).

- Build up**
- 1 Look at these ways to talk about things you were doing at different times.
  - 2 With a partner, ask and answer the questions.

QUESTIONS		RESPONSES
How long have you been living here / there? working in L.A.?		For (about / nearly) a year. Since August 2001.
What were you doing this time last year? month?		I was living in Australia. traveling in Mexico.
What were you doing before that?		I was working at a resort. studying.
Where were you living? studying?		In / At / Near ...

**Express yourself** You and your partner are talking about your part-time jobs. Ask about what you were doing last year.

- 1 Think about what you want to say and make notes. Then have your conversation.



A: Hi, \_\_\_\_\_, how's your job going?  
 B: Pretty good. How about yours?  
 A: Fine, thanks. How long have you been doing your job?  
 B: Since / For \_\_\_\_\_.  
 A: Really? I didn't know it was that long.  
 B: Time has flown by. This time last year I was \_\_\_\_\_.  
 A: \_\_\_\_\_ . Sounds interesting. I was \_\_\_\_\_.  
 B: Really? Where \_\_\_\_\_?  
 A: Well, \_\_\_\_\_.  
 B: Interesting. Well, I've got to run.  
 A: OK. See you later.

- 2 Now try again with another partner. This time talk about different experiences.

Figure 3.4. Example of the grammar section from New English Upgrade 3

**Conversation tool**      **Agreeing with someone**  
**We can agree with someone using these expressions.**

That's for sure.      You can say that again.      No kidding.      I know what you mean.

**Notice how Tony agrees with Jessica.**

- 1 **Now listen to Tony agreeing with Jessica in a different way. Write the expression you hear on the line.**  
 Jessica: Time has really flown by.  
 Tony: Yeah, \_\_\_\_\_  
 Jessica: It's hard to believe.
- 2 **With a partner, practice the exchange using all the expressions.**
- 3 **Practice again and change the underlined expression to another situation.**  
 This movie is really interesting / boring.  
 This painting is really strange.  
 This is a fantastic party.

Figure 3.5. Example of the function part in the textbook 'English New Upgrade 3'

Additionally, Figure 3.5 shows an example of a function section from Unit 4 ('Time Flies') that integrates some listening and speaking skills. It presents a kind of controlled practice with respect to agreeing; that is, students are asked to practice with a partner using the provided expressions. It was clear that students were controlled their choices of language as they just simply selected the provided expressions to speak in the follow-up activity, which is rather similar to drilling in the audiolingual method. However, these expressions were colloquial and idiomatic, perhaps reflecting an attempt to provide students with spoken language practice. Like the in-house textbook, this textbook did not explicitly provide key features of pronunciation for students to practice.

Apart from this, Figure 3.6 presents an example of a speaking activity from Unit 8 ('Travel plans'), which was a questionnaire encouraging students to speak using provided questions. Although it is a kind of controlled practice, it allows students to ask one free question. Furthermore, the textbook provides speaking activities in the last section including information gap activities and interviews with provided questions reflecting a nod in a direction of CLT approach.

**Check it out** Find out about your classmates' travel styles, knowledge and experiences.

- 1 Read the questions and add one more question.
- 2 Ask a different person each question. Write the person's name, answer and any additional information you find out.
- 3 Share with the class three interesting things you found out.

## TRAVEL SURVEY

QUESTIONS	NAME	ANSWER
1 Do you prefer to travel on your own, with a friend or in a group?		
2 What do you like to do on vacation?		
3 Do you usually over-pack or under-pack?		
4 How do you usually find out about the best travel bargains?		
5 What are five useful English phrases for travel?		
6 Which places in your country do you think visitors should see?		
7 When and where was your last trip?		
8 When and where are you planning your next vacation?		
9 What's your most interesting travel experience?		
10 _____?		








Figure 3.6. Example of speaking activity from English New Upgrade 3

In addition, every unit provided vocabulary exercises. For example, as shown in Figure 3.7, students had to match the vocabulary with its meaning before answering questions containing the focused vocabulary. Furthermore, each unit focused on presenting idioms in relation to the topic with the exercise. The activity provided opportunities for students to recycle these idioms through the provided questions. Importantly, it revealed that the textbook raised an awareness of intercultural competence to some extent, for example, information gap activities in unit 5 'Did you know...?' asking about Mexican and Indian cultures. However, this textbook did not provide an awareness of any ASEAN cultures.




## MY VOCABULOG

### 1 UPGRADE MY VOCABULARY

There are many different types of personality. I can match the personality types with the correct meaning.

- |                  |                                      |
|------------------|--------------------------------------|
| 1 extrovert      | a cares a lot about others' feelings |
| 2 introvert      | b gets angry easily                  |
| 3 moody          | c outgoing, talkative and sociable   |
| 4 quick-tempered | d shy, quiet and thoughtful          |
| 5 sensitive      | e changes a lot from happy to sad    |

 **MY TURN** Now I'm going to answer these questions. Then I can ask other people.

Are you an extrovert or an introvert? \_\_\_\_\_

Are you moody? \_\_\_\_\_

Do you know anyone who is quick-tempered? Who? \_\_\_\_\_

Who is your most sensitive friend? Give an example. \_\_\_\_\_

### 2 PUTTING WORDS TOGETHER

Sometimes we can make decisions easily and sometimes not. I can put the words in the right sentences below to show how people make their decision.

do know have ask talk

1 I'd \_\_\_\_\_ to think about it.                      4 I'd \_\_\_\_\_ something immediately.

2 I'd \_\_\_\_\_ to someone about it.                      5 I'd \_\_\_\_\_ exactly what to do.

3 I'd \_\_\_\_\_ one of my friends for advice.

 **MY TURN** Now I'm going to answer these questions. Then I can ask other people.

Do you like to think about difficult situations before you do anything? \_\_\_\_\_

Who do you like to talk to about difficult situations? \_\_\_\_\_


Which friend do you most often ask for advice? \_\_\_\_\_

Do you usually know exactly what to do in difficult situations? \_\_\_\_\_

### 3 MY IDIOMS

Here are some cool idioms used for describing types of people we all know. I can match each idiom with its meaning.

- |                        |  |
|------------------------|--|
| 1 a tough cookie       | a annoying and irritating                  |
| 2 a wet blanket        | b someone who can do many different things |
| 3 a pain in the neck   | c self-confident and ambitious             |
| 4 a jack-of-all-trades | d boring and unenthusiastic                |

 **MY TURN** Now I'm going to answer these questions. Then I can ask other people.

Do you know anyone who is a jack-of-all-trades? \_\_\_\_\_

Are you a tough cookie? \_\_\_\_\_

Give an example of someone who is a pain in the neck and why? \_\_\_\_\_

Is anyone in your family a wet blanket? Who? Give an example. \_\_\_\_\_

Figure 3.7. The example of vocabulary exercises in unit 7 from English New Upgrade 3



### **3.6 Data Collection**

Speer (2005) stated that the mismatch between teacher beliefs and practices is possibly a result of using research instruments that cannot reflect the findings that the researcher is seeking. Lack of actual understanding between the researcher and the participants and the link between data on beliefs and practices often causes the mismatch between teachers' beliefs and practices. Johnson (1992) stated that the incongruence between teachers' beliefs and practices in previous research might come from not using instruments that can reflect the strength of teachers' stated beliefs accurately. Additionally, Li and Walsh (2011) found that a combination of interview and classroom observation reflects a better understanding of the relationship between stated beliefs and actual practices, rather than using an isolated interview or a questionnaire, which can help provide insights into the extent to which beliefs and practices are congruent.

Phipps and Borg (2009) found that using different research instruments results in different research findings. This means that, for instance, while using a questionnaire survey to elicit teachers' beliefs, the response from a teacher might "reflect teachers' theoretical or idealistic beliefs – beliefs about what should be-" (p.382) or "technical or propositional knowledge" (p.382). On the other hand, the researcher might gain richer realistic insights through a discussion with the teacher in the actual classroom, which reflects " – beliefs about what is – " (p.382) or what is called " practical or experiential knowledge" (p. 382). They pointed out that a qualitative method enables the researcher to gain more productive data than a questionnaire survey to have a better understanding of the actual classroom.

With an awareness of the importance of the research instrument for data collection, I took the advantages and disadvantages of each research instrument into consideration. In this section, the instruments employed for collecting data, the rationale for choosing the instruments, the awareness of their limitations and the procedure for data collection are discussed. The instruments selected for this study included semi-structured interviews and video-stimulated recall interviews, non-participant classroom observations and field notes.

#### **3.6.1 Interviews**

The interview is an important tool for conducting qualitative research and it is generally used in this type of research (Dornyei, 2016; Mason, 2002). According to Merriam (1988), "in qualitative case study research, the main purpose of an interview is to obtain a special kind of information" (p. 72). In this study, I used two types of interviews in order to gain data that was in-depth as possible; a semi-structured interview was used as two pre-observation interviews (PI) and one final interview (FI) and two video-stimulated recall interviews (SI).

### ***3.6.1.1 Semi-structured interviews***

The semi-structured interview has been dominantly used in studies on teachers' beliefs (Debreli, 2016; Larenas et al., 2015; Mellati et al., 2013; Phipps & Borg, 2009). According to Dornyei (2016), "Usually, the interviewer will ask the same questions of all of the participants, although not necessarily in the same order or wording and would supplement the main questions with various probes" (p. 136). It provides the opportunity for both the interviewer and the interviewee to talk more freely based on the themes that relate to the study (Borg, 2015). With the answer of the interviewee that expands information, the researcher can further point out the areas that are interesting (Denscombe, 1999). Through this method, a set of questions can be prepared earlier (Denscombe, 1999; Dornyei, 2016; Merriam, 1988). On the other hand, the issues discussed with the participants are not completely restrictive, and unpredictable data are allowed to emerge from the dialogue in order to create new themes (Denscombe, 1999; Dornyei, 2016; Mason, 2002; Merriam, 1988; Phipps & Borg, 2009). This implies that the semi-structured interview is suitable for any study in which prepared themes are derived from the literature and the new themes may emerge from participant responses during the interviews.

In this study, two semi-structured interviews were conducted before a classroom observation as a pre-observation interview (PI) and one semi-structured interview was conducted as a final interview (FI). The semi-structured interview was adjustable based on the interaction between the interviewer and interviewee. It highlights validity since it can check to see whether information is correct by asking questions in a straightforward manner. It is better than other one-way communication methods, such as questionnaires, because it ideally provides an environment in which participants are willing to talk while being heard (Denscombe, 1999; Mason, 2002).

The purpose of the first interview was to build rapport between the participant and me and gain information about the sources of their beliefs. The second interview, on the other hand, asked the participants about their beliefs in teaching speaking skills in relation to different themes derived from the literature review; however, I also allowed new themes to emerge from the data. During the interviews, although I had prepared the interview questions in advance (see Appendix L), I also asked more questions as they emerged. I successfully created a friendly atmosphere using the interview skills I gained from the pilot study, and I found that the participants were willing to provide rich data and felt comfortable during the interviews since they laughed and actively answered the questions. This may have also been because I have known some of them before; for the rest of them, I tried to be familiar with them through small talk prior to the first interview. After the pre-interviews, I listened to the audio recordings and noted the important

points in order to prepare information and determine what points I needed to pay attention to during the classroom observations. In this way, I could spot the mismatch between the teacher's stated beliefs and their classroom practices. The final interview was conducted to ask about any detail that were still unclear. Furthermore, the participants also had an opportunity to provide feedback and their reflection on their beliefs in teaching speaking skills and their practices during the last interview.

I was aware of the disadvantage of this method as it is a time-consuming process, even though, it provides rich data (Denscombe, 1999; Mears, 2012). Moreover, I realised that my identity might affect or influence the responses (Denscombe, 1999). This problem was reduced by primarily informing participants that the data would be confidential and anonymous. Additionally, the impact of using audio and video recorders can affect the answers of the interviewee (Denscombe, 1999). That problem can be dealt with by building rapport and creating a relaxed atmosphere. All of the interviews were conducted in Thai in order to gain the most accurate understanding possible. This allowed the participants to express their beliefs precisely. The audio recordings allowed me to collect information without taking notes (Dornyei, 2016).

### ***3.6.1.2 Video-stimulated recall interview (SI)***

According to Lyle (2003), much research has been conducted using stimulated recall. It also suits research on teachers' beliefs and practices and is widely used in such studies (e.g., Li, 2013; S.H.-y Mak, 2011). Calderhead (1981) stated that stimulated recall "involves the use of audiotapes or videotapes of skilled behaviour, which are used to aid a participant's recall of his thought processes at the time of that behavior" (p. 212). This method is used to remind the participants of what they have done through the use of audio or video recordings in order to encourage them to reflect and comment on what they were thinking at that particular time (Calderhead, 1981; Lyle, 2003) which helps gain more data for interpretation (Calderhead, 1981). To examine human thought processes, stimulated recall is regarded as an effective method for acquiring the data particularly when it has been done as soon as possible after the event (Lyle, 2003).

It was important to use this method because it can help capture the particular moment highlighting the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices. Li (2013) pointed out that the stimulated-recalled interview with a video recording promotes a better understanding between researchers and participants. The use of a video recorder can help the participants recall the contextual atmosphere at a particular moment (Lyle, 2003). Speer (2005) said "videoclip interview methods enable researchers to collect data on beliefs tied to specific examples of

teachers' practice and data is generated that permits more accurate attributions of beliefs" (p. 377). However, there were some concerns about using this method for this study. Stimulated-recall interviews must be carried out as soon as possible after the event to maintain validity. The questions must be designed so as not affect the cognitive process of the participants when viewing a particular moment (Lyle, 2003). In this study, the video-stimulated recall interviews were conducted within a week after the classroom observation in order to stimulate the teacher's cognitive process. I found that with this period of time, the teacher still recognised what was going on in the classroom. It also allowed me to watch the video recording in advance of the interview and note the points that were important to discuss. I could point out the mismatch between their beliefs and practices and ask them the reasons for such tensions.

In my questioning, I asked the teachers to reflect on the reasons for their actions at a particular time and tried not to interrupt them, so the data were not contaminated. During the interview, the participants could speak freely. I listened to them and asked other questions when they finished (Lyle, 2003). This type of interview is conducted to gain information about the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices. In the study, three video-stimulated recall interviews were used in order to gather as much information as possible for interpretation.

### **3.6.2 Non-participant classroom observation (CO)**

Researchers often use an interview and an observation to collect data (Merriam, 1988). Two types of classroom observations are a participant and non-participant (Wragg, 1999). While the researcher acts as a member of the particular setting in the participant classroom observation, the researcher's role is restricted as much as possible in the non-participant classroom observation (Dornyei, 2016). Borg (2015, p.273) stated that "the researcher in the classroom typically sits at the back, makes notes and avoids interacting with teacher or students during the event being observed".

In this study, three non-participant classroom observations were used. The non-participant classroom observation has been used significantly in research on teachers' beliefs and practices (e.g., Farrell & Lim, 2005; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Yoshihara, 2012). There were many reasons that this method was appropriate for this study. It helped me to understand the reasons behind teachers and learners' behaviours before an interview and to point out the behaviours in question (Wragg, 1999). While the interview provides the researcher "the description of what informants said,..." (Maxwell, 1996, p. 76), the classroom observation offers data about the informants' actions. It provides the data directly through my sight not from responses or reports from the participants (Denscombe, 1999; Dornyei, 2016). As Merriam (1988) pointed out,

“observation is the best technique to use when an activity, event, or situation can be observed first hand, when a fresh perspective is desired, or when participants are not able or willing to discuss the topic under study” (p. 89). I found that non-participant classroom observation allowed me to directly observe what was going on, which provided a clearer view of teachers’ behaviour.

During the classroom observations, I arrived early in order to set the video cameras in a position that did not interrupt the lesson but would allow me to capture the lesson clearly. Then, I sat in the back of the classroom. Arriving early give me more time to prepare myself for the classroom observations and not interrupt the teachers’ lesson. I was not involved in any activities; I just made notes about what was going on in the class and what would be beneficial for my study including the facilities in the classroom, teacher and student interactions, etc. During the classroom observation, I found that the students were not excited to see the cameras in the classroom. One teacher also told me that she was not excited about being observed but with three consecutive observations, the teacher became familiar with having the video cameras in the classroom.

Two types of structure are proposed in classroom observation: structured and unstructured observation. The characteristics for structured observation include predetermined categories, check lists or scale schedules, checking the schedule in real time and qualitative data analysis. On the other hand, unstructured observation takes all of the data during observation into consideration and the data analyses are based on the data themselves and is commonly used in the qualitative approach (Dornyei, 2016). According to Borg (2015), much research on language teacher cognition (e.g., Farrell, 2003; Farrell & Lim, 2005; Johnson,1996; Tsang , 2004; Tsui,2003; Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999) was designed to use unstructured observation where data is collected “through fieldnotes, audio recordings or video” (p. 268) and transcribed in a written text before being analysed and categorised; “the result of this analysis is typically qualitative, though quantification is also possible” (Borg, 2015, p. 268). This approach has been more popular recently as it allows other incidental aspects to be included in the study (Borg, 2015). On the other hand, for structured observation schedules, the categories are designed in advance, which causes the researcher to overlook other unpredictable aspects and actions in the classroom.

In this study, observation data was semi-structured (Matthews & Ross, 2010); I focused on what happened in the classroom in order to gain the data on teacher practices based on the themes derived from the pre-interviews and the literature review. I also allowed other themes related to teaching speaking skills emerging from classroom observation so that standard structured observational schedules, that is, COLT or FIAC, were not employed as an instrument

in this study. Gaynor, Dunn, and Terdal (1997) pointed out the difficulties in using COLT; mainly, the observer sometimes cannot define the category of the data they observe clearly, whereas field notes allow the researcher to code more easily and that is a more practical way to record data during actual observation. Moreover, field notes can record nonverbal behaviours in context while COLT cannot. In this study, during classroom observations, video recordings were the main instrument during data collection; however, I also used field notes, which allowed me to take note of what happened in the classroom (Borg, 2015). Additionally, I created a less structured observational form adapted from Naruemon (2013), which was a form created to organise information regarding classroom organisation and classroom interactions ;however, I used the less structured observation form in order to give me an overview of the lessons and interpret data from video recordings.

Activity	Starting time	Whole class	Pair work	Group work	Individual work	Individual work (V or N)	Total
3. The teacher gives worksheets to the students. The teacher explains how to do the task, and divides the class into two groups.	6.42	✓					2'40"
4. The students do the task by interviewing five classmates, 'What time do you get up?' and writing down answers on the worksheet given.	9.22			✓			5'36"
5. The teacher explains how to write the answer on the worksheet. She/He gets up at _____. Do not forget to add 's' after the verb because the subject is the third person singular.	14.58	✓					2'34"

*Figure 3.8.* Example of the form presenting classroom organisation after classroom observation (Naruemon, 2013, p. 354)

7'07"	ST1 explained the meaning of this dialogue. She sometimes translated the dialogue into Thai, or asked the Ss some questions. Some of the Ss volunteered to give answers. She also told them when they could not answer.	T-C T-S
8'55"	ST1 read the dialogue line by line, and the Ss repeated after her.	T-C
11'40"	ST1 divided the Ss into two groups (A and B) and practised reading the dialogue out loud. When the Ss mispronounced, she corrected their mispronunciation.	Ss-Ss T-Ss T-C

*Figure 3.9.* Example of presenting classroom interaction after classroom observation (Naruemon, 2013, p. 357)

After the pilot study, I found that taking fieldnotes in the less structured observation form could help me to save time. However, I also took field notes in a notebook to remember the points that I thought were important. Apart from this, I used the video camera recordings for several reasons. The video recorded teaching moments that I could use for stimulated-recall interviews, and it allowed me to watch them several times while transcribing the data (Kumar, 2011). However, there were many reasons that I should be present in the classroom. First, it allowed me to experience directly what was really happening (Dornyei, 2016; Maxwell, 1996; Merriam, 1988). Second, it helped me to spot the mismatch between teachers' stated beliefs and their classroom practices in case I had to carry out a stimulated-recall interview immediately after class, so I could ask teachers the reasons behind their behaviours. Third, the camera could not capture many angles at the same time, or (known as "literal blind spots") (Dornyei, 2016, p. 184), so sitting in the classroom allowed me to take note of information that the camera could not record. Fourth, if there was a technical problem with the video camera, I could solve it immediately or use information from my note taking.

Some concerns are raised in relation to using this method. The presence of the observer can affect the data (Borg, 2015). The participants might try to change their behaviour when they realise that they are being observed or to satisfy the observer, which is known as the "Hawthorne effect" (Payne & Payne, 2004). Therefore, while carrying out the observation, I remained in the background as much as possible and informed the participants in advance of my reasons for observing them (Wragg, 1999). The position of the video camera needs to be considered regarding whether it can record the whole class or whether it causes any concerns for the teacher or the students (Dornyei, 2016). Wragg (1999) stated that even though classroom observation requires using video recordings and needs a large amount of time to transcribe, it provides a richer data

rather than any other instrument. For this study, it could help me to solve the problem of taking notes in real time.

According to Borg (2015), in order to conduct research on teachers' cognitions, three methods are generally employed: an interview to ascertain the teachers' background, a classroom observation, and a follow-up interview to reflect teachers' thoughts during teaching. In this study, teachers' beliefs in relation to speaking instruction were investigated through the second pre-interview. I then used the data from the interviews as a key source for what to observe in the classroom. This allowed me to gain insight into what really happens in the classroom so as to compare the relationship between teachers' stated beliefs and practices. The congruence and incongruence between teachers' beliefs and practices were observed during classroom observations. This helped me to prepare questions to ask regarding the reasons of their actions and thinking in particular moments during the video-stimulated recall interviews for clarification regarding the factors causing the congruence and incongruence between their beliefs and practices in relation to speaking instruction.

Apart from this, the sources of teachers' beliefs were explored through the first pre-interviews. However, during the second pre-interviews, if there were any beliefs that the participants mentioned, I also asked them when those beliefs were formed to clarify the sources forming such beliefs. Finally, the final interview was conducted to ask the participants to cover any aspects that required more information.

One example of how the findings from the different research instruments would inform one another was, for example, Sakarin's stated belief in maximizing the use of L2 in the classroom in the second pre-interviews (see Section 4.2.6) and I determined that the source of his belief was formed during his continuing professional development from the first pre-interview (see Section 4.3.4). However, I observed him using L1 far more than L2 during the classroom observations. Then, I discussed this with him in the video-stimulated recall interviews and he explained that it was because of his students' negative reaction to his use of L2 and he was concerned about their feelings (see Section 4.3.4). I could then explore the factors that interfered with the congruence between his beliefs and practices (see Section 4.4). This illustrated how the stages of data collection inform one another and the final analysis.



### **3.7 Pilot Study**

Sampson (2004) pointed out that a pilot study helps the researcher to anticipate problems that might occur in the research and be aware of what is needed for collecting data, including ethical issues and validity. Before the actual study, I conducted a pilot study with two EFL university teachers who were not part of the main study in order to check whether the questions that would be used were precise and clear enough to gain the richest data possible. This approach is supported by Dornyei (2016) who highlighted that trying out the questions a few times before the main interview is vital to make sure that the in-depth data will be gained and the interview will be smooth as possible. Marshall and Rossman (2011) pointed out that the pilot interview allows the researcher to become familiar with their role as an interviewer and prepare them to deal with potential problems and anticipate the length of time required for the data collection. The pilot study gave me the opportunity to be familiar with the video recorder and the audio recorder and the process of collecting data before conducting the main study (Naruemon, 2013). Suggestions and comments from the participants were requested in order to adjust the questions to be more applicable and understandable. During the pilot study, two pre-observation interviews and two-classroom observations and two video-stimulated recall interviews and one final interview were conducted.

Before conducting the pilot study, I sought permission from the dean of the faculty from one university by sending the official letter explaining the purpose of doing the pilot study. After I received the permission from the dean, I could find only one teacher who volunteered to participate in my study. Then, I sought permission from the dean of the faculty at another university. After receiving permission, another teacher was willing to participate. Finally, the pilot study was conducted at two universities in the central part of Thailand from 4 July to 31 July, 2018. Table 3.3 below presents the participants' educational background and teaching experience.

Table 3.3

*The Participant Profiles in the Pilot Study*

<b>Name</b>	<b>Educational background</b>	<b>Teaching education</b>	<b>Continuing professional development</b>	<b>Teaching English (Years)</b>	<b>Teaching speaking English (Years)</b>
Mali	B.A. in English, Thailand M.A. in TEFL, Thailand	M.A. in TEFL, Thailand	Language and teaching methodology development, New Zealand	12	3
Phrachan	B.A. in English, Thailand M.A. in English, Thailand PhD. in TESOL, Thailand	PhD. in English language teaching	Moodle learning	11	3

To collect data, I made an appointment with the two teachers for the first interview. Before the interview, I explained the purpose and procedure of the pilot study. I also informed them about the period of collecting data and assured confidentiality and anonymity. I explained that I would use pseudonyms, and most importantly, the participation in the study would not affect their work in any ways. I also informed them that they had an opportunity to ask me any questions and finally, I asked them to sign informed consent.

The two participants were not part of the main study. I conducted the first pre-interview with each of them for approximately one hour at their workplace. For Mali, I made an appointment for the second pre-interview a week later. However, Phrachan had a very tight schedule and asked me to continue the second interview after a break on the same day. I found that having two interviews on the same day was exhausting and determined that would not be a good strategy for the main study. After the second pre-interview, I listened to the interviews and noted some important points in order to prepare for the classroom observations. Before, I conducted the classroom observation, I asked permission from the teacher to see her classroom to find the right place to set up my video camera. I found that I needed another camera to capture what the teacher presented on the screen or wrote on the board. Before the classroom observations, I asked permission from the students to observe them and assured the confidentiality and anonymity of all collected data. The second teacher introduced me to the students, and I informed her at the beginning that I would not be involved in any activities or lessons. During classroom observations, I found that I needed to revise the less observation form to cover all patterns of classroom interaction; I determined that taking field notes on the observation form could save time.

After the first classroom observation, I made an appointment with each teacher within the recommended one- week time period for the video- stimulated recall interview; both teachers were able to recall their teaching session clearly. Moreover, I found that this time period gave me plenty of time to watch the video recordings and noted some points that I needed to discuss during the interview. This helped me to conduct the interview smoothly. I could make an appointment to observe Mali in the second classroom observation in the next following week. On the other hand, Phrachan had to participate the training course for a week; therefore, I had a chance to observe her class in the next two weeks. The process continued until the final interview, which provided information that I had overlooked previously; I was also able to get their feedback. Mali said that it was a good opportunity for her to reflect on her beliefs and practices and allowed her to know what beliefs should be maintained and what beliefs needed to be changed. In terms of the interview questions, both teachers informed me that the interview questions were clear; however, Mali suggested I not say the word ‘but’ too many times because the participants might feel that they were doing something wrong. She suggested that I not mention what the participants had said before but rather simply asked them why had done something specific. She also suggested that I clarify some particular terms such as ‘lingua franca core’ because she had never heard it before. Mali provided me with positive feedback about feeling comfortable during the interview. This was confirmed by her mannerisms, for example, laughing and smiling.

After gaining experience from the pilot study, I changed the way I asked the questions by not using the word ‘but’ as much. Some questions were added, and some unnecessary questions were eliminated (see Appendix K). I intended to clarify some particular terms that the participants might not be familiar with. The pilot study allowed me to hone my interviewing skills so as to gain richer data and create a relaxed atmosphere during the interview. I found that serving refreshments could also enhance the friendly atmosphere. When the participants were relaxed, they were willing to talk and provide more data. The pilot study also gave me the opportunity to become comfortable with the video camera and audio recorder.

### **3.8 Data Analysis**

All of the data from the audio recordings from the two pre-observation interviews, three video-stimulated-recall interviews, the final interview and the video recordings from the non-participant classroom observations were analysed through using thematic analysis (Phipps & Borg, 2009), which, is “a process of segmentation, categorization and relinking of aspects of the data based prior to the final interpretation” (Grbich, 2007, p.16). Themes were derived from existing relevant studies, and the evidence and data collected from observations and interviews (Grbich, 2007).

This study employed an abductive approach, which has been used previously in research on teachers' beliefs and practices. For example, the study by Phipps and Borg (2009), which more importantly also focused on teachers' beliefs, used this approach. In that study, Phipps and Borg (2009) used a similar set of data collection instruments that were used in this study in their qualitative research approach. The abductive approach took the previous ideas and theories from existing sources into account; however, it also allowed new interpretations and ideas to emerge (Borg, 2015; Coffey & Atkinson, 1996; Phipps & Borg, 2009). According to Coffey and Atkinson (1996), an abductive approach is suitable for qualitative research as "there is... a repeated interaction among existing ideas, former findings, and observations, new observations, and new ideas" (p. 156). In the current study, some of the key aspects regarding speaking instruction, such as grammar, vocabulary relating to teaching speaking skills, the model for pronunciation, accuracy and fluency suggested by the literature were initially the focus of analysis whereas other aspects, such as negative washback and the use of L1 and L2, emerged from the data (Phipps and Borg, 2009).

In this study, the information from the pre-interviews, video-stimulated recall interviews, classroom observations and final interview were transcribed. The data were coded according to the initial themes from the literature review and the new themes that emerged from the data. Hilal and Alabri (2013) stated that "coding involves pursuing related words or phrases mentioned by the interviewees or in the documents. These words or phrases are then combined together in order to realise the connection between them" (p. 181).

NVivo 12 was employed to analyse the data as it helps group similar codes, decreases the amount of manual work and, manages data, which provides them more time to create themes and draw conclusions (Hilal & Alabri, 2013; Wong, 2008). NVivo assisted me in grouping data from different sources in the same place to gain a better overall view. Although, the software helps researchers to organise and store data more effectively, the researchers are still responsible for analysing and interpreting data (Hilal & Alabri, 2013). The software helped me to manage data by coding, merging codes and revising codes.

To explore the teachers' beliefs regarding speaking instruction, the second pre-interviews and the final interviews were transcribed and coded. Codes marked on similar information in this study were, for example, accuracy, fluency, controlled practice, communicative activities, NES pronunciation models, translation, use of L1 and so forth. Codes were categorised into themes. The themes were clustered and developed flexibly until the main concrete ones were determined (Phipps & Borg, 2009). Apart from this, data from other instruments including the first-pre

interviews and stimulated-recalled interviews in which related to teachers' beliefs also were coded and categorized to support the themes from the main data.

Meanwhile, the video recordings from non-participant observations and field notes were transcribed and coded based on the themes relating their teacher beliefs and the data that were discovered from the classroom observations to create the themes in relation with teacher practices. Additionally, a less structured observational form assisted me in interpreting the data from the transcripts of classroom observations. Furthermore, codes from the first pre-interviews were aggregated into themes with respect to the sources of the teachers' beliefs. Other data from second pre-interviews, stimulated-recall interviews and final interviews relating to sources forming their beliefs were also coded and categorized to support the themes from the main data. In addition, the themes drawn from analysis of the interview data were compared to the themes drawn from the analysis of the classroom observations and field notes in order to examine the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices. Apart from this, codes from stimulated-recall interviews and final interviews were categorized into themes related to factors affecting their relationship between teacher beliefs and practices. The key themes from each case were compared with other cases in terms of similarity or difference for presenting the cross-case analysis.

### **3.9 Ethical Issues**

Apart from conducting the study in terms of its quality, all researchers must be aware of ethical issues involving the participants (Miles & Huberman, 2007) because these issues many affect decisions the researcher makes throughout the study (Kelly & Ali, 2004).

For the main study, I sought the ethical approval from the ethics committee at University of York before asking permission to collect data from the deans of the faculties at the two universities in Thailand (see Appendix B&C). I initially planned to find six Thai EFL university teachers from two universities for the main study because I was not sure if I could recruit enough participants from one university. Fortunately, I was able to recruit enough participants from one university.

Participants participated in this study was voluntarily. A consent form was proposed because "gaining informed consent is a procedure that aims to support the principle of individual autonomy and is widely agreed to be a safeguard for the rights of human subjects participating knowingly and voluntarily in research" (Kelly & Ali, 2004, p. 121). Therefore, to protect the rights of the participants and maintain confidentiality, anonymity and avoid harm, first, I informed both of the teachers and students of the purpose of the study and the procedure of data collection. As pointed out by Denscombe (2002), "decisions need to be made about how much information

to supply.... Too much information and the researcher can unintentionally contaminate the data by ‘leading’ the participant’s responses” (p.189). Consequently, to prevent contaminating data, I informed them that I planned to investigate their beliefs and practices in teaching speaking skills. I did not inform them that I would also examine the relationship between their beliefs and practices and the sources of their beliefs so that, they would not change their behaviour to please me or think that they were being judged.

Second, all of the data was anonymous and stored confidentially (Christians, 2000; Miles & Huberman, 2007). I offered to let them to select a pseudonym, but all of them left that up to me. Third, they were informed that the audio and the video recordings would be used during data collection and they were informed that their information would be used only in the thesis (Christians, 2000). If, at some future time, the data was shared publicly, it would be anonymised. They could decline such use of data, and they had the right to withdraw from the study at any time during data collection or up to two weeks after the data were collected. They would have an opportunity to check the written text of their interviews and classroom observations. Data were stored anonymously in secure filing cabinets and a password protected computer and may be used for future research. The data would be destroyed four years after the completion of the research project. Finally, the potential participants were given the opportunity to ask questions regarding the study before giving consent (see Appendix D, E, F, G, H, I).

### **3.10 Trustworthiness**

The terms ‘validity’ and ‘reliability’ are mainly used in scientific research. While validity means “the truth-value of a research project; can we say whether the reported are true?” (p. 72), reliability focuses on “the consistency with research procedures deliver their results” (p. 72) which relates to another term called ‘replicability’ (Seale, 2004). In other words, it is to examine whether the results of the study would be the same if other researchers conducted the study similarly (Farrell, 2003; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Seale, 2004). However, what is required in scientific research is not always appropriate for qualitative research. The conventional paradigm consists of four aspects including internal validity, external validity, reliability and objectivity (Seale, 2004). Because Lincoln and Guba (1985) did not view these terms suitable for qualitative research, they created the term ‘trustworthiness’, which included credibility referring to “credible findings” (p. 301), transferability (providing data for the judgements) (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), dependability (explaining every step of the study elaborately to allow others to replicate the study) (Shenton,

2004) and confirmability (maintained by triangulation) and a reflexive journal to replace the terms in conventional paradigm (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

There are several techniques to enhance the credibility. In this study, prolonged engagement, persistent observation, triangulation and, member check techniques as suggested by Lincoln and Guba (1985) were employed. Prolonged engagement refers to the amount of time that the researcher spends with the participants to become familiar with each other and to avoid misrepresentation (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Dornyei (2016) agreed that validity is increased through engaging with the participants through continuous observation. In this study, I had two pre-observation interviews in order to make the participants feel comfortable with me and conducted three classroom observations, three video-stimulated recall interviews and one final interview for each participant. This process took time but allowed me to “build trust” (p. 303) (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Six interviews and three classroom observations allowed me to become familiar with both teachers and students. I found that the teachers felt relaxed during the interviews, and they behaved naturally during the classroom observations. This was, perhaps, because of a long period of data collection. Persistent observation allowed me to explore the elements relevant to the issues that I was investigating them (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). With three consecutive classroom observations, I gained richer data and understood how the teacher taught and managed their lessons.

Methodological triangulation (Denzin, 1978 as cited in Janesick, 2000) refers to combining multiple methods (Dornyei, 2016; Liamputtong & Ezzy, 2007; Maxwell, 1996) and enhances the credibility of the research (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). As pointed out by Denzin (1970) and Denscombe (1999), combining several methods in one study can increase the validity because it reduces the potential bias of using a single method (Maxwell, 1996). In this study, I used various methods including pre-observation interviews, non- participant classroom observations, video-stimulated recall interviews, a final interview and field notes to study teachers’ beliefs and practices.

Another technique is ‘member checks’ (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) or ‘member validation’ (Seale, 2004), which refers to allowing the participants to provide feedback on the data (Dornyei, 2016). Shenton (2004) suggested that this provides opportunities for the participants to check whether the words that are written in the transcription represent their intentions. This study employed member checks after I transcribed the data. Five of the six participants agreed with the transcription without any correction, but one participant returned the transcript with a slight correction on the first pre-interview transcription.

When a small number of participants are involved in a qualitative study, it has often been observed that the results cannot be applied to other research (Shenton, 2004). However, to maintain transferability, thick description (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Seale, 2004) can be used. I can present as much information as possible to allow readers to decide whether the study might be similar to their context and situation (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Mears, 2012; Seale, 2004). In case of generalisation, Denscombe (1999) and Shenton (2004) suggested that it is the responsibility of readers to consider the information provided and decide if it can be generalised.

To maintain dependability or reliability in qualitative research, Shenton (2004) suggested that “the process within the study should be reported in detail, thereby enabling a future researcher to repeat the work...” (p. 71). In accordance with this, I describe each step of the process deliberately and in detail so that other researchers can replicate this study.

Finally, Shenton (2004) stated that “The concept of confirmability is the qualitative investigator’s comparable concern to objectivity. Here steps must be taken to help ensure as far as possible that the work’s findings are the result of the experiences and ideas of the informants, rather than the characteristics and preferences of the researcher” (p. 72). To ensure the findings, this study used the methodological triangulation and reflexive journal to maintain confirmability. I also used a reflexive journal (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) as a means to maintain all of the criteria of trustworthiness. This technique helped me to reflect what I had been done during each step of collecting data.

Inter-rater reliability, which refers to “data.... independently coded and ... codings compared for agreements” are mainly used in a quantitative approach; however, for qualitative research, the use of such reliability is arguable (Armstrong, Gosling, Weinman, & Marteau, 1997, p. 579). This study proposed the interpretive paradigm holding the assumption that “realities are multiple...” (Lincoln & Guba, p. 37), which is opposed to the assumption behind the use of inter-rater reliability that there is a single accurate reality that could be coded. I view coding in the thematic analysis as flexible, and it can be developed through an iterative process. Scores from inter-rater reliability derive from the researcher’s coding in a similar way rather than aiming for absolute accuracy (University of Auckland, n.d.). Therefore, inter-rater reliability was not employed in the study. However, to increase the validity and reliability, as suggested by Guest et al. (2012), since I conducted my study alone, I asked a peer who works as a university teacher to check whether the raw data matched the codes that I defined.

Apart from this, I presented some extracts of what the participants said in the classroom observations and interviews, called “low-inference descriptors” to maintain the reliability as it



presents the exact words of the participants instead of only presenting the interpretation of the researchers (Seale, 1999, p.158). Using quotes from participants is considered important in qualitative research (Guest et al., 2012).

### **3.11 Summary**

This chapter presented the research questions and the rationale for selecting the interpretive research paradigm, the qualitative research design and the multiple case study design. It also explained in detail how the participants were selected and the rationale behind selecting the instruments, including pre-interviews, stimulated-recall interviews, a final interview and non-participant classroom observations. The data analysis, which was thematic and abductive are discussed as were trustworthiness and ethical issues.

## Chapter 4 Findings

This chapter presents the findings across the six case studies in order to highlight the common themes of teacher's beliefs and practices. The findings are presented in different main themes in answer to the research questions.

1. What are Thai EFL university teachers' beliefs in relation to teaching speaking skills?
2. What are Thai EFL university teachers' practices in relation to teaching speaking skills?
3. What are the sources forming Thai EFL university teachers' beliefs in relation to teaching speaking skills?
4. What is the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices in relation to teaching speaking skills?

The findings related to the first and the third research questions were mainly derived from the pre-interviews, while the data gained from the classroom observations mainly answered the second research question, and the data obtained from pre-interviews, classroom observation and stimulated-recall interviews mainly answered the fourth research question. The final interviews provided a better understanding of a number of points that were previously unclear. This chapter is divided into three main sections. The first section groups together the data in respect of Thai EFL teacher beliefs and practices in relation to teaching speaking skills. The rationale behind this is that there were common themes interconnecting between teachers' beliefs and practices; therefore, presenting the teacher's beliefs and practices in the same section aims to avoid repetition. The second section presents the sources forming teachers' beliefs in relation to teaching speaking skills, with the final section presenting the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices in relation to teaching speaking skills.

Before further discussion of the different themes, the next section presents a summary of each participant's case to provide the necessary background before examining the in-depth and detailed analysis of the cross-case findings. The overview provides key information for each participant including their beliefs, practices, sources of their beliefs and the relationship between their beliefs and practices regarding speaking instruction.

## **4.1 Overview of the Participants' Cases**

### **4.1.1 Pensiri**

Pensiri was the most experienced teacher among the six participants (see Section 3.4). Her core belief that emerged was that a focus on accuracy over fluency. A clear example of this was observed in her attention to providing corrective feedback on students' dialogue scripts before allowing them to speak in front of the class. Her belief in the essentiality of explicit grammar instruction also appeared to be a core belief as she was observed often pointing out grammar structures for students explicitly while presenting each expression and reviewing grammar structures before assigning exercises. Additionally, her strong belief in teaching lexical relations and using drilling was seen in her focus on the meaning of the vocabulary through synonyms and her reliance on drilling when practising pronunciation. She often asked students to repeat sentences after showing them video models. However, there was also some tension between her stated beliefs and her classroom practices. While she believed that delayed feedback could reduce students' anxiety, she was often observed correcting their mistakes immediately. This could be interpreted as her core belief in focusing on accuracy overriding her belief in reducing students' anxiety through delayed feedback while the latter was more of a peripheral belief. This shows that internal factors, for example, core and peripheral beliefs affected a congruence between her beliefs and her practices. In terms of sources of her beliefs, these mainly came from her experience as a learner and her own teaching experience. She argued that her teacher education programme was less influential in forming her beliefs as it mainly provided the theory of teaching approaches and methods, which meant that she did not directly experience them and was not able to judge how effective they would be in the classroom.

### **4.1.2 Wasin**

Wasin was a novice teacher in the department (see Section 3.4). His beliefs were relevant to the rather traditional reliance on the grammar-based syllabus and pre-CLT approaches that focused on teaching grammar explicitly. He also believed strongly in using L1 for teaching grammar and focusing on accuracy over fluency, which were reflected in his classroom practices. To clarify, he was observed focusing on explaining structures and items following a sequence of grammar items presented in the textbook by using L1 and providing students with grammar exercises in addition to those in the textbook to develop their accuracy. Apart from this, his strong belief in conforming to native English speaker (NES) models converged with his practices. He focused on key features that are non-core features in the lingua franca core (LFC), for example, intonation and stress. He also gave negative comments to students who had a very strong Thai

accent. He reported being satisfied with his own pronunciation, which meant he also held self-efficacy beliefs that were influential on conforming to NES models when teaching pronunciation. Importantly, it was clear that contextual factors greatly intervened in terms of tensions between beliefs and practices. For example, while he stated that he would correct students' scripts before allowing them to speak, he was not seen doing so for what he referred to as 'time constraints'. Interestingly, he argued that his own experience of a teacher education programme was not greatly influential in forming his beliefs. He claimed that his beliefs about teaching speaking were rather more a product of his experience as a learner and his own teaching experience.

#### **4.1.3 Sakarin**

When the study took place, Sakarin was the newest teacher recruited in the department (see Section 3.4). His belief in the primacy of explicit grammar instruction based on declarative knowledge of explicitly taught rules and the importance of using technology, for example, Kahoot for teaching vocabulary, were indeed consistent with his practices. Additionally, his belief in the essentiality of teaching grammar could be related to a sense of responsibility belief as he saw it as his role to teach grammar to his students. During the observations, he spent much time explaining grammar structures and assigned grammar exercises. Apart from this, he introduced Kahoot to present vocabulary and elicit students' vocabulary knowledge. Interestingly, he held a contradictory belief between conforming to NES models and intelligibility as a goal for teaching pronunciation and this was observed in his teaching practice. While he mainly focused on the key features in NES models, at one point he told his students not to worry about their accent as long as, their speech was comprehensible. The reason behind this was he wanted to promote students' confidence. Interestingly, an in-service training was a clear source for a belief in extensive use of L2 in the classroom, but a tension emerged in practice. He was observed using L1 extensively in class and justified this on the basis of his students' negative reaction to L2 use. This indicates that student factors interfered in the relationship between his beliefs and his practices. It was clear from the interviews that his teacher education programme was highly influential in the formation of his beliefs regarding the teaching of speaking. He said that he applied many techniques and activities he learned from his instructors in his classroom practice.

#### **4.1.4 Teerawut**

Teerawut was an experienced teacher in the department (see Section 3.4). His belief in presenting vocabulary through translation, which seemed to be a core belief, was consistent with his practices. He was often observed translating the meaning of vocabulary through L1. His belief in reducing students' anxiety was seen as he encouraged them to speak without pressuring them. His belief in following NES models was observed as he used NES video clips as pronunciation models and focused on using intonation in the classroom. However, his belief in presenting ASEAN varieties of English was not transferred into his classroom due to his students' lack of motivation to learn them. His experience as a learner, teaching experience and teacher education programme seemed to be influential in the formation of his beliefs, while continuing professional development was less influential in forming his beliefs because he had hardly attended any training courses focusing on speaking instruction.

#### **4.1.5 Janista**

Janista was an experienced teacher in the department, but among the six participants, she had the least experience in teaching speaking (see Section 3.4). Her belief that intelligibility was a goal for teaching pronunciation was related to her belief that her students were not competent or capable of learning features of pronunciation, such as stress. She felt that learning about stress was too challenging for her students, and in observed classes she did not point out stress issues at all. She corrected some students' pronunciation mistakes when she felt that they could interfere with intelligibility. Her approach not to provide corrective feedback in front of the class was based on her belief in the importance of reducing student anxiety, but in practice, she was observed correcting students' mistakes in front of their classmates. This may be interpreted as a core belief in the primacy of accuracy overriding her belief regarding reducing anxiety, indicating that the latter was likely a peripheral belief. This also revealed that internal factors, for example, core and peripheral beliefs, caused some mismatch between her beliefs and practices. The main sources forming her beliefs were her experience as a learner followed by her teaching experience.

#### **4.1.6 Araya**

Araya had the least experience teaching at the tertiary level (see Section 3.4). Her belief in aiming for intelligibility as a goal for teaching pronunciation was transferred to her classroom as she did not appear to focus on stress, which is a non-core feature of LFC in practice. Unlike the majority of the participants, Araya believed that ASEAN cultures should be presented in the classroom. However, she was not observed doing so because she focused more on the content in

the textbook to prepare students for the exam. Another mismatch between her beliefs and practice arose in relation to the use of drilling. While she stated in the interviews that she did not believe that drilling was not suitable for adult students, she was, in fact, observed using drilling. She argued that this use of drilling was due to her students' low level of English proficiency. Importantly, the sources of her beliefs mainly derived from her experience as a learner. This was possibly due to her lack of experience in teaching speaking at the tertiary level and her lack of specific training in teaching speaking skills in training programmes. This was supported in part by her admission that her teacher education programme provided courses for giving instruction in general, but not specifically for speaking skills.

Table 4.1

*Key Aspects for Cross Case Analysis*

Aspects	Beliefs	Pensiri		Wasin		Sakarín		Teerawut		Janista		Araya	
		B	P	B	P	B	P	B	P	B	P	B	P
Grammar and speaking	No difference between grammar for writing and speaking.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
	Teaching grammar explicitly is necessary.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓	✓	✓	✓
	Focus on accuracy over fluency.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
	Complexity is not necessary for speaking.	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Vocabulary and speaking	Defining vocabulary through translation is important.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
	Vocabulary development: varied beliefs and practices												
Pronunciation and speaking	Using elicitation to get students involved in learning vocabulary.		✓	✓	✓		✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
	The importance of understanding vocabulary in context.				✓	✓	✓				✓		✓
	Building vocabulary knowledge requires providing input on lexical relations between words.	✓	✓						✓		✓	✓	
	Learning vocabulary is about more than a word.	✓	✓		✓		✓						
	Using technology for teaching vocabulary, e.g., Kahoot.			✓	✓	✓	✓						
	Vocabulary effectively learned by linking the classroom to the real world ,e.g., through news.										✓	✓	
	The LFC is not suitable as a model.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓
Activities and tasks in teaching speaking	ASEAN variety of English should be introduced to the classroom but not as a model.	✓	●	✓	●	✓	✓	✓	●	✓	●	✓	●
	Strongly conforming to NES models.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓				
	Pronunciation intelligibility is a goal.									✓	✓	✓	✓
	Dialogue memorisation is effective for teaching speaking.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓	✓	✓	✓
	Drilling is important for teaching speaking.	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓	✓				✓
Intercultural awareness in speaking class	Communicative activities should be used in the class.	✓	✓	✓	✓				✓				x
	Task-based learning can be used for teaching speaking.			✓	✓								
	Students' awareness of ASEAN cultures should be raised.					✓	●					✓	●
	Focusing on NES cultures is vital through register.	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓	✓		✓		✓
Language used in the classroom	L1 is still important for teaching speaking.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
	Balancing use of L1 and L2 is the key.							✓	x			✓	x
	Maximising the use of L2 is necessary.					✓	x						
Affective factors and speaking	Reducing anxiety is central in teaching speaking	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
			x		x		x		x		x		x

*Note.* [Key: B = Belief, P = Practice, ✓ = mentioned in stated belief or were observed in practice, x = tension, ● = were not observed]

## **4.2 Teachers' Beliefs and Practices regarding Teaching Speaking Skills**

This section presents the teacher's beliefs and practices in relation to teaching speaking skills covering several aspects including grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, activities and tasks in speaking class, intercultural awareness and speaking, the language used and affective factors. The themes under each aspect emerged from the data to answer the first and second research questions. Additionally, the negative washback which related to teachers' beliefs and practices are also presented in this section.

### **4.2.1 Beliefs and practices relating to teaching grammar for speaking skills**

Grammatical competence is one of the important competences for speakers in achieving speaking proficiency (see Section 2.3.1). Knowledge of grammatical structures helps speakers in their cognitive process for selecting language structures accurately during the formulation stage, and they are able to check their own mistakes when speaking during the self-monitoring stage (see Section 2.2). As 'grammar' might not mean the same thing to all teachers, this study focused on the way grammar was interpreted and taught for developing speaking skills. This section presents the themes relating to teachers' beliefs and practices in teaching grammar for developing speaking skills as they emerged from the data.

#### **4.2.1.1 Spoken grammar: Limited awareness**

Due to time pressure for planning speaking and many aspects involved in the cognitive process, it is common to find utterances with ungrammatical structures or incomplete utterances and repetition in speaking (see Section 2.3). This means that the structures of spoken grammar are different from the structures of written grammar (see Section 2.4.1).

To explore the participants' beliefs regarding spoken grammar, all participants beliefs were investigated concerning spoken grammar through the question "Is there any difference between grammar structures in speaking and writing?" The words 'spoken grammar' was not used in the question because it was likely to cue its existence. Interestingly, none of the teachers showed any awareness of the concept of spoken grammar. Wasin, Sakarin and Araya stated that the structures of speaking and writing grammar were the same. For example, Sakarin said that it was "similar." He added that he taught students "the same structures" but the way he taught them "might be different" (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). Wasin stated that "the difference might be when you speak you have to think, then speak, but for writing, you can think and think and then write". However, he concluded that the "grammar structures are the same" (2<sup>nd</sup> PI).



Although Wasin was aware that speakers needed to produce the language immediately while there was more time to think and revise for writing, he still believed that there was no difference between grammar for speaking and writing. Furthermore, while some of the other participants (Teerawut, Pensiri and Sakarin) mentioned the difference between teaching grammar for writing and speaking, they did not refer to any explicit knowledge of spoken grammar characteristics (see Section 2.4.1). For example, Teerawut remarked on the fact that grammar for speaking was “not so detailed” (2<sup>nd</sup> PI) and that for the present perfect tense in his conversation course, he only taught two of the many rules that exist.

During the observations, all participants except Janista employed aspects of spoken grammar in the English they used in the classroom, but they did not point it out explicitly. The following episodes illustrate examples of spoken language with characteristics of spoken grammar used by the participants:

Episode 1

T: **Any question here? Nothing right? I don't know Thai language. In this class In English please. ... In English. In English please. Ask in English.** (1<sup>st</sup> CO, Wasin)

Episode 2

T: **...You know, your boss will ask for your English score when you apply for your job. For example, Sarisa, how much score do you get from like English proficiency test? 20 scores. Oh no! Boss says 'no. I don't need you'. Something like that. If you get like- you know TOEIC. TOEIC, you know TOEIC? Okay. The full score. Okay** (1<sup>st</sup> CO, Sakarin)

[Key: T= Teacher; S= A student; Italic = Thai; Normal Front and bold = English; (()) = research's explanation; (Class) = Whole class students; ? = rising intonation or question; ! = falling intonation; () = the presence of unclear word or sentences; [ = an overlap between the first and the second speaker's speech];... = untimed pause or ellipsis; ' = sentences from the textbook, text or a conversation; the underlined text = the teacher displaying aspects of spoken grammar; [+ TT]= teacher's translation]

As shown in the above extract, the participants used spoken grammar, for example, incomplete sentences and ellipses, seemingly without understanding its characteristics or showing that they were conscious of it.

Interestingly, all participants' lack of spoken grammar knowledge also affected their belief in using complete sentences in speaking. In fact, three teachers, Pensiri, Wasin and Teerawut, insisted that the students needed to speak in full, complete sentences. Pensiri actually

referred to how her students “sometimes only spoke one word” but that she asked them to “repeat it in a full sentence” (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). Teachers often wanted students to give fuller answers just because they wanted them to speak more. Therefore, part of the problem could be a belief in the need to get learners to produce more as an aim of the speaking class. Also, Wasin maintained that teachers “...should correct students to speak in a full sentence, otherwise, they might think that they are right. It would be better to put a subject in a sentence, so the listener can understand and not need to think on their own” (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). Perhaps Wasin also missed the point that in writing, we must provide more redundant language, but in speaking, the context helps the listener to understand. Again, he did not focus on the nature of speaking.

He explained his reason for asking students to speak in full sentences was because he wanted them to apply what he had taught them when answering a question. He further explained that “otherwise, they do not have to study” (1<sup>st</sup> SI). It is noteworthy that Wasin focused more on using correct sentences rather than focusing on communication, which reflected his beliefs that a classroom was a place to practise accuracy.

Likewise, Teerawut remarked he had to tell students that “... English sentences need a subject. But in real life, some people might not add a subject, so they need to be understood when they speak” (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). Several participants, then, seemed to agree in the belief that using an incomplete sentence when speaking was not good practice in the classroom. Significantly, Wasin and Teerawut were not aware that the context helps the listener to understand the subject of the sentence, and that in real-life conversations, listeners can check with speakers to clarify the message. Communicative strategies to negotiate the meaning were often used.

During the observation, Wasin corrected students to speak in a full sentence, as shown in the following:

Episode 4

**T: If you were an animal, what animal would you be and why?**

**S: I cat.**

**T: In full sentence. Answer in a full sentence**

**S: If I wear...**

**T: were**

**S: If I were an animal.**

**T: Aha.**

**S: I**

**T: I would**

**S: I would cat.**

**T: Verb**

**S: I would be cat.**

**T: I would be a cat. Why?**

**S: Cat is cute.**

**T: You would be like a cat? A cat is cute. (1<sup>st</sup> CO, Wasin)**

In summary, the participants believed that there was little or no difference between spoken grammar and written grammar. In practice, however, most of the teachers spoke English with elements of spoken grammar of which they did not seem to be aware. In observation, it was therefore unsurprising that no reference was made to spoken grammar explicitly, and none of its characteristics were taught.

#### ***4.2.1.2 Essentiality of grammar: Explicit grammar instruction***

The influence of the grammar translation method which has long been established as a primary language teaching method was clearly present in this context (see Section 2.5.5).

Unsurprisingly, in this study, the belief in the centrality of grammar and the need for learners to use grammar accurately was clear in all the participant interviews with most indicating a belief in teaching grammar explicitly.

Sakarín showed his strong belief that grammar was important for speaking: “If you do not know grammar, you cannot speak” (1<sup>st</sup> PI). He stated that he taught “... grammar for speaking” but when he saw students’ reactions, he felt that it was “a difficult job.” However, he insisted that “... Thai teachers still need to teach grammar anyway because it is an important thing...” (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). Although he found that teaching grammar in speaking courses was challenging, he insisted on it because it was his belief that speaking was not possible without a basic knowledge of grammar. It is worth noting that this belief could be described as a sense of responsibility belief where Sakarín considered it was his duty to teach his students to speak with correct grammar as an expected outcome. Similarly, the following extract shows how Wasin paid attention to structures. He stated that “if I do not teach them structures, they cannot compose sentences themselves” (2<sup>nd</sup> PI).

Furthermore, Wasin claimed that he would teach grammar in every lesson of his speaking course. The following extract is taken from Wasin’s interview showing the importance of using grammar accurately when speaking.

Grammar is important. I teach grammar in every lesson. I do not teach only speaking techniques, but I teach them grammar. I teach them how we use structures, so students will be able to apply them. So, grammar is important for teaching speaking. It is not about getting messages across by using grammar incorrectly. (2<sup>nd</sup> PI, Wasin)

Again, this was evident that similar to Sakarín’s case, Wasin held sense of responsibility beliefs in providing grammar instruction as they both expected their students to speak accurately as an outcome.

These participants' beliefs seemed to coincide, interestingly, around the idea that correct and accurate grammar showed that speakers were educated, trustworthy and gave a good impression to the listener. For example, Pensiri commented, "...As university students, they have to use correct grammatical structures" (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). When asked again, she confirmed that grammar was "important." She continued that "... people say if we communicate as an academic or a graduate, our grammar needs to be correct..." (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). This is similar to three other participants' beliefs including Wasin, Janista and Teerawut. During the first interview, Wasin revealed that for communication, the context and grammar needed to be considered. He further explained that "... it makes us look more reliable" (1<sup>st</sup> PI). Likewise, Janista said "they should speak like they are having knowledge of grammar not just speaking, but by putting words together" (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). Teerawut agreed with the others that "grammar represents your knowledge" (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). The implication is that these teachers see successful speaking as the accurate production of grammatical structures.

Along with the participants' beliefs that grammar was important for speaking, a belief in the essentiality of explicit grammar instruction was evident in the responses of five of the participants and could be considered a core belief because it was emphasised in their pre-interviews. They believed that they needed to explain grammar explicitly for their students when teaching speaking. The following extract illustrates that Sakarins' view that explaining grammar when teaching speaking was necessary. He asserted that teachers had to explain grammar structures before teaching speaking and that it was "a main factor for them to speak accurately" (2<sup>nd</sup> PI).

When asked how he would teach grammar, Wasin stated that he provided them with a sentence and explained it because it was like a lead in to the content. Then, he explained the "...grammar structures" (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). In the same vein, Pensiri, Janista and Araya also believed in the essentiality of explaining grammar explicitly. Pensiri, for example, reported that she would point out grammar rules while presenting language expressions, for example, 'would you like to + a verb' and 'what about + verb. ing?' In addition, it should be noted that there are no explicit grammar rule explanations in the textbook she used (See figure 3.2). This reveals that she would explain grammar structures explicitly to her students even though the structures are not explained clearly in the textbook.

During the observations, all five participants were observed teaching grammar structures (see Appendix N). However, the grammar structures they taught did not correspond to spoken grammar but were very much based on written grammar. This also reflected their belief

that there was no difference between teaching grammar for speaking and writing (see Section 2.4.1.1). While Pensiri and Janista were observed presenting useful expressions for each language function in the textbook, they always explained grammar structures from those expressions even though these were not explicitly addressed in the textbook. In the first classroom observation, Pensiri taught three language functions including making a request and offering and asking for permission. She stated: “the lessons related to the structures. They all contained a modal verb. Sometimes, they saw the word ‘can’ many times, but their functions were different” (1<sup>st</sup> SI). She wanted them to see the difference between each function. The following episodes are taken from Pensiri’s and Janista’s classroom observations:

#### Episode 5

T: **If you see from this exercise you see every question mostly starts with ‘can’, right? Can, could, would, may. This one is a modal verb. It is a modal verb.** [+TT]  
(1<sup>st</sup>CO, Pensiri)

#### Episode 6

T: *Next, if offer someone to do something offer* [+TT] ‘Can I help you?’ *You often hear this sentence. ‘Can I help you?’ ‘Can I help you?’ ‘Could I do you a favour?’ ‘Would you like me to call you back?’ ‘Would you like me to take a message?’*  
**Would you like me to** *followed by a verb ‘call’ is a verb. ‘Take’ is also a verb.* (1<sup>st</sup> CO, Janista)

More interestingly, Pensiri and Araya were seen presenting some sentences from a Youtube and highlighting the structures explicitly. Pensiri gave her reason for using the video in the class: “...it summarised the grammar structures” (1<sup>st</sup> SI). This reveals that Pensiri was primarily concerned with highlighting grammar structures for her students. Moreover, Pensiri, Janista and Araya were all observed explaining language structures before asking students to do an exercise as can be seen in the following episodes:

#### Episode 7

T: ((laughing)) **I will let you do some...task. You see the example. Look! example so when you make a request you can use ‘Could you’ or ‘can you’ + verb** *What do you use?* ((The teacher types Can/Could you+ verb .... , please? on the screen.)) (1<sup>st</sup>CO, Pensiri)

#### Episode 8

T: *If you want them to lend you, you use* **Could you could you lend -Could you lend me () Could you lend me a pen please? Do you mind** [+TT] **lending** *followed by v.*

**ing Do you mind lending me a pen?** *For a request, we don't need to use with only Can.* (2<sup>nd</sup> CO, Araya)

In addition, Pensiri summarised the structures again after the exercise while Janista reviewed the structures of the previous lesson in the current lesson. In the first stimulated- recall interview, Pensiri added, “when speaking, you have to speak correctly. It relates to grammar” (1<sup>st</sup> SI). Obviously, they put an emphasis on explaining grammar explicitly for their students in order to increase their accuracy.

Another important finding was that Wasin and Sakarin were observed giving explanations and instruction on grammar items and structures in Thai in some depth, which was reminiscent of the approach used in the grammar translation method. The following episode shows how Wasin explained grammar using Powerpoint.

Episode 9

*T: If we have enough money, I will what? **I will go to Japan** Can it be true? It might be 50 years, 40 years or 20 years but it can be true. Look. So the structure is **if + simple tense** again, **subject will** again but this time we will not use with **present sim** but the next clause will be what?*

**S: Future**

*T: **Future** We do not use the present simple, but we will change it into ‘**will**’ instead. The structure is **will** +verb 1. (1<sup>st</sup> CO, Wasin)*

In the first classroom observation, Wasin taught the ‘if clause’ from the zero conditional to the third conditional. Throughout his explanation on grammar structures, he also elicited responses from students. This meant his students needed to remember all the grammar structures he had taught in order to answer his questions. In fact, the textbook that he used focused on only the first conditional and the second conditional, but he taught grammar rules elaborately from the zero conditional to the third conditional in a way that went far beyond the content in the textbook. Wasin also reviewed the ‘if clause’ structure and elicited the rules from students at the beginning of the following lesson. Furthermore, he also provided explanations on modal verbs explicitly in the second classroom observation. Interestingly, apart from the exercise in the textbook, he asked the whole class to do the gap fill exercise together through Powerpoint.

Similarly, Sakarin taught grammar items explicitly. Sakarin’s first observation was his first class in the new semester. He reviewed a long list of grammar items including articles, singular and plural nouns, singular and plural pronouns, there is, there are, transitive and intransitive verbs, adjectives and prepositions, which were not in the textbook; the time spent

accounted for 25.25 minutes out of 58 minutes. He said that the grammar items that he brought to review in the class were basic grammar rules that students should know otherwise they might use them incorrectly. The following episode shows how he taught grammar in his actual classroom:

Episode 10

**T: Ah, in the present simple tense, if the subject is singular, we need to plus s after the verb every time. Plus s or es. For example, Yoswarit goes to school every day. Not Yossawit go to school every day. Do you understand? Only Yossawit. Yossawit goes to school every day. You always add -s or -es...**(1<sup>st</sup> CO, Sakarin)

Moreover, Sakarin spent most of the time of the second classroom lesson focusing on teaching the structures of yes-no questions and wh-questions (see Appendix N).

In summary, the data in this study suggests that five out of six participants believed in the essentiality of explicit grammar instruction and placed a high value on grammatical accuracy in speaking. However, without knowledge of spoken grammar, they inevitably focused on teaching written grammar in their speaking classes. This may also be the influence of the grammar translation method, which has long played an important role in English language teaching in Thailand (see Section 2.5.5).

#### ***4.2.1.3 Focus on accuracy over fluency***

As mentioned above, the participants' focus on teaching grammar was closely related to their belief in the primacy of accuracy. The results also indicate that all participants in this study also held a core belief that they should focus on accuracy over fluency. More importantly, four of the participants seemed to hold a self-responsibility belief in increasing their students' accuracy. In fact, the participants lacked awareness of how to improve fluency and lost sight of promoting fluency in the classroom.

As stated previously, all of the participants focused on accuracy over fluency when teaching speaking. For example, Araya stated that she wanted her students to speak accurately before fluently. In an interview, she claimed that "...if students do not speak fluently, I do not tell them to speak quicker or more fluently" (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). In the same vein, Pensiri believed that beginning with accuracy could lead to fluency in the end; she said, "they (accuracy and fluency) go together. If you focus on fluency where they speak incorrectly, it is not good. It must focus on fluency after they speak correctly" (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). Moreover, her belief in promoting fluency practice was not strongly held as she argued that "it is not possible for them to have 100% fluency. For Thai students, if they can speak the whole sentence, it is okay". She added that "the

structure only needed to be completed. Sometimes, they spoke slowly because they could not stress it correctly". The following extract shows how she focused on accuracy. She stated that "I tried to read it for them so they could repeat after me" (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). This implies that Pensiri expected her students to be able to speak with accuracy in terms of both structures and pronunciation, which emphasised her belief in focusing on accuracy over fluency.

Importantly, four of the participants, Wasin, Sakarin, Teerawut and Pensiri, seemed to hold sense of responsibility beliefs in increasing students' accuracy as they felt that they were responsible for student outcomes. Wasin reported that his goal was to help his students to communicate using correct grammar. Similarly, Sakarin stated that "in fact, as an English lecturer, to be able help them to speak accurately and understandably is a good thing" (2<sup>nd</sup> SI). Meanwhile, Teerawut, Pensiri and Sakarin agreed that teachers had a duty to help correct student's mistakes reflecting their belief in providing corrective feedback. For instance, Sakarin felt responsible for helping students to use correct structures; he maintained that "even though they did not want to know the correct form, I wanted to tell them" (2<sup>nd</sup> PI).

As can be seen, the participants believed in providing corrective feedback to their students. Five participants believed in using delayed corrective feedback, whereas Teerawut believed in using 'recast' which referred to providing a correct form to point out mistakes. This indicates that they still believed in promoting students' fluency to some extent. For example, Wasin believed in strategic feedback to promote students' fluency as he believed that he should correct student's pronunciation mistakes after they finished their role play. He shared the same belief as Araya, who claimed that she would correct her student mistakes after they finished their speaking. Moreover, apart from a belief in strategic feedback to promote students' fluency, four participants were also concerned with student anxiety if they were corrected in front of the class. Teerawut explained that he would not correct students' mistakes directly or point out their mistakes in front of other students, but he would use recast or repeat a correct form for his students. It was evident in the following extract that he believed not to correct students' mistakes immediately. He insisted, "I do not tell them No, no, no 'go' is wrong. Please use 'went'. I do not do that. I thought if I were in their shoes, I would not dare to speak" (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). It is worth noting that Teerawut concerned on students' feelings and had attempted not to cause any anxiety for his students while he also focused on correcting their mistakes.

In contrast, during the observations, five participants were observed correcting students' mistakes immediately and even Teerawut corrected students' mistakes immediately and



explicitly. The following episodes are taken from Pensiri, Janista and Teerawut's classroom observations:

#### Episode 11

S1: **What you like me to**  
T: **Would would**  
S1: **Would you like me to coffee in the Starbucks?**  
T: **To what? It should be 'to buy'. You buy it for her.**  
S2: **Yes, please.**  
T: **Would you like me to buy a coffee from Starbucks for you?** (1<sup>st</sup> CO, Pensiri)

#### Episode 12

S: **Can you give bring me the U.S. sale file?**  
T: **Can you What did you say?**  
S: **give**  
T: *Then*  
S: **bring me**  
T: *Why do you say both give and bring? The provided situation is stated that Can err- to bring you the U.S. sale file? -Can you*  
S: **bring the U.S. sale file**  
T: *((Again)) Can you*  
S: **Can you give bring**  
T: *Why did you say give and bring?*  
S: *I see.*  
T: **Can you**  
S: **Can you bring me the U.S. sale file?**  
(1<sup>st</sup> CO, Janista)

It is clear that these participants' belief in the primacy of the accuracy overrode their belief in providing strategic feedback to promote fluency and reducing student anxiety. They corrected their mistakes early to prevent them from using incorrect structures.

Obviously, Teerawut often corrected one of his students' mistakes explicitly and immediately in the third classroom observation, as shown in the following episode.

#### Episode 13

S1: **Turn right on the Station road. Go along on the Station road. The pet shop is unit three- three in the box on the left.**  
T: **Ah. Again, please. Turn right into the Station road. Ok?**  
S1: **Go along the street.**  
T: **Go along the street.**  
S1: **You can past Unit 1 and Unit 2. Pet shop is Unit 3 in the left.**  
T: *Wait. When you turn right, you are here. You still don't cross the road.*  
S1: *I see. I have to cross the road.*  
S2: *Cross the road, too.*  
S1: *I see.*  
T: **Again, please. Turn right into the Station road.**  
S1: **Turn right into the Station road and you pass Unit 1 and Unit 2.**  
T: *You cross the road first.*  
S1: *Cross the road first?*

T: *Yes.*  
(3<sup>rd</sup> CO, Teerawut)

As can be seen, Teerawut often intervened and corrected their mistakes immediately and explicitly while the student was speaking. His reason for guiding the student to say ‘cross the road’ in the map first was because he had not taught them the word ‘in front of’ yet. Therefore, if the student did not say ‘cross the road’, he could not give directions completely without using the phrase ‘in front of’. He tried to control the challenging situation by using explicit corrective feedback to help his students to respond correctly. However, during Araya’s third classroom observation, after her students finished their acting out dialogue, she did not provide them any corrective feedback, arguing that there was simply not enough time.

Additionally, all of the participants except Teerawut believed in correcting students’ dialogue scripts before allowing them to speak, which illustrates their belief in the absolute primacy of accuracy. For example, Wasin reported that he “...recently tried not to allow them to make a lot of mistakes when they perform a role play.” He added that students had to submit their scripts to him as a group “...to be corrected” (1<sup>st</sup> PI). This reflected a behaviourist view that sees errors as a bad habit and mainly focuses on accuracy and tries to get rid of mistakes immediately, which could be considered part of the audiolingual method (see Section 2.5.5.1).

During the observations, four participants, Pensiri, Sakarin, Araya and Janista, corrected the students’ dialogue scripts before allowing them to speak, reflecting a focus on accuracy over fluency. It is worth noting that Pensiri used a cued dialogue, which is a technique that encourages students to interact with others based on “a series of cues” (Littlewood, 1981, p. 14) to help her students to practise a telephone conversation. However, she asked her students to write down a dialogue script and submit it to her for correction before allowing only the groups that did it accurately to read it aloud in front of the class while she provided them with corrective feedback on their pronunciation. It is noteworthy that she lost sight of the value of the cued dialogue technique that promoted spontaneous conversation.

Similarly, Janista, Araya, Wasin and Sakarin assigned written their dialogue scripts before speaking. They monitored students closely and provided corrective feedback. However, as noticed, only Wasin did not correct student dialogue scripts before allowing them to speak as he ran out of time for correcting their mistakes.

It is important to highlight that the participants’ limited knowledge of how to promote fluency restricted their beliefs in increasing students’ fluency. Wasin remarked that “out of 100%”, his students “...should achieve about 70-80 % of fluency” (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). Surprisingly, Wasin clearly believed that accuracy was a component of fluency as shown in the following extract:

It [fluency] means that speaking with flowing speech with a 100 percent grammatical accuracy. The speed for speaking is similar to NES. I thought that it is not really necessary for students to achieve that level. I just want them to be able to communicate with correct grammar. That is enough. (2<sup>nd</sup>PI, Wasin)

In this study, the definition of fluency was ‘an ability to speak with flowing and natural speech coherently with slight and reasonable pauses’ (see Section 2.5.1), which does not involve accuracy. What Wasin said indicates that he did not understand the accuracy-fluency continuum that has long been a standard concept in ELT. However, Wasin tended to view fluency in a broader sense and not in a more technical sense that focuses on the speakers’ ability to speak with flowing and natural speech (see Section 2.5.1).

The rest of the participants seemed not to be aware of how to promote student fluency. For example, Sakarin said, “for speaking, I would say ‘without relying on the notes.’ I do not want them to look at the note because I want them to practise their fluency” (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). It is noteworthy that his way to improve students’ fluency was memorising a script. This technique is part of the audiolingual method in which students memorises a dialogue that they can repeat fluently; however, that does not mean that they are fluent in real-life language use outside the classroom. Therefore, his statement does not reflect an understanding of how to improve student fluency; he should provide students opportunities with to try out their language skills freely. Apart from this, it appears that Sakarin’s belief in focusing on fluency was limited as he could not express how he would improve student fluency in depth, which was likely due to a lack of adequate trainings.

The current study found that all teachers seemed to focus on accuracy over fluency. It is worth pointing out that they did not pay particular attention to student fluency because they believed that the time allocated in the classroom was not enough to train their students to speak fluently. Three out of six teachers (Sakarin, Araya and Janista) believed that students also needed to practise by themselves. For example, Araya said that her students need more time to practice and the class assignments might not be enough for them to speak fluently. Perhaps, due to the impact of the exam and time constraints, these participants paid more attention to accuracy than fluency in the classroom and let students improve their fluency outside the classroom.

#### ***4.2.1.4 The role of complexity in speaking***

Apart from accuracy and fluency, complexity has been more recently introduced as one of the main aspects of promoting speaking skills, especially with the use of task-based learning. This is because complexity can also measure the improvement of second language acquisition. Complexity in this study refers to the speaker who can accurately produce speech with a wide range of complex language structures (see Section 2.5.1). However, in this study, the belief that in speaking, complex grammar structures are not required seemed to be shared by all the participants except Sakarin.

First, Pensiri commented, “in writing, the structure is more complex than that in speaking.” For speaking, she taught students to construct “...simple sentences” (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). Similarly, for Wasin, the complex sentence was not necessary; he said “...because we can separate it into two sentences when speaking” (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). Wasin added:

We do not need to teach complex sentences. We should teach only grammar that is always used in daily life such as tenses and passive voice. We do not need to teach [dependent/independent] clauses. But for ‘the if clause’ that we often teach is okay. (2<sup>nd</sup> PI, Wasin)

Like Pensiri and Wasin, Teerawut agreed that when speaking English in real life, complex sentences are rarely used, as shown in the following extract.

Actually, when talking about complex sentences. It was difficult to listen to. I told my students to split the sentence into simple sentences because the brain of the listener does not need to pay much attention to the speaker’s message. For example, Look at the red car. I told them to say ‘Look at the car. It is red.’ to help the students to have time to understand. (2<sup>nd</sup> PI, Teerawut)

This implies that he was aware of communicative strategies involved in teaching learners to paraphrase and repeat to help get messages across and achieve communication. This belief was supported by Janista and Araya who believed that teaching complex sentences might confused students. The participants believed that using simple sentences could help get meaning across easily. When asked again, Pensiri explained that for communication, we needed to make ourselves understood quickly. Although some of the participants realised that simple sentences should be used when speaking, none of them explicitly stated their awareness of this lack of complexity as a feature of spoken grammar. On the other hand, Sakarin believed that it is necessary to teach complexity to students because learning only easy structures might not help

students with their learning. He seemed to focus on teaching the grammar system, but not on teaching speaking as a skill to achieve communication.

The findings above indicate that most participants in the study did not consider complexity to be an important factor in developing speaking skills. This might be due to the curriculum they were using which focuses on having conversations in everyday life rather than planned speeches or presentations where language needs to be more formal with more complex sentences. As observed, all of the participants primarily focused on simple sentences except Sakarin and Wasin who taught complex structures, for example, indirect questions and the ‘if clause’ as they were a part of the content in the textbook. During the first classroom observation, Wasin was observed teaching the ‘if clause’ as it was in the textbook, and he corrected his students use of complex sentences, as shown in the following episode:

Episode 14

**S: If your friend asked you to lend them a lot of money, what would you do?**

**T: What would you do?**

**S: I don’t have money.**

**T: I would talk to my friend that I don’t have money. (1<sup>st</sup> OC, Wasin)**

In this episode, Wasin explained that he wanted his student to clarify her response and use a correct structure. Therefore, he revised her sentence by using a complex sentence to focus on accuracy. This revealed his belief in the value of accuracy and using a complete sentence overrode his belief that complexity was not important for speaking. More importantly, it was evident that he lacked knowledge of spoken grammar as he corrected his students to use a written grammar structure for speaking.

#### **4.2.2 Beliefs and practices relating to the role of vocabulary in teaching speaking skills**

Vocabulary knowledge is critically relevant to an ability to speak English well. Speakers need a sufficient knowledge of vocabulary in order to produce speech. Speakers with a larger amount of vocabulary seem to be able to speak better than speakers with a lower amount of it (see Section 2.5.3). All the participants in this study believed that vocabulary played an important role in teaching speaking. Sakarin, for example, emphasised the importance of vocabulary stating that it is “is the heart of speaking” (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). Wasin, likewise, stated that he saw vocabulary as “the most important requirement”, explaining that “If students do not know the vocabulary, they cannot express what they want” (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). It is clear that these teachers believed in the necessity of a large vocabulary base in order to be able to produce language for

communication. Their belief in the value of vocabulary for speaking skills was reflected in their beliefs regarding teaching vocabulary for speaking which is discussed in the following section.

#### ***4.2.2.1 Reliance on translation for meaning of vocabulary***

According to the literature, there are important vocabulary teaching techniques, such as semantic mapping, word families or teaching the important vocabulary for speaking, for example, back channeling, coping strategies for production, such as using vague language (see Section 2.4.2), that help speakers to speak more effectively. Although, in this study, all teachers were aware of the importance of vocabulary in teaching speaking, the data shows that they all, to some extent, used a restricted range of teaching techniques and had a limited awareness of how to teach it.

Two of the participants, Araya and Teerawut, stated clearly that they did not know much about teaching vocabulary for speaking skills. They simply provided a meaning through translation. For example, Araya confessed that she "... just told them the meaning," as she "did not have any other techniques" (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). This was possibly due to their lack of opportunity to attend continuing professional trainings or workshops regarding teaching vocabulary for speaking. Importantly, their belief in the efficacy of a translation to establish meaning was a core belief and appeared to be stable despite their lack of knowledge of vocabulary teaching techniques.

More interestingly, the findings show that the remainder of the participants, Pensiri, Wasin, Sakarin and Janista, also shared the same belief in defining vocabulary through translation. For instance, Pensiri remarked that she thought it was "... okay to give a meaning through translation" (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). Likewise, Wasin said "I will teach them the vocabulary by giving a translation, but before I translate it for them, I will ask them to translate it first" (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). Sakarin and Pensiri added that they used translation to define some words that were difficult to explain. For them, using translation was practical for teaching vocabulary because students could understand the meaning immediately.

During the observations, all the participants translated the meaning of the vocabulary through translation as seen in the following extracts:

Episode 15

**T: I'm sorry I have got wrong extension. You see 'extension' [+TT]** (2<sup>nd</sup> CO, Pensiri)

Episode 16

**T: That is fee which is [+TT]....** (3<sup>rd</sup> CO, Wasin)

Episode 17

T: *There was a guy asking **Where's that hole-punch? Hole-punch** [+TT] (2<sup>nd</sup> CO, Araya)*

Episode 18

T: *There is the difference between **complain** and **explain**. Someone misunderstood that **complain** means **explain**. ((The teacher wrote complain and explain on the board.))*

Explain [+TT] ... (3<sup>rd</sup> CO, Janista)

[Key: [+TT] = Teacher's translation]

Janista tried to explain the difference between two words 'complain and explain' by using translation because it was easier. This method reflects a teacher-centred approach. The data confirmed that the belief in defining the vocabulary through translation was a core belief for all the participants and was greatly evident in their practices.

#### ***4.2.2.2 Varied beliefs in teaching vocabulary for speaking***

Apart from defining the vocabulary through translation, the participants also had varied beliefs in teaching vocabulary for speaking, including a belief in using elicitation to get students involved in learning vocabulary, which, in fact, seemed to be based on a misunderstanding of the technique. Other beliefs included the importance of understanding vocabulary in context, building vocabulary by providing input on lexical relations between words, that learning vocabulary was about more than a word, using technology for teaching vocabulary, for example, Kahoot, and that vocabulary was effectively learned by linking the classroom to the real world, for example, through news media. It is worth noting that some of their practices that were observed were not discussed in the pre-interviews, so they could be described as unconscious beliefs.

Wasin and Janista believed in using elicitation to get students involved in learning vocabulary before providing them with a translation. During the observations, apart from Wasin and Janista, all participants to some extent asked the meaning of vocabulary from students as seen in the following examples:

Episode 19

T: *First, what does **bank manager** mean?*

(Class): [+TT]

T: [+TT] *Second What is '**Paramedie**'? '**Paramedie**'*

S: [+TT]

T: [+TT] *Next, '**Journalist**'*

(Class): [+TT] (3<sup>rd</sup> CO, Wasin)

## Episode 20

T: **Abdul prays.** *What does pray means? Does he play?*

(Class): *No*

T: (0.4) [+TT] **prays** (1<sup>st</sup> CO, Sakarin)

## Episode 21

T: **You stranger. Strange Stranger Stranger What does stranger mean?** (0.3) **What**

**does strange mean?** (0.2) [+TT] **What does stranger mean?** (0.3) [+TT] (3<sup>rd</sup> CO,

Teerawut)

[Key: (0.0) = The number of seconds for a pause]

Apart from Wasin and Janista, the rest of participants made some attempt to get their students involved in vocabulary learning. This involvement could have been beneficial for developing speaking such as increasing students' talk time. However, in Wasin's and Janista's case, this involvement was not helpful for developing speaking since mostly questions asked by the teachers did not follow up by responding to students' answers. Students were observed to be very passive in responding in their L1 showing that they understood the translated meaning of an English word, but it did not involve speaking skills. As observed, Teerawut and Sakarin tried to elicit the meaning from students by taking a very short 'wait time' before providing the meaning. Although their questions seemed to be elicitation, in reality, they were not because students were given no time to think and respond. The teachers' belief in using an elicitation approach may not be completely in line with the technique as it is understood in the literature.

Interestingly, only Sakarin reported that "we might explain vocabulary to them simply by using basic words not academic words to define vocabulary." He added that he "would provide them with sentences in the context to see a clear picture" (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). This was based on his belief regarding understanding vocabulary in context. As observed, he explained to students the word 'flat' by using a simple definition, as shown in the following:

## Episode 22

T: ... *What does flat mean? You live in a flat. What does flat mean? It's kind of accommodation, right? Not a house, like an apartment. It's like one room or two rooms inside.* (2<sup>nd</sup> OC, Sakarin)

Interestingly, without stating it explicitly in the pre-interviews, Janista, Araya and Wasin also provided definitions in English before translating them from English into Thai. Araya, for instance, explained that "some students might understand the meaning of the vocabulary in English" (3<sup>rd</sup> SI). In this case, one might conclude that the term 'students' referred



to strong students in her class. Araya tried to accommodate students with different levels of proficiency. Additionally, she did not mention it during the pre-interviews, Pensiri also provided example sentences for her students, as shown in the following:

Episode 23

**T: Poetry right? Poetry like Suntorn Phu. Suntorn Phu. ((Thai famous poetry)), He is good at writing poetry. Right?** (3<sup>rd</sup> CO, Pensiri)

Furthermore, the findings show that Pensiri and Janista believed that building vocabulary knowledge required providing input on the lexical relations between words. Janista reported that she needed to raise students' awareness of different meanings of the word in different contexts. Pensiri also believed in providing the meaning of vocabulary through synonyms; saying, "for instance, the word that means 'not free', you can use engage, tie up or busy." She concluded that she "...would provide a synonym for them" (2<sup>nd</sup> PI).

During the observation, Janista explained the different meanings of a word in different contexts while she monitored her students searching for the word 'course' in the dictionary. On the other hand, Pensiri often provided the meaning of the vocabulary through using synonyms, as illustrated in the following episodes respectively:

Episode 24

**T: ... 'Yes, of course.'** *The word 'course' does not mean a program. You can use Yes, of course. It does not relate to a program. ... The meaning of the word 'course' depends on the context as well.* (1<sup>st</sup> CO, Janista)

Episode 25

**T: Awesome. You see? Awesome means wonderful, excellent.** (3<sup>rd</sup> CO, Pensiri)

Teerawut and Janista also provided a synonym to define the meaning of the vocabulary, even though they did not address this in the pre-interviews. Surprisingly, only Pensiri believed that vocabulary was about more than words. She remarked, "we can learn the vocabulary through remembering the whole expressions and phrases to learn vocabulary naturally... We do not remember only an individual word" (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). During the observations, she asked students to drill expressions and phrases from both the textbook and video clips. She assumed that her students would learn the new vocabulary through the sentences. However, in terms of lexical chunks, Wasin and Sakarin were observed teaching collocations without mentioning this in the pre-interviews. The textbook was influential on Wasin's teaching of collocation, whereas Sakarin taught collocations for sports vocabulary, for example, go jogging, play basketball and do gymnastics. The observations provided evidence that they were aware of importance of

collocation; however, all of the participants seemed to be less consciously aware of what they did in the classroom, revealing that these beliefs were their unconscious belief.

Two teachers, Wasin and Sakarin, believed in using technology, that is, an online game, Kahoot, for teaching vocabulary. Wasin said, “Kahoot is a game that can be used with vocabulary very well” (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). During the observations, Wasin and Sakarin used Kahoot, but some students could not access the internet and could not participate, showing that contextual factors can affect teachers’ practices.

In the observation of his second lesson, Wasin used the Kahoot for presenting the new vocabulary as a warm up activity. The following episode illustrates how Wasin used this game by asking students to match the vocabulary with the pictures:

Episode 26

**T: Ok. Next, the same question, match the picture with the vocab again. 321 Hurry up. Time up. You have to answer. How do you call this?**

(Class): **Luggage**

T: *Read together.* **Luggage**

(Class): **Luggage**

T: **Luggage**

(Class): **Luggage**

T: **The first one carry-on** *What is it?* **carry-on [+TT] container** *Do you know container? Then bag [+TT] ...* (2<sup>nd</sup> CO, Wasin)

Only Janista made explicit her belief that vocabulary was effectively learned by linking the classroom to the real world through, for example, news reports, she said, “When I hear the news, I will talk about it with students. Sometimes, I get some vocabulary out of the textbook, such as the phrase ‘die at the scene’ I just knew its meaning” (1<sup>st</sup> PI). One example that is related to news that Janista simply used the items that was in the news at that time. It was evident that she wanted to bring the real world into the classroom; unfortunately, it seemed that it was not the kind of item that interested the students.

Another important finding is that all the participants seemed to focus on teaching vocabulary for receptive knowledge rather than productive knowledge by providing a meaning for a word, but not encouraging students to utilise the word. For example, Wasin asked students to simply complete vocabulary exercises in the textbook, such as matching vocabulary with its meaning, but he did not provide opportunities for students to recycle the lexical items by using them in any of the speaking activities provided in the textbook (see Figure 3.7). He seemed to provide the decontextualised vocabulary learning as an input while he focused on teaching the

meaning of the lexis. Similarly, Sakarin provided a list of vocabulary for his students; however, he did not ask them to use the vocabulary with any activities afterward.

To summarise, the core belief of all the participants in this study seemed to be defining the vocabulary through translation. While such techniques can save time and provide clear meanings, it can interfere with the development of their speaking skills as they might always translate it from L1 into L2 when speaking. Additionally, they held varied beliefs in teaching vocabulary that seemed to promote receptive knowledge rather than productive knowledge.

### **4.2.3 Beliefs and practices in relation to pronunciation**

An important debate continues in Thailand regarding the adoption of English as a lingua franca model in preference to NES models (see Section 2.5.4). While some scholars have supported the use of English as a lingua franca where English is not the mother tongue, other studies have revealed that for the Thai EFL context, conforming to NES models is still the preference of teachers and students (see Section 2.5.4). More importantly, in 2015, Thailand became a part of the ASEAN community which implies an increasing use of English as a lingua franca among the ten countries in that community. However, there have been few studies investigating Thai EFL university teachers' beliefs and practices regarding this issue, and this study adds to that literature. Participants' beliefs in teaching pronunciation, including their lack of awareness of English as a lingua franca and their continued focus on NES models and intelligibility as their goal for teaching pronunciation are discussed in the following section.

#### ***4.2.3.1 LFC is not suitable as a model***

Interestingly, when asked directly about their knowledge of the lingua franca core (LFC), only Pensiri had heard about it in an article that she just read. The remainder of the participants professed to not to be aware of the existence of the LFC concept. The participants were then presented with an example of the LFC, focusing on using all consonants of NES except /θ /and /ð / sounds and focusing less on word stress, intonation and final constant clusters. All of these are non-core features because they do not interfere with intelligibility. All the teachers except Janista argued against the use of this core for teaching their students' pronunciation. Sakarin was the strongest anti-LFC whereas the others argued against the LFC to some extent. While Araya accepted her students' pronunciation problems, she insisted on her role to help improve their pronunciation, Pensiri accepted the intelligibility argument, but saw problems with it. As observed, all of the participants focused on non-core features of the LFC as discussed in the next section.

All teachers said that ASEAN varieties of English should be introduced in the classroom, but it could not yet be a pronunciation model for their students. Pensiri explained that “...sometimes when compared to Malaysian or Filipino... Thais who can speak English very well can speak closer to a NES-like pronunciation ...” (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). This demonstrated that Pensiri’s strong belief in conforming to NES models made her compare ASEAN varieties of English with native English speaker models. Thus, Pensiri clearly valued the NES models higher than ASEAN varieties. The rest of the participants shared the same belief that understanding ASEAN models was desirable but not at the expense of producing anything other than the NES models.

Sakarín said:

I should let them listen to other models...but we should follow NES models, but I do not mean that Filipino or Malaysian accents are wrong. But they just adapt it from their own accents which sometimes, they still mispronounce words, but it is comprehensible. (2<sup>nd</sup> PI)

Janista added:

We should use our own accent, but they should listen to other accents. I mean they can follow NES models if they can do it. But if they cannot do that, they just have their own style. They should not pronounce something beyond NES models. It was not something that we should follow. (2<sup>nd</sup> PI)

Although Janista was the only one who did not argue against the LFC, she did not want her students to follow other ASEAN varieties as a model for their pronunciation. This was clear that ASEAN varieties of English was not their goal for teaching students’ pronunciation. During the observations, only Sakarín was seen presenting varieties of English including ASEAN, for example, Singaporean English and Malaysian English. During the stimulated-recall interviews, other participants provided their reasons for not introducing ASEAN varieties of English. For example, Pensiri cited time constraints, and Teerawut claimed that his students lacked interest in studying causing him not to teach them any other models. Wasin argued that he focused on NES models first, which implies that this belief was likely to be peripheral belief since it was not observed in their classroom.

#### ***4.2.3.2 Dominance of NES models***

As mentioned in Section 2.6.4, recent research provides evidence that Thai teachers may still have a preference for NES models (British and American). Similarly, the analysis here indicates that, the majority of the participants including Pensiri, Wasin, Sakarín and Teerawut, strongly believed in conforming to NES models (British and American). Furthermore, the results show

that for Pensiri and Wasin conforming to NES models represented a core belief, but in fact, it also connected to their self-efficacy beliefs.

The two of the teachers, Pensiri and Wasin, had a high regard for their own pronunciation and a degree of confidence in their ability to follow NES models. They stated that they were satisfied with the accuracy of their pronunciation in relation to NES models. Their beliefs in conforming to NES models can be considered as a self-efficacy belief, which means that they had confidence in their own capacity, and this tended to influence their teaching (see Section 2.6.6.1). Pensiri described her pronunciation as "... correct" (2<sup>nd</sup> PI), and Wasin stated that he was satisfied with his pronunciation to some extent.

It is very possibly that a belief in conforming to NES models was a core belief for Pensiri and Wasin. Further evidence was in their claims. Pensiri stated that "mostly, it [pronunciation] should follow NES models. They pronounced the sounds clearly ... easy to understand" (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). This revealed that Pensiri believed that NES models provided a clear pronunciation which promotes intelligibility, and pronouncing words correctly seemed to be her goal. Her belief in conforming to NES models was reflected in her desire for the department to hire native English speakers to teach students to speak. In the same vein, Wasin stated that his goal in teaching speaking was to make sure his students were familiar with NES models. He claimed that "English originally came from both countries," so he tried "... to present the models as much as possible". He insisted that "we have to follow these models" (2<sup>nd</sup> PI) and maintained that his own pronunciation should be a role model for his students: "It should start from me. I should be a role model for them first" (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). This demonstrates his strong belief in conforming to NES models and reflects his self- efficacy beliefs in his pronunciation which was influential on his practices.

Teerawut also valued the NES models, as shown in the following extract.

...I believe that everyone who studies English wants to have native-like pronunciation in L2. However, with the limitation in terms of region and race, it interferes with their native - like accent. ...However, it would be better if teachers have a potential to teach them to reach a native-like pronunciation. (2<sup>nd</sup> PI, Teerawut)

Despite the limitations of the EFL context, Teerawut believed that his students should follow NES models, saying that "students should conform to NES models to some extent. It should not make NES confused" (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). Sakarin agreed that "we should follow NES models" (2<sup>nd</sup> PI) showing his belief regarding conforming to NES models.

During the observations, three participants, Pensiri, Wasin, and Teerawut, used NES videos clips or audios (British and American) as a model for their students in the classroom using choral drills or individual drills following the clips or audios (see Appendix N). Pensiri opened the video clip for students and asked them to focus on how sounds were stressed, as shown in the following extract.

Episode 27

((The teacher opened the clip.))

(Class): **'Kate is sick.' 'That's too bad.'**

T: **'That's too BAD.'**

(Class): **'Em... How about going to see her? That's a good idea. What time shall we meet? How about at two? Sounds good. Let's meet at the bus stop. Ok. See you then.'**

T: *See?* **'SEE you then.'**

(Class): **'I'm Okay. Now. I can go to school on Monday. Good. Here's an apple pie I made it for you. Thanks. I like apple pie.'**

T: **'I LIKE apple PIE' ((Laughing)). So, there is one more for you. Ah you see again. Some more examples. This one too. There is a karaoke at the end so let's see what they pronounce.** (2<sup>nd</sup> CO, Pensiri)

Apart from focusing on stress, Pensiri asked some representatives to imitate a dialogue of each character in the video clips in front of the class. Native speaker dialogues were also used by Pensiri, and suprasegmental and connected speech were given a clear focus, as shown in the following episode:

Episode 28

T: **...Sometimes, when you speak you can reduce sound 'Would you' 'Wudja liketa' 'Would you like to' right? you see?...**(3<sup>rd</sup> CO, Pensiri)

The beliefs of Pensiri, Wasin, Teerawut and Sakarin regarding conforming to NES models was reflected in their belief that having a strong Thai accent might interfere with intelligibility among native English speakers. For example, Wasin believed that using a Thai accent might be understood only in the ASEAN community. Teerawut said that "Tinglish is an accent that native English speakers hardly understand" (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). These teachers paid great attention to native English speakers when they discussed intelligibility.

Wasin made a negative comment to the student who had a Thai accent, in the following episode:

Episode 29

T: *You have got a very strong Thai accent. You need to listen a lot and imitate people who follow the NES model...*(2<sup>nd</sup> CO, Wasin)

Wasin has a strong core belief in conforming to NES models which were transferred into his practices trying to improve his students to have their pronunciation closer to NES models.

As mentioned previously, non-core features in the LFC do not include certain suprasegmental aspects, for example, intonation and stress and segmental aspects, for example, [θ] and [ð] (see Section 2.5.4). Interestingly, all the participants' belief in following NES models was also reflected in their focus on non-core features in the LFC, for example, intonation and stress and the key feature in NES models, for example, final sounds, as shown in the following examples.

Some questions need to have a rising or falling intonation. For example, some students pronounce what is your name? with rising intonation all the time. But, it should have been falling intonation. (2<sup>nd</sup> PI, Wasin)

They should stress it correctly. For example, one student said I come from Thailand. ((no stress)) Then, I told her 'THAIland'. I let her speak. Sometimes, you need to act like a NES. (2<sup>nd</sup> PI, Pensiri)

I focus on final sound first because some students do not pronounce the final sound such as -s. I have to listen to it again to understand what word they speak. (2<sup>nd</sup> PI, Wasin)

The above extracts indicate a range of segmental and suprasegmental issues that the teachers tended to focus on showing their beliefs in conforming to NES models. Interestingly, Teerawut said he would often correct students' intonation mistakes, saying that he "... thought that Thais do not dare use rising intonation because in Thai, using rising intonation makes the meaning of the word change. ...But in English the meaning of the word does not change" (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). This demonstrates that Teerawut lacked awareness that in English, although intonation is not relevant to the meaning of the word, intonation can convey the speakers' feeling and attitude.

During the observations, Pensiri, Wasin, Sakarin and Teerawut focused on intonation while teaching pronunciation. The following is taken from Wasin's classroom observation.

Episode 30

*T: ...**What's your name!** not **What's your name?** Mostly, it is a falling intonation. Next, when the sentence started with '**Can**' and '**Could**' Do you think we should end the sentence with rising or falling intonation?*

*(Class): Rising*

*T: As far as we listened to it, can you hear that it is a rising intonation. Mostly, it is a rising intonation. But if you ask me if rising and falling intonation cause the miscommunication, I do not think it does. We just have to pronounce it correctly, but it is comprehensible. (2<sup>nd</sup> CO, Wasin)*

From the extract above, similar to Teerawut, Wasin was also not aware of the meaning of intonation even though he paid attention to how to use intonation accurately.

Sakarin, Wasin and Pensiri professed to believe in the importance of teaching word stress. The observations provided evidence that they did this. This example from Sakarin illustrates the type of stress focus:

#### Episode 31

(Class): **Does she come from Italy?**

T: **I'taly.**

(Class): **I'taly.**

T: *It's not Ita'ly. I'taly.* (2<sup>nd</sup> CO, Sakarin)

In addition, four participants focused on the final sound. The following extract from Wasin's observation shows that he focused on the final sound that could interfere with intelligibility.

#### Episode 32

T: **'Is that right?'** ((Pronounced 't' sound.))

(Class): **'Is that right?'** ((Pronounced without 't' sound.))

T: **Right?** ((Pronounced 't' sound.))

(Class): **rice**

T: *It is not rice. It is not rice.* [+TT] **right.** ((Pronounced the 't' sound.))

(Class): **Right.** ((Did not pronounce the 't' sound.))

T: *It ended with the 't' sound.* ((Pronounced the 't' sound at the end)) **right** ((Pronounced 't' sound)) (2<sup>nd</sup> CO, Wasin)

The participants were not observed teaching how to stress and pronounce a final sound explicitly but only corrected students' mistakes. More importantly, in the case of Sakarin's first lesson, he tried to boost students' confidence in speaking English by raising the idea of intelligibility, which is much more related to English as a lingua franca rather than a close approximation to NES models. This seemed to contradict another of his strong beliefs in conforming to NES models as can be seen in the following episode:

#### Episode 33

T: ...**You can use English around the world. And then English is the variety accents. You don't need to imitate like the British accent you- American accent. For example, you go to Singapore, you can say 'a bottle of water'** ((Imitated a Singaporean accent)) **'I need a bottle of water'** ((Imitated a Singaporean accent)) **right? Singaporean accent and then Thai accent 'I want to go to the temple.'** ((Imitated a Thai accent)) **Thai accent. And then Malaysian accent 'I want to take the jeep la'.** (Imitated a Malaysian accent)) **La ending sound of Malaysian people.**



**Ok. You see the difference. Don't worry about the accent. English is the variety, so the key point is comprehensible or understanding. ...**(1<sup>st</sup> CO, Sakarin)

His reason for not conforming to NES models was to “emphasise increasing their confidence to reduce their anxiety to prevent them from losing face. Their friends might laugh at them something like that. But when they were confident to speak, they would not feel embarrassed” (1<sup>st</sup> SI). This was possibly because it was the group’s first lesson and increasing their confidence in speaking was important.

On the other hand, during the observations, it was evident that he followed NES models, especially the US model. He was seen focusing on using an American accent with /ar/ vowel sound in the following episode:

Episode 34

(Class): **Will she buy a new car?**

T: **Car Car Car** ((Emphasised /r/ sound.))

(Class): **Car** ((Emphasised /r/ sound.)) (2<sup>nd</sup> CO, Sakarin)

This suggests that Sakarin held beliefs that are to some extent contradictory between conforming to NES models and pursuing intelligibility as a goal for pronunciation to improve students’ confidence in speaking.

#### ***4.3.3.3 Intelligibility as the goal for teaching pronunciation***

The section above provided details regarding how four of the teachers conformed to NES models. However, two teachers seemed to hold beliefs that were much more connected to the importance of intelligibility. The point is that they were likely to believe in intelligibility based on NES models, such as stress, would be too challenging for their students. Their beliefs connected to the intelligibility concept may reflect their lack of confidence in their student’s ability to master certain aspects of NES models and lack of self-efficacy beliefs. A combination of these factors appeared to be the reasons for their adoption of an intelligibility model.

The findings reveal that Janista and Araya believed in having pronunciation intelligibility as a goal for pronunciation instruction. For example, Janista stressed that “many people want, if possible, to have a native speaker like pronunciation. However, if they cannot do that, to be able to communicate in daily life can be their option” (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). Her goal for teaching pronunciation was intelligibility following NES models to some extent. In the same vein, Araya still believed that using NES clips as a model in the classroom was a good idea. She argued that it depended on them whether they could imitate NES models or not. This shows that her aim for teaching pronunciation might not be a native-like pronunciation.

Moreover, the data reveals that Janista followed NES models to some extent, for example, focusing on intonation in order to enable her students to have a comprehensible pronunciation, as shown in the following extract:

I do not emphasise that they should have a native-like English accent because it is so difficult. I just want them to have a comprehensible pronunciation so that others know what word they pronounce, and I focus on rising and falling intonation. (2<sup>nd</sup> PI, Janista)

Unlike Janista, Araya believed that focusing on intonation caused students' anxiety. This means that she may not highly focus on intonation while teaching pronunciation. However, Janista and Araya shared the same belief that their students were not competent or capable of learning features of pronunciation, that is, stress, because it was too challenging for them. Furthermore, it can be assumed that for them, stress might not interfere with students' intelligibility. During the observations, Araya and Janista were not observed focusing on stress.

In contrast to the other participants, Janista and Araya believed that using a Thai accent was acceptable. This is likely because they considered themselves not having a native-like pronunciation. Janista accepted that her accent was not also a NES-like although her preference model was British. Similarly, Araya emphasised that she had a Thai accent, and she was aware that her pronunciation might not be a model for students. This may imply that Janista and Araya lack self-efficacy beliefs in being a pronunciation model for their students.

During the observations, Janista focused on the sound that interfered with intelligibility as can be seen in the following episode:

Episode 35

T: *Ah. 'Would you like me to drive you to the meeting?' What is your answer, Kongwit?*

S1: **'That's all right.** ((Without the 't' sound.)), **thank - you. I will walk.'**

S2: **'Thank you.'**

T: **'That's all right.** ((With the 't' sound)) *Again, please.* **That's all right.** ((With the 't' sound)) (1<sup>st</sup> CO, Janista)

Janista focused on the final sound to maintain the student's pronunciation intelligibility because the word 'right' without the final sound could interfere with intelligibility. Moreover, Janista was seen to focus on intonation in her practices.

Episode 36

T: ... *We could see that at the end of a request that starts with **would** and **could**, what sound should be at the end? Rising or falling? It is a rising sound. Can you remember what we have just practiced... 'Can you help me?' 'Could you do me a favour?' 'Can*

**I have a cup of coffee?’** *It is similar to making an offer and asking for permission that it ends with the rising intonation at the end of the sentence.* (3<sup>rd</sup>CO, Janista)

On the other hand, Araya did not explicitly point out on students ‘mistakes, but she mainly used recast to correct mistakes in intonation, as shown in the following episode:

Episode 37

**S1: Would you like some money!**

**T: Ah. Would you like some money?**

**S2: Sorry. I don’t have much money.** (1<sup>st</sup> observation, Araya)

[Key: ! = falling intonation; ? = rising intonation]

Without putting pressure on the student, Araya used recast to show the students the correct pronunciation and did not ask students to correct the sentence. This illustrated that her concern that focusing on intonation might cause student anxiety.

To summarise, the majority of the participants believed in conforming to NES models whereas two of them held the belief that intelligibility was their goal for teaching pronunciation, which seems to be based on NES models. Importantly, there was a contradictory belief between Sakarin’s belief in conforming to NES models and intelligibility as the goal for teaching pronunciation.

#### **4.2.4 Beliefs and practices relating to activities and tasks in teaching speaking skills**

Communicative activity is one of the main elements of communicative language teaching (CLT), whereas a task is mainly used in task-based learning (see Section 2.5.5). However, in this study, the findings reveal that when the participants were asked about practice, they discussed various approaches, but most of them showed a lack of awareness or a full understanding of how communicative activities and tasks were necessary in the classroom and they seemed not to hold this in their belief system.

##### ***4.2.4.1 Lack of awareness and minimal use of communicative activities and tasks***

All of the participants believed strongly in the value of role play for improving students speaking skills. Although such activities are a feature of CLT, all of the participants viewed dialogue memorisation as the final stage of role play. The findings reveal a minimal use of true communicative activities and tasks.

All teachers believed in using role play in their speaking class. Sakarin pointed out that “a role play is one of the most effective activities for developing speaking skills” (1<sup>st</sup> PI). Next, Araya claimed that “a role play is an activity that allows them to show their ability the most” (1<sup>st</sup>

PI). All the participants used the term ‘role play’ as dialogue memorisation. For example, Sakarin described how he would use role plays in his class: “for doing role plays in pairs, I ask them to submit me their script, and I correct it for them first before asking them to memorise the correct script” (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). According to the statements above, their ideas are similar to dialogue memorisation in the audiolingual method. In this way, their conversations would not occur spontaneously, with few opportunities to take risks using language freely to achieve communication. At the same time, such memorised dialogues did not force students to use communicative strategies, to negotiate meaning or to use language that was not predictable, all characteristics of activities focusing on fluency in communicative practice (see Section 2.5.5.3).

During the observations, all of the participants except Teerawut asked students to write down their dialogue before speaking (see Appendix N). All but Wasin corrected the scripts before allowing students to use them. Pensiri and Sakarin allowed their students to read aloud a dialogue without memorising it. Pensiri argued that her students might lack ability in memorising a long script showing her lack of confidence in their ability, while Sakarin stated that students ran out of time to memorise all of the script.

Three teachers, Pensiri, Wasin, and Teerawut, still believed in using drilling, a key technique in the audiolingual method. For example, Pensiri remarked that “drilling still works these days, but it should not be overused in every lesson” (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). However, Sakarin and Janista argued that drilling did not promote students’ learning, and Araya believed that drilling does not suit adult students. In practice, Pensiri, Wasin and Teerawut were all observed using drilling (see Appendix N). They asked students to repeat sentences after the model in the video clip. Even though, it was inconsistent with her stated belief, Araya used drilling in the following episode:

Episode 38

T: *Then, let’s practice following the clip.* ((Opened the clip.)) *Let’s try it. I was?*

(Class): **I was wondering**

T: **if you?**

(Class): **if you could do something for me?** ((It was not clear.))

T: ((The teacher imitated the way students pronounced the sentence.)) *Again, please.*

**Again, please. I was**

(Class): **wondering**

T: **if you?**

(Class): **could do something for me?**

T: **I was wondering if you could do something [for me?**

(Class): **[for me?** (1<sup>st</sup> CO, Araya)

Araya's reason for using drilling was the students' low level of English proficiency; she said, "...when I asked them to read, they could not read it. I gave them the patterns, but they still could not read it, so I wanted to improve their confidence no matter if it was correct or not" (1<sup>st</sup> SI).

More importantly, only Wasin and Pensiri stated in the pre-interviews that they believed in using communicative activities in teaching speaking. Wasin, for instance, remarked that what he used in his class "...included the communicative language teaching, drilling and role plays." (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). This shows his attempt to apply CLT in his class. During the observations, Wasin had individual interviews with students by asking them one question; however, he asked students to come in groups of three. Most of the questions that he asked came from the textbook, and students could answer freely as long as they used the 'if- clause', a node in the direction of CLT. Pensiri was observed using a cued dialogue, but she seemed to lose sight of the purpose by providing time for students to compose the script instead of allowing them to use language spontaneously. On the other hand, without stating so in the pre-interview, Teerawut used an information gap activities that asked students to pair with a classmate to practise giving and asking directions from the map showing that Teerawut was not consciously aware of what he did in the class as he did not mention it as a belief during the pre-interviews.

Another interesting point is that while Wasin believed that task-based learning was effective for teaching speaking, three participants, Sakarin, Teerawut and Janista, believed that task-based learning might not suit their students. It is worth noting that Sakarin believed that task-based learning might be more suitable for a science subject, when, in fact, task-based learning can be used in language learning (see Section 2.5.5.4); this may indicate that Sakarin had a limited knowledge of task-based learning.

In his second classroom observation, Wasin assigned his students the task of creating a travel plan in groups without providing any language items. Students could choose any place in the world and provide information about that place, for example, things to do, accommodations and transportation for tourists, to present in the next lesson. However, in his third classroom observation, he rarely corrected students' errors during their presentations. He argued that his students made so many mistakes that correcting them all was impossible. Moreover, while he maintained in the pre-interview that for a presentation, students should just note down some key words in the script because he did not want them to simply read it aloud, in practice, most of his students gave their presentations by just reading their script aloud. He argued that he "... could not control it because it might be difficult for them" (FI). This indicates that he did not make the

connection regarding why they could not do it. In fact, his students mainly had been taught by a teacher-led approach that focused on accuracy through providing extensive controlled practices, memorising and repetition, which meant they were not going to achieve the task without language input and that they would never be able to speak fluently because they never had ample opportunities to practise. This indicates that the difficulties that occurred during this task came from both the teacher and the students.

In the nutshell, the participants' beliefs in using communicative practice were very limited and they seemed to lack an awareness of what communicative activities and tasks were. Moreover, the beliefs in using practice in the traditional approach, for example, drilling and dialogue memorisation, seemed to be a core belief that was resistant to change and were implemented in the classroom.

#### **4.2.5 Beliefs and practices relating to raising intercultural awareness in the speaking class**

As Thailand is now a part of the ASEAN community in which 10 countries in Southeast Asia gather to develop the region, the need to encourage teachers to provide an awareness of different cultures has become increasingly relevant (see Section 2.3.5). Teachers' views and beliefs on teaching other cultures including ASEAN cultures, in relation to NES cultures were investigated in this study in relation to its impact on developing speaking skills in the Thai context.

##### ***4.2.5.1 Focus less on ASEAN cultures***

Although, Thailand is now a part of the ASEAN community, it is worth mentioning that two participants believed that introducing ASEAN cultures to their students was important, whereas the rest of teachers did not think they would raise an awareness of ASEAN cultures.

Only Sakarin and Araya believed that teaching ASEAN cultures was important for students whereas three participants, Pensiri, Teerawut and Janista, confessed their reason for not presenting ASEAN cultures was that they did not know much about ASEAN cultures. During an interview, Wasin remarked that he did not focus on ASEAN, but he focused on American and British cultures. He added that "there is no content relating to ASEAN culture in the textbook..." (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). He made it clear that for him, ASEAN cultures "are not necessary" (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). This may be because the ASEAN community was only recently introduced among Thais; therefore, these teachers might not have formed their beliefs firmly regarding to this aspect. They did not discuss the issue in depth in their interviews.

In their observed classes, neither Sakarin nor Araya focused on ASEAN cultures, citing a lack of ASEAN cultural content in their teaching materials. Sakarin and Araya also added that they focused on the content in the textbook because of the influence of the exam. This was a result of the negative washback that narrows the curriculum. It seems that the textbook and the exam significantly influenced the participants' willingness to teach ASEAN cultures.

#### ***4.2.5.2 Focusing on NES cultures***

Instead of focusing on ASEAN cultures, the data confirmed that all participants believed that teaching the NES norm was important for speaking. For instance, Wasin affirmed that: "... we have to follow the standard norms [British and American] because we cannot understand all cultures throughout the world. So, we have to follow one" (FI). Wasin's strong belief in following NES norms was evident in his claim that "we learn English, so we have to understand native English speakers before non-native English speakers" (FI). This meant that Wasin held strong belief in conforming to NES cultures.

While all participants focused on NES norms, the data reveals that all of them also focused on register. Pensiri, Wasin and Teerawut focused on register in terms of using formal and informal language appropriately depending on situations. For example, Wasin remarked that "students have to speak appropriately. They should know how to address someone when they want to call their name. ... and for offering and making requests, we have to use the right level of words appropriately depending on the contexts" (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). When pressed on the subject, Wasin maintained that he "... would raise the point about politeness, for example, you use 'can' or 'could' or 'would'", and he further reported that he "... would focus on it a lot ... when learning English conversation, they have to use different levels of politeness to suit an interlocutor" (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). While Wasin and Pensiri focused on using language appropriately considering the status of interlocutors, Teerawut believed that the content of the conversational exchange was also important.

During the observations, Pensiri, Wasin and Teerawut focused on presenting different words that could be used in different situations. The following episode is taken from Pensiri's classroom observation.

Episode 39

T: *What do they say?* **'There are several modal verbs we use to make request.'** 'Can' 'Could' *Mostly, we use 'Can' and 'Could' 'Could is more polite than can.'* ((Opened the clip)) **It is more polite if you add 'please'. 'Could and please'.** (1<sup>st</sup> CO, Pensiri)

During the first stimulated-recall interview, Pensiri was asked to comment on her use of video that contained the content about register. She remarked:

The video also focused on formality. It pointed out that this is formal for using Can I...? ... and in the society, we have to concern about status. If you talk to friends, you say 'Hi there' or 'Can I?' But when talking to an adult, sometimes, it needs etiquette. Native English speakers also have formal and informal language. So, we need to use it appropriately.

(1<sup>st</sup> SI, Pensiri)

Importantly, this provides further evidence that Pensiri believed strongly in the importance of teaching that register was as an aspect of NES norms and that students needed to master it to interact appropriately with NES.

The following is taken from Wasin's classroom observation showing his focus on register:

Episode 40

T: ... *Look! Can and Could. If you say 'Can you help me with this? [+TT] It's polite like you are requesting. But What is the politest one? Could?*

(Class): **Could**

T: **Could you help me with this?** *Whether we choose 'can' or 'could', we should consider the person we are talking to, for example, if we are talking to friends, we use 'can', don't we?*

(Class): *Yes.* (2<sup>nd</sup> CO, Wasin)

During one observation, Teerawut not only focused on the use of appropriate language considering the status of the listener but also the content of conversational exchange, as shown in the following episode:

Episode 41

T: **'Could'** *is politer than 'can'. So, we need to consider what we borrow from them whether it is what?*

S: *Formal*

T: *Yes. It's formal. Or, is it too much to request? If it is a very important thing you should use **could** or **I wonder**- I wonder here below. **I was wondering** is used in very formal situation. We just see it in number one. What we request must be a thing that is very important.* (1<sup>st</sup> CO, Teerawut)

Additionally, three other participants, Janista, Araya and Sakarin, also focused on register in their classroom practices. Janista took plenty of time explaining ten expressions for apologising from informal to very formal phrases in the textbook by translating those



expressions into Thai. Likewise, in the following episode, Araya used a video clip made by the BBC focusing on using language appropriately. She clearly focused on NES norms as the video she used was set in an inner circle country:

Episode 42

T: ...((Opened the clip.)) ‘Remember what I said Anna. Just using please to ask someone to do something can sound a little rude.’ *What do they say? Can you remember? just using please It might be what? can sound a little rude.*

S: *It might be rude.*

T: *It might be a bit rude.* ((Opened the clip.)) ‘**Instead of saying ‘Please send me the file’ you could say Could you possibly send me the file?’ Instead of saying Please send me the file. Add What? Could you –Could you possibly send me the file?** (1<sup>st</sup> CO, Araya)

In the above extract, Araya emphasised using language appropriately and politely. She focused on using the word ‘please’ to highlight that students needed to change the command into a polite request and ‘please’ alone does not do this. It is important to note that Sakarin, Janista and Araya did not explicitly state a belief in focusing on register, but their practices in the examples above clearly show this focus and that focusing on register was teachable when they wanted to raise awareness of NES cultures as some participants, for example, Pensiri clearly stated that it was a part of NES cultures.

#### **4.2.6 Beliefs and practices regarding the language used in the speaking class**

While earlier methods, such as the grammar translation method saw L1 use as acceptable in the classroom, later, the direct method and the audiolingual method did not support the use of L1 (see Section 2.5.5). However, current thinking on the use of L1 in the English language classroom suggests that judicious use should be encouraged (Choomthong, 2014; Hall & Cook, 2014; Shin et al., 2019). However, what judicious use means, may clearly differ. In this study, all of the participants still believed that using L1 was necessary for teaching their students in this context.

##### **4.2.6.1 L1 used as a main language in the classroom**

While all participants supported some teaching of speaking using L1, three clearly saw it as a necessity, two supported the balance of L1 and L2 and only one believed in maximising L2 language use in the classroom.

Wasin, Pensiri and Janista believed that using students' first language was important for teaching their students. Wasin stated that he "used Thai a lot to explain grammar structures to students or to explain the directions of the activities" (2<sup>nd</sup> PI) because he was afraid that they would not understand what he wanted them to know. Wasin referred to aspects of his teaching context here but seemed to focus on the lack of ability of his students to understand L2. His belief in using L1 seems to be a core belief because in the final interview, he insisted that using L1 is still effective for Thai EFL students. He maintained that "... for Thai students, using translation is still a part of teaching. Their English level is not good enough to listen to something without being helped by the teacher. ... They need to hear translation from the teacher anyway to help them to understand it better" (FI, Wasin).

This may reflect the fact that Wasin focused on teaching knowledge to help with speaking, rather more than on providing opportunities for his students to communicate in the L2. Similarly, Pensiri and Janista believed that using Thai was still necessary for teaching Thai students. Pensiri commented "in Thailand, a teacher still needs to use Thai."; using only English, "it does not work" (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). Likewise, Janista remarked that if she used only English, she was afraid that "they might not understand" (2<sup>nd</sup> PI) and she added that she believed that it was necessary to use Thai for teaching low level students even though she was aware of its drawbacks.

In the observed classes, Wasin used English in key activities including interviews through questionnaires, an interview between the teacher and students and a discussion for a travel plan but was observed using Thai extensively for instruction. Similarly, as noticed, Janista used only L1 as a medium for instruction. Meanwhile, although Pensiri maximised her use of L2 in class, she code switched from English to Thai from time to time to elicit students' answers; as she put it, she "...wanted them to understand it better" (1<sup>st</sup> SI). This is evidenced in the following episode:

Episode 43

**T: Hum. You can answer sure, yes of course. Ok. If you give it to someone you say here you are. [+TT] Here you are. [+TT] and would you like some more magazine?**

*What function is it? Would you like some more magazine? What function is it?*

**SS: Offer**

**T: It's an Offer, right? Offer right? What's the answer?**

**SS: No thanks.** (1<sup>st</sup> OC, Pensiri)

[Key: Bold= English; Italic= Thai]

Interestingly, Pensiri and Wasin were observed using Thai to introduce elements of humour into their classrooms. Pensiri asserted that when she used Thai “students were more excited” (3<sup>rd</sup> SI) because she made jokes. Additionally, if she used only English, they just listened passively to her. In the same vein, Wasin reported that “using Thai, I could make jokes.” This was because he “...tried to create a fun classroom atmosphere” (3<sup>rd</sup> SI). This illustrates that using Thai seemed to help these teachers to engage their students in learning.

On the other hand, two teachers, Teerawut and Araya, were not as wedded to the use of Thai as the teachers discussed above, and they favoured a more balanced use of English and Thai. In Teerawut’s interview, he reported that “mostly, for giving explanation, I use English first, then I consider it myself that my students might not understand, then I will ask them ‘Do you want me to explain it in Thai? They tend to say ‘yes’ to have a mutual understanding especially when playing games” (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). Teerawut found it necessary to resort to L1 often to translate instructions, so he exposed his learners to English but was not confident that he could communicate the message in English.

In contrast, during the observation, Teerawut used far more Thai than English in the first and second classroom observations, whereas he tried to speak more English in his third observation. In general, he was observed always translating sentences from English into Thai without asking whether students wanted him to do it. This is important, since he seemed to assume that students did not understand his message when communicated in English. In the stimulated-recall interview, Teerawut said he used more Thai than English as showed in the following extract that it was “because if I had spoken English, they could have not understood me. Even I asked them to repeat after me for a simple sentence, they did not do it” (1<sup>st</sup> SI). Here, he made an assumption around his students’ low level of English proficiency that influenced the transfer of his beliefs into practices. Similarly, Araya referred to her students’ lack of ability as her reason for mainly using L1 as a medium for communication

Only one teacher, Sakarin, professed a belief in maximising his use of English in the classroom, as shown in the following extract:

Personally, I really like speaking English with students for a 100 % of the time, but if there is no reaction back from students, it can cause difficulties for me. As teachers, we have to adjust our teaching based on varying contexts, but we have to let them listen a lot because it enhances their learning. (2<sup>nd</sup> PI, Sakarin)

Despite his belief in maximising L2 for teaching, he was also concerned about students' reaction toward his use of L2. However, Sakarin insisted that for teaching grammar, L1 was still necessary for explaining grammar rules. In practice, apart from explaining grammar structures, Sakarin was also observed using L1 quite often for instruction as can be seen in the following extract:

Episode 44

**T: Accounting. Anyone else from other-other major? Anyone else? Are you all accounting?...** *You looked so confused when I speak English. Then, I should speak a local Thai dialect when teaching.*

(Class): ((laughing)) (1<sup>st</sup> CO, Sakarin)

In all stimulated- recall interviews, Sakarin's reasons for using Thai mainly focused on student factors. In the first interview, he reported that he should have used English 100 % of the time but in class, when he used English, his students were not enthusiastic about listening to him. However, in the second interview, his focus was on his students' feelings and reactions. He stated that at the beginning, he used Thai to help them relax. He rarely used English because he saw students' negative reaction and their lack of response. During the third stimulated-recall interview, he also maintained that he should not have spoken Thai, but again justified using L1 citing his students' negative feedback.

This shows that students' negative reaction had a great impact on his use of the first language. Sakarin also had to help his students to complete their task, and that was more important than his intention, based on beliefs, to provide opportunities for his students to be exposed to the target language. Moreover, it was also evident in the third classroom observation that teacher factors caused Sakarin to use L1. Sakarin confessed that he code switched from English to Thai because he could not think of the word 'stick' in English when he wanted to ask students to stick post-it notes on the board. However, such incidents were not common.

Similarly, Wasin was observed using Thai to explain a map. This issue was raised during the stimulated-recall interview. He accepted that for both teacher and students "explaining a map in English was so difficult" (3<sup>rd</sup> SI). Interestingly, the data revealed that factors interfering with their use of the target language in the classroom also came from teachers. However, the problem was only limited isolated incidents observed during the interviews; therefore, I could not draw a strong conclusion that it was due to their deficiency of English speaking that caused them to overuse L1.

To recap, it was evident that participants' beliefs in using L1 were transferred to their practices, whereas it was not observed that the participant who believed in using L2 mainly used the target language in practice. There is some evidence that use of L1 dominated largely due to student factors and a professed priority to engage them using L1, despite beliefs about the value of L2 in the classroom.

#### **4.2.7 Beliefs and practices with respect to affective factors in speaking**

Anxiety is one of the affective factors that has been much discussed in the literature relating to the teaching of speaking. Many students seem to have anxiety while studying foreign languages, and it affects their confidence in speaking (see Section 2.5.7). With an awareness of this fact, it is worth investigating the participants' beliefs and practices relating to student anxiety.

##### ***4.2.7.1 Reducing anxiety to promote speaking***

As mentioned earlier, anxiety has been the focus of many studies relating to language teaching, especially when speaking English. The results of this study show that five participants believed that their students felt anxious in their speaking classrooms. Although Teerawut did not believe that his students experienced anxiety in his class, he was also very aware of creating a friendly atmosphere.

All participants acknowledged that anxiety affects their students' speaking. For example, Janista expressed her belief in the relationship between anxiety and speaking, saying "...students can learn well when they are mentally ready." She clarified that it meant when "they have no worries" (1<sup>st</sup> PI). On the other hand, the reason that Teerawut did not think that his students felt anxiety in his class was evident in his claim that "I do not think they are stressed because I am not a strict teacher" (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). This illustrates that he was aware that being a strict teacher causes anxiety for some students. Similarly, Janista tried not to be a stern teacher. She said that she "...does not want to scold them for making mistakes because they might feel so tense that it can interrupt their learning" (2<sup>nd</sup> PI).

More importantly, all participants shared the similar belief that reducing anxiety was central in teaching speaking. This is related to their beliefs in creating a friendly or relaxed classroom atmosphere for students to reduce their anxiety and increase their confidence. For example, Wasin highlighted that he "tries to create a friendly atmosphere, so it does not cause anxiety in the class" (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). Sakarin agreed that "we have to be friendly with them to reduce the gap between the teacher and students. ... It creates a fun atmosphere for learning" (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). However, Janista accepted that sometimes, it was difficult for her to balance her friendliness

with students because she did not want her students to be so relaxed that they did not study hard. While all teachers believed that a friendly atmosphere was important, one participant was aware of its drawbacks.

As observed, all of the participants were seen creating a relaxed and friendly atmosphere to reduce students' anxiety and increase their confidence. First, Teerawut was observed having an informal chat with students at the beginning of the lesson to establish rapport with them. Furthermore, in the third classroom observation, he assigned students to pair with any partner they wanted while doing the activity. He commented that he "...wanted them not to feel stressed" (3<sup>rd</sup> SI). Moreover, when Teerawut asked all pairs of students to ask and give directions in front of the class, only one pair came out, and he did not force the rest of them to speak. His reason was that "they are adult students. If they were not ready, I did not want to force them, otherwise, they might lose their confidence" (3<sup>rd</sup> SI).

Similarly, Pensiri was observed giving a second chance to a group of students who failed to imitate a conversation in a video clip. She talked at length about that situation: "one of the students who came out in front of the class talked to me privately that she spoke incorrectly. I told her that she spoke well, and her voice was lovely" (2<sup>nd</sup> SI). This is clearly an instance where she gave encouragement to her student to reduce her anxiety and increase her confidence. Similarly, Sakarin was observed creating a friendly classroom atmosphere through using humour, and games as well as talking to students individually to build rapport. He commented that he "... wanted them to have fun because English is already difficult" (1<sup>st</sup> SI). He stated that if he had taught them seriously, it would have been more difficult for them. It was evident that Sakarin focused on creating a fun atmosphere for his students, as shown in the following episodes:

Episode 45

**T: Are you happy to-to learn English today?**

(Class): **Yeah.**

**T: Are you happy?**

(Class): **Yeah.**

**T: 100 percent or 50 percent?**

(Class): **100 percent.** (2<sup>nd</sup> CO, Sakarin)

In the same way, Wasin used many fun activities and teaching materials, such as Kahoot and vocabulary guessing game, a song and a funny video clip. He explained another

reason of using Kahoot that he "...wanted them to have fun and to create a fun atmosphere" (3<sup>rd</sup> SI). Moreover, he was also observed calming students down when they were having difficulty speaking by giving encouragement, as shown in the following episodes.

Episode 46

**T: So, you forgot your dialogue, right?**

**S: Yes. He-he** ((Pointing at her friend.))

**T: Oh. Really. Ok. It's ok. You can come up again.**

**S: Yes.**

**T: You can come again. Okay?** *Give them a big hand. They slightly forgot the script.*

(2<sup>nd</sup> CO, Wasin)

Similarly, Janista was observed helping her students to increase their confidence by teaching individual students who were not confident with their pronunciation. Janista commented on her action that she "... just wanted to help them to pronounce the word that they were not sure of" (3<sup>rd</sup> SI). Additionally, Janista and Araya seemed to monitor students closely to enhance their confidence. Araya commented that "it made them feel more confident to ask questions and express their opinions" (2<sup>nd</sup> SI). Moreover, Janista's belief in reducing students' anxiety was evident in her final interview. She added that she "...tried to make them feel relaxed..." as she "...concerned a lot about this aspect" (FI).

Interestingly, four participants believed that how they provided corrective feedback to students was related to affective factors. Pensiri, Teerawut. Janista and Araya believed that correcting students' mistakes before they had not finished speaking could increase anxiety and affect their confidence. Pensiri agreed that "it makes them lose their confidence and not to be able to continue their speaking" (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). Similarly, Janista remarked that she "... does not correct their mistakes in front of the class" because she felt that "they might feel embarrassed" (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). However, in practice, all the participants were observed correcting students' mistakes immediately as mentioned in Section 4.3.1. This reveals that they were likely to pay more attention to accuracy as they did not wait until students finished their sentences. It is worth pointing out that the belief in the primacy of accuracy is more of a core belief.

To summarise, their belief in reducing anxiety was relevant to their belief in the importance of increasing students' confidence in speaking English and creating a friendly atmosphere in the classroom. The participants transferred their beliefs into practice through fun activities and building rapport with students. However, these beliefs seemed to be a peripheral belief compared to the belief in the primacy of accuracy, especially when the participants provided their students with corrective feedback.

#### 4.2.8 Negative washback

This section presents the study findings regarding negative washback, which is the influence of tests on teachers' teaching (see Section 2.5.9). In this study, negative washback was observed in most of the participants' practices in many aspects regarding their speaking instruction.

First, during the observations, Sakarin focused on teaching grammar rules explicitly, including reviewing several grammar items, and spent the most time teaching grammar structures (see Section 4.2.1). He said in the final interview that he focused on grammar rules because it would be tested on the written exam, which constitutes negative washback. Similarly, the impact of negative washback also influenced Teerawut's focus on accuracy. In the second pre-interview, Teerawut said, "I focused on the content in the textbook and focused more on accuracy over fluency". He added that his focus on accuracy was influenced by the exam, and under time constraints to finish the same content as others who taught the same course, accuracy was his priority.

Wasin's practice was also influenced by negative washback. He provided the decontextualised vocabulary learning as an input because it would be in the written exam. He accepted that "...I choose the vocabulary in that part to put in the exam" (3<sup>rd</sup> SI). He added in the final interview that he did not teach the content that would not be tested. Moreover, Wasin pointed out that his reason focusing on complex structures, that is, 'if clauses', was that such structures would be tested in the summative exam.

Additionally, during the interviews, Araya and Wasin explained their use of L1 in the classroom was also because of negative washback.

Araya explained:

It was because most of the students in this group did not understand when I used only English. They might not understand it, so they can not apply it when they take the exam. I want them to understand the lesson as much as possible. (2<sup>nd</sup> SI, Araya)

Therefore, not only was it the students' low level of English proficiency that made the participants use L1, but this was also a 'washback' effect from the exam which was also referred to by Wasin:

Surely, the exam is important. I am afraid that my students might fail the exam. ... They should not fail this subject, so I used Thai. I try to translate it for them. I am used to translation because it saves time, and everyone can understand it. Everything I taught was influenced by the exam. (FI, Wasin)



Wasin expressed his focus on the exam as the main reason for his use of translation. This illustrates that both Wasin and Araya were likely to teach to the test rather than to expose students to the target language.

In brief, the participants were influenced by the format of the test causing them to focus on teaching grammar, accuracy, and decontextualised vocabulary learning, and use of L1 as a medium for teaching. This is quite clearly interfered with their focus on improving their students' speaking skills.

### **4.3 Sources Forming Thai EFL Teachers' Beliefs in Relation to Teaching Speaking Skills**

As shown in Section 2.7.5, sources of beliefs are influential in the formation of teachers' beliefs. This section presents the findings regarding the key sources shaping teachers' beliefs in relation to speaking instruction, thus providing answers to the third research question "what are the sources forming Thai EFL university teachers' beliefs in relation to teaching speaking skills?". Interview data reveals the various sources forming teachers' beliefs including those found in the literature including experiences as learners, teaching experiences, their teacher education programmes, and continuing professional development.

#### **4.3.1 Experiences as learners**

The data reflects that experiences as learners were the most influential source forming teachers' beliefs in various aspects of speaking instruction and that these beliefs are consistent with traditional approaches to teaching speaking skills. This includes the essentiality of grammar instruction, a focus on accuracy over fluency, defining the vocabulary through translation, using drilling and dialogue memorisation and believing in the necessity of using L1 when teaching. In addition, the participants' beliefs in conforming to NES models and reducing student anxiety were mainly related to this source.

As stated previously, all of the participants believed in the essentiality of grammar instruction to promote speaking with a high level of accuracy. According to the pre-interviews, this belief was primarily shaped through their experiences as learners reflecting the way they had learned English mainly through the grammar translation method. The following extract demonstrates how Pensiri was taught grammar when she was a student:

When I was a student, I felt that I did not have a lot of chance to speak. But I knew how the structures were formed in order to speak. I was good at remembering grammar rules (1<sup>st</sup> PI, Pensiri).

Thus, her own learning experience seemed to relate to her stated beliefs that remembering grammar structures enabled students to speak correctly, which is a classic element in the grammar translation method. Similarly, Janista revealed that as a high school student, most of her teachers focused on grammar in English classes; she added that “there were no speaking classes and NES teachers at that time” (1<sup>st</sup> PI). When pressed to elaborate, she added that she was “... taught by teachers who mainly used the grammar translation method” (1<sup>st</sup> PI). The other four participants clearly stated that throughout school, their teachers focused on teaching grammar in English courses. Their experiences of observing their teachers putting an emphasis on grammar instruction through traditional methods seemed to be the basis for their beliefs in the essentiality of grammar even when teaching speaking skills. Perhaps, one result of being taught by the grammar translation method, focusing principally on written texts, was that it led to participants’ beliefs that there was little or no difference between grammar for writing and grammar for speaking (see Section 4.2.1.1).

There is much evidence from their pre-interviews to indicate the way the participants’ positive and negative experiences as learners shaped their belief in the importance of explicit grammar instruction. For example, Wasin remarked that while studying in secondary school, he did not like to learn English because his teacher just explained grammar rules without engaging students in any activities. On the other hand, while he was studying in college, his teacher did not explain grammar rules at all, but just asked students to remember a dialogue to speak. Therefore, he did not know how to construct sentences, which claimed to be the reason for failing the exam. He spoke at length about his experience with one particular teacher:

My experience was that without teaching grammar structures, it did not work. I want to do something good for my students. (1<sup>st</sup> PI, Wasin)

His negative experience as a learner, when grammar was not central in the classroom, seemed to shape his belief that explicit grammar instruction in speaking courses was necessary. Similarly, Sakarin was taught in high school by teachers who relied heavily on explanations of grammar rules with students; he said,

Students did not have any opportunities to express their opinion.... We just noted down the grammar rules... nothing else (1<sup>st</sup> PI).

It is clear that he was not satisfied with the way he was taught and cast in the role of a passive student. However, Sakarin was impressed with his teacher at the tertiary level who taught grammar very well and made him feel that... “grammar was so easy” (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). He added

that “she taught grammar rules in Thai first and provided us with exercises and let us practise speaking in front of the class” (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). It is perhaps not surprising that he also held the belief that that it was effective to explain grammar in L1 even in a course that also focused on speaking skills. He was impressed with his teacher at university who engaged students in the lesson. However, there was the similarity between his teachers in high school and university as they focused on explaining grammar rules. Through learning with this way, Sakarin seemed to be familiar with it. It is clear that the origin of his belief in the value of explicit grammar instruction was greatly formed through Sakarin’s experience as a learner.

Apart from the focus on grammar, the belief in the role of grammar was closely related to the participants’ belief in the primacy of accuracy. The data reveals that their English teachers were influential in their careers, and traces of these teachers’ practice were also seen in participants’ own practices. For example, in the final interview, Sakarin highlighted the way that his high school teacher told his class that they had to “...speak English correctly” (FI). Likewise, Pensiri remarked that focusing on grammar and accuracy was the similarity between her teachers and herself in teaching speaking.

It is also interesting to note that their negative and positive experiences as students shaped their beliefs in providing corrective feedback. For example, Sakarin referred to how his high school “...did not provide students with any feedback”, but how he himself thought feedback was “...very important to develop students, so it makes us realise our weaknesses”. He contrasted this with his experience as a university student where his teacher provided feedback that he found “...beneficial for working in the future...” (1<sup>st</sup> PI). Furthermore, Teerawut’s negative experience as a student formed his belief in using recast for corrective feedback. He recalled that when he was asked to speak English in front of the class and he spoke incorrectly, he remembered that his friends laughed at him. He asserted that he “...did not like it at all” (1<sup>st</sup> PI). He added that he disliked it when his teacher often corrected his mistakes. This formed his belief in using recast as he thought that it would be more suitable for providing students corrective feedback to avoid correcting their mistakes explicitly.

In terms of teaching vocabulary for speaking skills, experiences as learners were a key source in forming teacher’s beliefs about teaching vocabulary through translation. Thinking back on their own experiences, these participants recalled how their teachers taught them. For example, Wasin pointed out that his teachers provided students with the meaning of the vocabulary in Thai, which familiarised him with using translation. Pensiri recalled that in high school, “they used translation” which she thought was “...okay” because students “...need to

know the meaning of words” (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). In the same vein, Janista asserted that when she was a student, mostly her teachers would ask students “the meaning of the vocabulary first before translating it in Thai” (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). These teachers had a clear memory of how they were taught by using translation which was influential in the formation of their beliefs.

According to the findings, the participants believed in the implementation of practice in traditional approaches such as drilling and dialogue memorisation. Three participants, Pensiri, Wasin and Teerawut, asserted that they were taught through drilling. Teerawut affirmed that drilling made him feel more confident to speak. Importantly, drilling was also observed in their classrooms, showing some traces of their teachers’ practices. In contrast, Araya’s belief that drilling was not suitable with adult students may also have been shaped through her learning experience. It was evident from her interviews that her teachers at tertiary level never used drilling.

Another interesting finding is that most teachers formed their beliefs that using role plays was important through their experiences as learners. It is important to note that five teachers appeared to hold these beliefs based on their satisfaction with the way their teachers had used such activities. For example, Sakarin stated that his teacher assigned role plays in many courses including speaking and listening courses and that he really enjoyed them. However, at this point, it is necessary to point out that these participants understood that dialogue memorisation was as a final stage of role play. For example, Teerawut reported that his teachers asked him “... to do role plays by creating a script” (1<sup>st</sup> PI). He added that his teacher in secondary school just asked students to slightly change dialogues from a textbook to match their personal information, whereas his teachers in university asked students to compose original scripts. Similarly, Sakarin recalled his memories of practising “writing a script” (1<sup>st</sup> PI) before a speaking performance. One implication from all this is that their understanding that dialogue memorisation was the final stage of the role play technique was formed through these teachers experiences as learners.

Another important point is that three participants, Wasin, Janista, Pensiri also formed their belief regarding the use of L1 through their experiences as learners. Wasin’s belief in using the first language could be traced back to his experience as a learner. Wasin clearly explained how he was taught through translation and that he “... used to learn in this way.” He felt that it was “...okay....easy to understand.”, and therefore, he “...translated it for his students” (3<sup>rd</sup> SI). It was clear that Wasin relied heavily on his belief that translation had been effective for him to learn English, but perhaps more significantly he considered it to be ‘a Thai style.’ This suggests

that using translation in the classroom was rooted in the Thai context. This was also evident in Janista's interview. She stated that her teachers "... rarely used English in the class" (FI). Her experience learning through the first language seemed to underpin her belief in using L1 particularly with low-level students.

Moreover, the data reveals that the beliefs of four participants, Wasin, Teerawut, Pensiri and Sakarin regarding conforming to NES models was heavily influenced by their experiences as learners. For example, Wasin stated that he admired his teacher's native-like pronunciation and added that "her voice was so beautiful" (FI). Importantly, their experiences being taught by NES speakers contributed to their belief in conforming to NES models. Teerawut highlighted that while he was studying in listening and speaking courses, he "was taught by NES teachers. There were many NES teachers at that time" (1<sup>st</sup> PI). He stated that his teachers "... focused on rising and falling intonation" (1<sup>st</sup> PI). Additionally, Pensiri claimed that most of her English teachers were British. Perhaps, this experience was a major influence on her belief that her current department should recruit NES teachers to teach students speaking skills. For her, native English speakers were better equipped to teach speaking. Interestingly, Sakarin reported that he was taught to follow NES models from the time he was young and that introducing other models might cause conflicts.

In addition, the participants' belief in creating a relaxed atmosphere seemed to relate in part to their experiences as learners. To illustrate, Wasin claimed to imitate his previous teacher in creating a similar atmosphere in class. He explained that "there were games and presents for students who answered questions correctly" (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). Similarly, Teerawut's beliefs in establishing rapport to create a relaxed classroom atmosphere emanated from his own experiences as students. He stated when he was an undergraduate, his NES teacher "... used rapport...I felt relaxed like we are just chatting" (FI). But, while Wasin and Teerawut formed their beliefs through positive experience, Janista formed her belief in reducing student anxiety through a negative experience as a learner. She remarked that when she was an undergraduate, her teacher frightened her and her classmates because once when a classmate did not write vocabulary in the textbook, the teacher got very angry and yelled at that student. She spoke at length about her negative experience:

I sat in a position that she could not see me. I was afraid that if I could not answer her question, she would yell at me (1<sup>st</sup> PI, Janista).

She asserted that she did not want to behave in the same manner as that teacher. It is worth noting that Janista's example here was one of the exceptional examples in this study, where an experience of 'poor' teaching was influential in participant's beliefs and practices.

Clearly, Janista's case indicates that her belief regarding teaching vocabulary was formed through her personal learning experience. She stated that she "...gained the vocabulary through reading newspapers" (1<sup>st</sup> PI). She added that she liked listening to news in English in a car and watched news in English through social media. Janista further revealed that she can bring news to discuss with her students. Perhaps, her own experience formed her belief that vocabulary was effectively learned by linking the classroom to the real world.

A perhaps predictable finding was that self- learning experiences seemed to influence participants' beliefs with regard to their preferred pronunciation model. Any teachers' personal learning experience will involve the media in some ways, but some teachers may be more influenced by certain aspects and certain types of media than others. In this study, the influence of the media was strong in the formation of Sakain and Wasin's beliefs regarding their preferred pronunciation model. Sakarin claimed that he "... learned an American accent from the media." He further revealed that he "... liked watching the shows from the States" (2<sup>nd</sup>PI). He insisted that it was influential to his beliefs. Meanwhile, in the second pre- interview, Wasin asserted that his preferred pronunciation model was American because he thought that an American accent was easier to understand than a British accent. However, Wasin used British video clips in the second classroom observation. In the third classroom observation, he clearly changed his pronunciation at certain points to imitate a British accent. He argued that lately, he was really into the show on Youtube channel hosted by one Thai celebrity who had a British accent. He liked listening to her accent and imitated it. Wasin commented that he had been "... influenced by media", and that he "...changed it to a British accent" because it was "fun." Furthermore, he added that "it creates a fun atmosphere in the classroom" (FI). His belief in conforming to an American model had changed to conform to a British model due to the influence of the media through his self- learning experience.

On the other hand, the results show that Janista's own challenge to achieve a NES-like pronunciation formed her belief in promoting comprehensible pronunciation for her students. For instance, while Janista reported that her own preferred model was British and she also practiced her pronunciation to be closer to NES models, but she accepted that it was difficult for her to pronounce some sounds. When asked again, she accepted that her accent was "...not like NES." She remarked that she needed to practice it more. She referred to her difficulty in

achieving a native-like pronunciation: “although I have practiced so hard, I am not there yet” (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). This implies that her difficulty in having native-like pronunciation underpinned her belief that conforming to NES models was challenging for her students.

As mentioned above, experience as a learner was the most powerful source forming teachers’ beliefs as they observed their teachers’ instruction over a long period. These participants also directly experienced whether teacher instruction was effective for their own learning. Clearly, their beliefs were reflected their own teachers’ practices in some ways. While they imitated the practices of the teachers who had impressed them, they also argued against practices of the ones with whom they were not satisfied. Unsurprisingly, these participants imitated their impressive teachers’ practices and formed their beliefs regarding their speaking instruction from their good experience. This emphasises the value of teachers being role models in the classroom.

#### **4.3.2 Teaching experiences**

Some studies have highlighted how important a teacher’s own teaching experience is for experimenting and testing out their beliefs in the classroom (see Section 2.6.5). In this study, unsurprisingly, all of participants referred at some point to the important role that their own teaching experiences played in the formation of their beliefs. The findings reveal that teaching experience was also one of the most influential sources forming these teachers’ beliefs.

Teerawut stated that although he learned many teaching approaches and methods from his teacher education programme, his teaching experience helped him to decide what approaches or methods he would use, whom to use it with and whether it worked for his students. Likewise, Sakarin highlighted the importance of teaching experience in shaping his beliefs:

Teaching experience is the most important factor. During my seven years of teaching, I did not teach the same way every year. I keep changing it because students in different classes have different background knowledge. I have to adjust it to suit them. (1<sup>st</sup> PI, Sakarin)

Pensiri agreed that she changed the way she taught if something did not work for her students. She added that sometimes she “... used different methods between two classes”, in order to find out which was “...more effective” (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). The results from participant interviews indicate clearly that experimentation through their classroom teaching experience was influential in the formation of beliefs.

Interestingly, some of the beliefs that were shaped through their experiences as learners (see Section 4.3.1) were firmed up during their own teaching experience. For example, Janista’s and Sakarin’s belief in providing explicit grammar instruction was strengthened while teaching

students in a real context. Through her teaching experience, Janista insisted that explaining grammar to her students was necessary. She added that "...students in this group were not good at English. They still do not know how to begin sentences" (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). Likewise, with Sakarin's teaching experience, he found that his students could still not remember grammar rules, and he realised that he needed to focus even more on teaching the rules. Thus, his teaching experience further strengthened his belief in the importance of using explicit grammar instruction in speaking class. Furthermore, Janista's and Wasin's beliefs in the use of L1 were also shaped by their classroom experiences. Janista explained that when she did not translate sentences, she sometimes felt that "more students struggled to understand the lesson" (2<sup>nd</sup> PI). Their beliefs in the necessity of using the first language in this class was also a product of their teaching experience.

Furthermore, students' reactions to their teaching and the feedback they gave their teachers were influential in the formation of these participants' beliefs. Wasin admitted that receiving good feedback from his students firmed up his belief in the use of L1:

They said they like learning English more than before. This means that what I have done in the class including using Thai or making jokes to create a fun atmosphere was okay. (3<sup>rd</sup> SI, Wasin)

His confidence in his belief was shown in his claim that he would "continue doing it" (3<sup>rd</sup> SI). Additionally, Wasin reported that when he used a British accent in his class, his students seemed to like it, so he continued to use this accent. Similarly, Sakarin referred to how positive feedback from students was responsible for him continuing to use certain activities that created a fun atmosphere. These examples demonstrate the power of student feedback in shaping teacher's beliefs. Apart from this, Pensiri and Janista also realised through their teaching experience that providing immediate corrective feedback could impact students' confidence and anxiety. For example, Janista stated that female students were shyer than male students. She tried not to correct very shy students' mistakes immediately to avoid embarrassing them.

As mentioned above, it was clear that teacher experience could shape their beliefs regarding speaking instruction. Importantly, many of their beliefs that were formed through their experiences as learners also became more stable through their teaching experience. It is clear that through their teaching experience, the participants were directly able to perceive what teaching activities and techniques suited their students, how their students felt toward their



teaching through feedback and whether their students improved their learning through students' reactions and performances.

### **4.3.3 Teacher education programmes**

Several studies have examined the role of teacher education programmes on teachers' beliefs (see Section 2.6.5). In this study, while two participants strongly agreed that their teacher education programme formed their beliefs, four other participants argued that this source was not the main origin of their beliefs. This section reports findings relating to teacher education programmes. It gives an overview of participants' views on the role of the programmes and indicates where these had an influence on beliefs and explores why such programmes did not seem to have a great influence.

Sakarín and Teerawut were the two participants who clearly emphasised the importance of teacher education programmes on their beliefs. Sakarín discussed in some detail how he applied what he learned from his programme and reported using many "...techniques" (1<sup>st</sup> PI) from his programme. One example of this was when he applied a technique from his instructor on his teacher education programme by asking students to summarise the rules of certain grammar items. He also reported how his instructor provided him with an awareness of World Englishes, which increased his confidence in his own accent. By implication, his belief in encouraging students to aim for a comprehensible pronunciation was to increase their confidence and was arguably shaped by his experience in his teacher education programme. Likewise, Teerawut pointed out that his teacher education programme was a great source in forming his beliefs in teaching speaking. For example, his belief in using more English for instruction and using communicative activities, for example, information gaps, were also formed through this source. Additionally, Teerawut explicitly stated how his belief in establishing rapport to create a friendly classroom atmosphere was formed during studying in "an MA programme" (FI).

On the other hand, Wasin, Pensiri and Araya argued that their teacher education programmes were not influential in the formation of their beliefs regarding teaching speaking skills. The following extract was from Wasin's interview showing that teacher educational programme was not the main source forming his beliefs.

To be honest, I forgot it all. I have forgotten what I learned from my teacher education programme. (1<sup>st</sup> PI, Wasin)

Wasin concluded that the main source of his belief "...came from learning experience" (1<sup>st</sup> PI). He also insisted that the theory learned from his programme "... was not practical". He added that "...some techniques do not suit Thai students." As a result, he concluded that he did not "...focus on it a lot" (2<sup>nd</sup> PI) and that before attending the programme, his experience as a tutor meant that he already knew how to manage the class. This implies that his beliefs were already formed through his experience as a learner and through his teaching experience and were not so susceptible to change despite the knowledge he gained from his teacher education programme.

In fact, from the interview data, it seems that the curriculum used in the teacher education programmes had the least impact on the formation of their beliefs. Sakarin, Janista and Araya agreed that their teacher education programme focused on instruction in general, rather than particular skills, such as teaching speaking skills. Araya pointed out how her programme "...did not emphasise speaking instruction". As a result, she argued that her belief mainly "came from learning experience" (1<sup>st</sup> PI). In the same way, Pensiri and Teerawut pointed out that although they learned the theory of teaching methods and approaches from their teacher education programmes, their beliefs were shaped through their own teaching experience. Pensiri recalled her experience while attending the programme that her educators only "...gave a lecture and simply asked students questions" (1<sup>st</sup> PI). In terms of teacher education programmes then, it is clear that these were not a major influence on these participants' beliefs. The reasons for this will be discussed in the next chapter.

#### **4.3.4 Continuing professional development**

In this study, all participants with the exception of Sakarin agreed that they rarely attended training courses for teaching speaking because they claimed there were few training courses available. Pensiri, for example, maintained that as far as she knew there were not many speaking training courses. Despite this, there were instances in the data where continuing professional development did have some influence on the participants' beliefs.

The influence of this source on teacher's beliefs was obviously seen in Sakarin's case. In the 1<sup>st</sup> pre-interview, he said that he was sent to attend a teacher training course in New Zealand for one month because his previous university had a policy of promoting the use of English for teaching. He stated that after finishing the training course, he formed his belief to use only English for teaching in his class. He concluded that teachers "should not underestimate students' ability to understand English" (1<sup>st</sup> SI). Apart from this, he also learned many teaching activities from the training and incorporated them into his class. He stated "Oh. It was so great.

Students reacted to the activities positively” (1<sup>st</sup> PI). Additionally, Wasin and Sakarin attended a training course about using media for teaching, which introduced them to Kahoot. About his Wasin’s experience learning Kahoot the first time, Wasin said,

I knew Kahoot from the training. I saw them use it, so I brought it to use in my class. It was fun. (1<sup>st</sup> PI, Wasin)

This implies that training courses influence on teaching beliefs, especially when they experience the effectiveness of the activities through their first-hand teaching experience.

On the other hand, the results indicate a limited role for continuing professional development in shaping these teachers’ beliefs. Pensiri and Wasin pointed out that although they had attended a training course regarding active learning, they rarely implemented it in their classrooms. Wasin argued that it was not practical because the technology in his classroom was not always adequate. Thus, classroom facilities also constrained and limited the influence of training on forming teachers’ beliefs. Furthermore, Teerawut attended a one-week training abroad many years before, but he could not even remember the content of the programme. Wasin added that “the knowledge from training was mainly theory” (1<sup>st</sup> PI). He explained that he needed to consider whether it worked for his class. Unsurprisingly, Wasin clearly considered the applicability of ideas from such training courses in terms of his teaching context. Interestingly, Janista pointed out that she had attended a training course for using games in the classroom many years earlier and that she “... used it at the beginning”. However, when she was responsible for more courses, she felt exhausted, especially when she taught a group of low-level students, at which point she confessed that she stopped using what she had learned from the course. This indicates that contextual factors can have constraining effect on the beliefs that were formed through continuing professional development. Such beliefs seemed to belong to the group of more peripheral belief.

To recap, the results demonstrated that continuing professional development was less influential in shaping teacher’s beliefs in this study due to a number of constraining factors including the limited number of provided training courses and other factors like classroom facilities, students’ abilities, content of the training and the needs and interests of the teachers.

#### **4.4 The Relationship between Teachers' Beliefs and Practices in Relation to Teaching Speaking Skills**

The aim of this section is to answer the fourth research question “What is the relationship between teacher’s beliefs and practices in relation to teaching speaking skills?” Therefore, the tables below highlight the congruence and incongruence between teacher’s stated beliefs and their classroom practices in relation with speaking instruction. Further comments are mentioned in order to provide more useful data relevant to the relationship between teachers’ beliefs and practices.

For the most part, the findings reveal that teachers’ beliefs were congruent with their practices, particularly the beliefs that are consistent in terms of following a traditional approach including focusing on accuracy over fluency, using the explicit grammar approach, reliance on translation for teaching vocabulary, using controlled practice for developing students’ speaking skills, and the primacy and dominant use of L1 when teaching speaking. However, there were some tensions between their beliefs and practices including tensions from both internal factors , for example, core and peripheral beliefs, contradictory beliefs and teachers’ lack of teaching knowledge and contextual factors including factors related to students , the educational system and teaching materials.

Table 4.2

*Summary of the Relationship between Stated Beliefs and Classroom Practices: Grammar and Speaking*

<b>Aspects</b>	<b>Beliefs</b>	<b>Classroom Practices</b>	<b>Comments</b>
<b>Grammar and speaking</b>	Spoken grammar and written grammar are the same.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Focus on written grammar.</li> <li>- Requirement for complete sentences.</li> <li>- Lack of any aspects of spoken grammar.</li> </ul>	- All teachers' stated beliefs were consistent with their practices, but their beliefs are not consistent with the literature.
	Explicit grammar instruction is necessary.	- Use of an explicit grammar approach.	- All teachers' stated beliefs were consistent with their practices.
	Focus on accuracy over fluency	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Requirement for correction on students' dialogue script.</li> <li>- Wasin and Araya sometimes did not correct students' mistakes.</li> <li>- While believing in using delayed feedback, all of them were seen correcting students' mistakes immediately and explicitly.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- For the most part, teachers' stated beliefs were aligned with their practices.</li> <li>- Some tensions came from contextual factors and internal factors.</li> </ul>
	Complexity is not necessary for speaking.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Focus on teaching simple sentences.</li> <li>- Wasin corrected his student by using a complex sentence.</li> </ul>	- All teachers' stated beliefs (except Wasin) were congruent with their practices.

For the most part, there was a congruence between teachers' beliefs and practices regarding teaching grammar for speaking skills. Consistent with their beliefs that spoken grammar and written grammar were the same, all of the participants focused on written grammar while teaching speaking skills. Wasin, for example, was observed asking his students to speak using complete sentences. Apart from this, Sakarin reviewed a long list of grammar items including articles, singular and plural nouns, singular and plural pronouns, there is, there are, transitive and intransitive verbs, adjectives and prepositions. While the teachers themselves used spoken language, they never stated or indicated any awareness of spoken grammar. While there was a consistency between their beliefs and practices, their beliefs were not supported by the literature, and current knowledge that suggests the many differences between the characteristics of spoken grammar and those of written grammar (see Section 2.4.1)

Additionally, their belief that explicit grammar instruction was important was observed in their practices. Sakarin and Wasin claimed that it was their responsibility to teach grammar

for speaking skills to help students to speak accurately, which reflects their sense of responsibility beliefs. In practice, five of the participants were seen teaching students grammar rules explicitly. Janista reviewed grammar rules from the previous lesson while Pensiri concluded the rules again before assigning exercises. Wasin and Sakarin spent a large amount of time teaching grammar rules and elicited the rules from students after teaching them. Furthermore, Sakarin asked his students to summarise grammar rules.

Apart from this, all of the participants' beliefs in focusing on accuracy over fluency were mainly in line with their practices with a few instances of divergence. Wasin, Sakarin, Teerawut and Pensiri held sense of responsibility beliefs in increasing students' accuracy as they agreed that their role as a teacher was to increase their students' accuracy. Five participants stated that they needed to correct students' scripts before allowing them to use them, four of them were observed doing so, but Wasin argued that he did not have time to correct their scripts. Similarly, Araya reported that she could not correct her students' mistakes after their speaking performance as she did not have enough time. This focus on time suggests that the teachers viewed all errors as important and necessary to correct, while selecting errors would be more characteristic of a practice that focuses on developing speaking fluency.

Interestingly, all of them were often observed correcting students' mistakes immediately or explicitly. Their beliefs in reducing student anxiety and belief in strategic feedback to promote student fluency through using delayed feedback were overridden by their beliefs in the primacy of accuracy. The latter seemed to be a core belief as it was stable and transferred into practice, whereas the former seemed to be a more peripheral belief. Additionally, the majority of the participants focused on the use of simple sentences, which was consistent with their beliefs that complexity is not necessary for speaking. However, only Wasin and Sakarin taught some complex structures, for example, indirect questions and 'if-clause' as it was a part of the content in the textbook. Wasin once corrected a student for not using a complex sentence because he wanted the student to complete the sentence accurately. His beliefs in the primacy of accuracy seemed to be a core belief. It is worth noting that their beliefs about spoken and written grammar seemed as one level to be contradictory. While their experiences probably informed their beliefs and practices in avoiding grammatical complexity in speaking, they believed that spoken grammar and written grammar were the same. It was clear that they lacked theoretical knowledge of the key features of spoken grammar.

Thus, it seems that these beliefs regarding teaching grammar for speaking skills were their core beliefs as they were stable and transferred into their practices. The findings also

revealed teachers' responsibility beliefs in teaching grammar in Sakarin and Wasin's cases and teachers' sense of responsibility beliefs in increasing students' accuracy in Sakarin, Teerawut and Pensiri's cases that were also mainly consistent with their practices. The findings reveal that these types of beliefs could be a predictor of their practices.

Table 4.3

*Summary of the Relationship between Stated beliefs and Classroom Practices: Vocabulary and Speaking*

<b>Aspects</b>	<b>Beliefs</b>	<b>Classroom practices</b>	<b>Comments</b>
<b>Vocabulary and speaking</b>	Defining vocabulary through translation is important.	- Reliance on translation for meaning of vocabulary	-All teachers' beliefs converged with their practices.
	Using elicitation to get students involved in learning vocabulary.	- Wasin and Janista's elicited students' vocabulary knowledge in L1.	- The two teachers' stated belief was congruent with their practices, but they misunderstood the techniques of elicitation.
	The importance of understanding vocabulary in context.	-Sakarin provided the meaning through definition and examples.	- His belief was consistent with his practices.
	Building vocabulary knowledge requires providing input on lexical relations between words.	-Janista explained the different meanings of a word in different contexts. - Pensiri often provided the meaning of the vocabulary through synonyms.	- The two teachers' stated belief converged with their practices.
	Learning vocabulary is about more than a word.	-Pensiri asked students to drill expressions and phrases from the textbook and the video clips.	- Her belief was aligned with her practices.
	Using technology for teaching vocabulary.	-Wasin and Sakarin used Kahoot to teach and elicit students' vocabulary knowledge.	-The two teachers' stated beliefs were consistent with their practices.
	Vocabulary is learned effectively by linking the classroom to the real world.	-Janista taught vocabulary through news.	- Her stated beliefs were consistent with her practice, but students did not follow the news she brought to discuss in the classroom.

The findings reveal that all of the participants' beliefs regarding teaching vocabulary for speaking were consistent with their practices. It was obvious from the observations that all of the participants provided the meaning of the vocabulary through translation which converged with their beliefs (see Section 4.2.2.1). In addition, although, Wasin and Janista's beliefs in using elicitation to get students involved in learning vocabulary was observed in their practices, they misunderstood the technique as they elicited their vocabulary through using L1 within a limited time and did not ask any follow-up questions to their response (see Section 2.5.3). Furthermore, Sakarin's belief in the importance of understanding vocabulary in context was observed in his practices as he provided the meaning through a definition and examples.

Additionally, the beliefs of two participants, Janista and Pensiri that building vocabulary knowledge required providing input on lexical relations between words were in line with their practices. Janista was observed explaining the different meanings of the word in different contexts, while Pensiri provided the meaning of the vocabulary by using synonyms. In this study, only Pensiri explicitly stated her belief that learning vocabulary was about more than

a word was transferred into her practices. She asked her students to drill expressions and phrases from the textbook and video clips. Additionally, two participants, Wasin and Sakarin, transferred their belief in using technology for teaching vocabulary, for example, Kahoot into their practices. They were observed using this game to teach and elicit students' vocabulary knowledge. Last, Janista's belief that vocabulary was learned effectively by linking the classroom to the real world was consistent with her practice as she taught her students vocabulary from news; however, her students did not follow that news. Therefore, their discussion on the meaning of the news vocabulary seemed less than successful.

Interestingly, some of teachers' practices using different techniques in teaching vocabulary for speaking were observed in the classroom without being mentioned as a belief in the pre-interviews even though they were asked many probing questions regarding how vocabulary should be taught for speaking skills. This is clearly seen in Teerawut's case. Although he reported that he did not know many techniques for teaching vocabulary for speaking and simply translated the meaning of the vocabulary for his students, he was observed eliciting student vocabulary knowledge and using synonyms as a technique for providing vocabulary. Similar to the other five participants, for example, Janista, Araya and Wasin also provided definitions in English before translating them into Thai, Pensiri provided example sentences for her students and Wasin and Sakarin were seen teaching their students collocations without mentioning this in the pre-interviews (see Section 4.2.2.1). The findings reveal that these participants held unconscious beliefs and were not aware of what they did in the classroom.

Table 4.4

*Summary of the Relationship between Stated Beliefs and Classroom Practices: Pronunciation and Speaking*

<b>Aspects</b>	<b>Beliefs</b>	<b>Classroom practices</b>	<b>Comments</b>
<b>Pronunciation</b>	Conforming to NES models.	-Use of NES clips to model pronunciation. -Focus on key issues based on NES pronunciation models.	-For the most part, four teachers' stated beliefs were consistent with their practices. - Sakarin held a contradictory belief between his belief in conforming to NES models and having intelligibility as a goal for teaching pronunciation.
	Having comprehensibility as a goal for teaching pronunciation. ASEAN varieties of English should be introduced in the classroom, but not as a model.	-Correction on some words interfering with intelligibility. - No focus on stress  -Only Sakarin introduced ASEAN varieties of English to his students.	-Two teachers' stated beliefs were congruent with their practices.  Tension came from contextual factors.



Four participants' (Wasin, Sakarin, Janistra, Teerawut) beliefs regarding conforming to NES models converged with their practices as the majority of them used NES clips as models for teaching students' pronunciation. All these teachers focused on key aspects of pronunciation based on NES models, such as stress and intonation, which are a non-core feature in the LFC (see Section 2.5.4). Wasin was observed suggesting that students with a strong Thai accent listen to NES models to improve their pronunciation. Importantly, Pensiri and Wasin were satisfied with their own pronunciation, and this related to their beliefs in following NES models showing their self- efficacy belief regarding conforming to NES models. However, Sakarin was seen telling his students not to worry about their accent as long as it was comprehensible showing a contradiction between his belief in conforming to NES models and having intelligibility as a goal for teaching pronunciation (see Section 4.2.3).

On the other hand, the other two participants' (Janista and Araya) belief in comprehensibility as the main goal for teaching pronunciation was transferred to their practices. Janista and Araya were observed not focusing on stress, which is a key aspect of NES pronunciation models. Janista focused on correcting students' mispronunciations if it could interfere with intelligibility. While all of the participants believed that ASEAN varieties of English should be introduced in the classroom, only Sakarin did so. Tensions came from contextual factors including time constraints and students' low motivation. Additionally, this belief was possibly a peripheral belief for Wasin as he argued that he focused on NES models first (see Section 4.2.3).

Table 4.5

*Summary of the Relationship between Stated Beliefs and Classroom Practices: Activities and Tasks in Teaching Speaking*

<b>Aspects</b>	<b>Beliefs</b>	<b>Classroom Practices</b>	<b>Comments</b>
<b>Activities and tasks in teaching speaking</b>	Drilling is effective for teaching speaking.	Use of drilling for grammar and pronunciation practice.	Teachers' stated beliefs were congruent with their practices.
	Role plays are necessary for teaching speaking.	Students acted out their scripts.	Teachers' beliefs were consistent with their practices but not consistent with the latest literature.
	Communicative activities should be used in the classroom.	A few communicative activities were used in the classroom.	Teachers' stated beliefs converged with their practice but Pensiri misused the aim of the cued dialogue activity.
	Task-based learning can be used for teaching speaking.	- Wasin assigned tasks.	Students were observed struggling while doing the task.

While teachers' beliefs that drilling was effective for teaching speaking was in line with their practices as was their beliefs in using communicative activities and tasks. However, the latter was not often observed. Although a few communicative activities were used, they were

not employed effectively. Five participants who believed that role plays were necessary for speaking understood that dialogue memorisation was a final stage of role play. They asked their students to write the script before allowing them to act it out (see Section 4.2.4). While Wasin and Pensiri stated that communicative activities should be used in the classroom, Wasin was observed using an interview activity in his class, and Pensiri used a cued dialogue activity. However, Pensiri lost sight of the activity that aimed to promote spontaneous production through a series of cues by asking them to first write the script following given cues. Teerawut also used an information gap activity in his classroom, a nod towards CLT; however, he did not state this belief in the pre-interviews, possibly because it was an unconscious belief. Additionally, while Wasin believed that task-based learning can be used for teaching speaking, his students struggled while doing tasks in observed classes and made many mistakes. These findings may be seen both as a result of the students' low level of English proficiency and the teacher's lack of knowledge regarding how to use task-based learning effectively (see Section 4.2.4).

Table 4.6

*Summary of the Relationship between Stated Beliefs and Classroom Practices: Intercultural Awareness in a Speaking Class*

<b>Aspects</b>	<b>Beliefs</b>	<b>Classroom Practices</b>	<b>Comments</b>
<b>Intercultural awareness in a speaking class.</b>	ASEAN cultures should be raised in the classroom. Focusing on NES cultures is vital for register.	None of them presented ASEAN cultures. Focus on register as a part of NES norms.	Tensions came from contextual factors. All teachers' stated beliefs were congruent with their practices.

Sakarín and Araya's belief that ASEAN cultures should be raised in the classroom was not observed in the classroom. They argued that there was no content related to ASEAN cultures in the textbook, and therefore, they did not focus on it as it would not be tested on the exam reflecting negative washback. On the other hand, all of the participants believed that register was important, and in this way focused clearly on NES cultures in their classes. Teachers were all observed focusing on register as a part of NES norms (see Section 4.2.5).

Table 4.7

*Summary of the Relationship between Stated Beliefs and Classroom Practices: Language Used in the Classroom*

<b>Aspects</b>	<b>Beliefs</b>	<b>Classroom practices</b>	<b>Comments</b>
<b>Language used in the classroom</b>	L1 is necessary in language teaching.	Use of L1 in the classroom.	Three teachers' beliefs were in line with their practices.
	Balancing the use of L1 and L2 is the key.	Overuse of L1.	Two teachers' beliefs were inconsistent with their practices.
	Maximizing L2 for teaching is effective for teaching speaking.	Sakarín's excessive use of L1.	There was a tension between his belief and practices due to internal and contextual factors.

The participants had different beliefs towards the use of L1 in the classroom; however, it was observed that all of them often used L1 in their practices. Wasin, Pensiri and Janista's beliefs that L1 is necessary in language teaching was congruent with their practices. Teerawut and Araya's belief in balancing the use of L1 and L2 was inconsistent with their practices, since they were observed to use more L1 than L2 in the classroom. They argued that it was due to their students' low level of English proficiency. On the other hand, Sakarín's belief that maximising L2 for teaching was effective for teaching speaking was inconsistent with his practices as he was seen overusing L1. Tensions between his belief and practice was due to contextual factors, for example, his students' low level of English proficiency and internal factors, for example, core and peripheral beliefs; his belief in engaging students with the lesson outweighed other belief in maximising L2 to expose his students to the target language (see Section 4.2.6). Therefore, here it seems that the former represented a core belief whereas the latter was more of a peripheral belief.

Table 4.8

*Summary of the Relationship between Stated Beliefs and Classroom Practices: Affective Factors and Speaking*

<b>Aspects</b>	<b>Beliefs</b>	<b>Classroom Practices</b>	<b>Comments</b>
<b>Affective factors and speaking</b>	Reducing anxiety is central for teaching speaking.	Creating a friendly classroom atmosphere. Use of immediate corrective feedback.	For the most part, teachers' beliefs were in line with their practices except the time for providing corrective feedback.

All of the participants' beliefs that reducing anxiety was central for teaching speaking converged with their practices apart from instances where they were observed providing corrective feedback. All of the participants created a friendly classroom atmosphere. For example, Wasin and Sakarín used games and humour to create a fun atmosphere. Teerawut did not force his students to speak when they were not ready. Janista and Araya monitored their students closely to encourage them to ask questions. Pensiri gave her students encouragement to reduce their anxiety after speaking. However, in terms of corrective feedback, they corrected

students' mistakes immediately although they were aware that it could cause embarrassment showing that their core belief was the primacy of accuracy and their belief in reducing anxiety as central for speaking instruction was more of a peripheral belief (see Section 4.2.7).

## **4.5 Summary**

This chapter presented teachers' beliefs and practices in various themes regarding speaking instruction. Several of their beliefs were consistent in terms of following traditional approaches, including using an explicit grammar approach, focusing on accuracy over fluency, reliance on a translation for providing the meaning of the vocabulary, using controlled practice for teaching speaking, for example, drilling, and using L1 as a medium for teaching. These beliefs were mainly congruent with their practices. However, some instances of divergence were observed due to both internal and contextual factors. The findings also reveal the key sources forming teachers' beliefs which were their experiences as learners and their teaching experiences. The results of this study will be discussed in detail in the following chapter.

## **Chapter 5 Discussion**

This study set out to investigate teachers' beliefs and practices in relation to teaching speaking, the sources that formed their beliefs and the relationship between their beliefs and their classroom practices in relation to teaching speaking skills. The participants included six EFL university teachers in the Thai EFL context. In this chapter, the key findings are discussed according to the research questions, the key themes outlined in the findings chapter, the conceptual framework underpinning this study and the related extant literature. The chapter is divided into main three sections answering the four research questions. The first section discusses the first and second research questions regarding teachers' beliefs and practices with respect to several aspects of speaking instruction, including grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, activities and tasks, intercultural knowledge, the use of L1 versus L2 in speaking instruction, and affective factors in speaking instruction. Additionally, the negative washback which related to teachers' beliefs and practices are also discussed. The second section relates to the third research question, discussing the sources of the participants' beliefs. Finally, the third section responds to the fourth research question and discusses the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their practices.

### **5.1 Beliefs and Practices regarding Speaking Instruction**

In this section, teachers' beliefs and practices in relation to teaching speaking skills in various aspects responding to the first and the second research questions are discussed as follows.

#### **5.1.1 Beliefs and Practices: The Relationship between Grammar and Speaking**

This section deals with the main findings regarding teaching grammar for speaking instruction. The key findings show that, in general, teachers' beliefs about the role of grammar in developing speaking skills were congruent in their practices. While all the participants valued the importance of grammar for speaking instruction, they all lacked an awareness of spoken grammar as it relates to speaking in both of their beliefs and their practices. All of them consistently relied heavily on traditional grammar teaching approaches, such as explicitly teaching grammar rules. The final main finding in relation to the role of grammar and speaking was that the knowledge and application relation to notion of fluency that have been in ELT literature and current pedagogical approaches that define fluency and accuracy in a certain way in terms of developing speaking skills seemed not to be well understood by these participants. The concept of fluency is very important in terms of promoting speaking skills (see Section 2.5.1), but these teachers showed a lack of awareness of exactly what fluency means and what fluency activities can help students to

achieve it. This section will discuss key aspects of the findings, including the importance of grammar for speaking instruction, a lack of knowledge about spoken grammar, the explicit grammar approach for speaking instruction and the primacy of accuracy.

As mentioned in the literature review (see Section 2.3.1), grammatical competence is regarded as one of the competences forming speaking proficiency (Shumin, 2009). During the formation stage of the cognitive process, speakers need grammar knowledge to form sentences correctly (Bygate, 2012; Littlewood, 1992; Thornbury, 2005, Wang, 2014), and during the self-monitoring stage, grammar knowledge helps speakers to revise their sentences (Bygate, 2012). Those who lack this grammar knowledge are not able to correct their sentences (Goh & Burns, 2012) (see Section 2.2).

Earlier studies (e.g., Farrell & Lim, 2005; Othman & Kiely, 2016) have shown that almost all teachers have a strong belief about teaching grammar in their English language classes. On the other hand, there are very few studies regarding teacher's beliefs about the relationship between grammar and teaching speaking. In the EFL context, Alghanmi and Shukri's (2016) study of Saudi Arabian in-service EFL teachers' beliefs about teaching grammar found that participants believed that knowledge of grammar structures helped students to become more successful communicators. Most of their participants believed that grammar was a key element for foreign and second language learning and that plenty of time should be spent teaching the rules. Although the focus of their study was in the area of grammar instruction, their results showed teachers believed that knowing grammar was important for students' oral competence. In line with those results, the present study found that all of the Thai EFL university teacher participants believed in the essentiality of teaching grammar for speaking skills.

Critically, the results of this study contradict a previous study by Yue'e and Yunzhang (2011) who investigated two Chinese EFL college teachers' beliefs and practices in oral English teaching; they found that the participants did not pay attention to grammar in oral English teaching. The participants were not observed teaching grammar rules or correcting students' grammar errors. Instead, one of the participants gave students' feedback on their presentation, explaining that it was confusing. This example suggests that the teacher was focusing on the message students delivered rather than on correcting their grammar errors. The researcher highlighted that they chose participants who taught first-year students at the university because that is the year the focuses on improving these students' speaking and listening skills, whereas the second-year students and their teachers were pressured by the college English test. This

suggests that in Yue'e and Yunzhang's (2011) study, the teacher participants did not seem to be affected by the grammar-based exam, so they focused on improving students' speaking skills rather than focusing on teaching grammar structures. On the other hand, the Thai context in this present study, the participants focused on teaching grammar due to the influence of the exam which mainly tested grammar. This indicates that the format of assessment influenced whether EFL teachers focused on teaching grammar for speaking. The problem of washback and the assessment situation will be discussed in much more detail in Section 5.1.8.

Several scholars (e.g., Goh & Burns, 2012; Thornbury, 2007; Timmis, 2018) in English language teaching focused on the actual spoken grammar used in real world situations (see Section 2.4.1.1). One would assume that teaching elements of spoken grammar should be beneficial to developing teaching skills. However, in Thailand, the grammar translation method has long been used for many decades (Foley, 2005; Khamkhien, 2010a; Seangboon, 2004); consequently, written grammar was focused on more than spoken grammar through repeating a written text (Wanich, 2014) (see Section 2.4.1.1). Several studies (e.g., Tarat, 2016; Seangboon, 2004) revealed that traditional grammar explanations have been the focus in Thai EFL classrooms. Nonkukhetkhong et al. (2006) conducted a case study of five Thai in-service EFL secondary school teachers and found that they still used traditional grammar explanation, repetition and translation in their classes. One reason this may not be the most effective way to develop speaking skills is that if the spoken grammar is not introduced, the students' language production will not be natural (Wanich, 2014). In the present study, none of the participants recognised the characteristics of spoken grammar because they believed that grammar for speaking and writing were the same. Interestingly, four out of the six participants still believed that students needed to speak in full sentences, which transferred into their practices. This suggests that they did not understand that spoken grammar is not characterised by sentence-length units but by clause-length units to suit the limited time span of most exchanges (Bygate, 1987; Luoma, 2004; Thornbury, 2005) and that turn-taking is the nature of oral communication (Goh & Burns, 2012) (see Section 2.4.1.1).

Another key characteristic of spoken grammar is ellipsis (see Section 2.4.1.1). The language items that are usually left out are the subject and the auxiliary verb (Thornbury, 2007). However, according to the results of this study, putting a subject in all of the sentences was typically seen in the observations. Indeed, Teerawut and Wasin made it clear that they wanted their students to use a subject in all of their sentences while speaking. They clearly focused on accuracy based on written grammar rather than on using the language for oral communication.

These findings provide evidence that these Thai EFL university teachers lacked knowledge of spoken grammar, possibly because of the influence of long-established grammar translation method.

On the surface, these two beliefs seemed to contradict each other. While the teachers held the belief that spoken grammar and written grammar were the same, their beliefs and practices reflected an awareness that complexity was not a goal when developing speaking skills. From their experiences, the participants understood some elements of grammar, such as complexity, was different in terms of speaking and writing. What is clear is that they lacked any knowledge of the theory of spoken grammar that has developed over the past several decades (e.g., Bygate, 1987; Carter & McCarthy, 2002). None of them explicitly explained spoken grammar in any of the observed classes, and they did not refer to any specific knowledge of it in the interviews (see Sections 4.2.1.1 and 4.2.1.4).

Another key finding is that five out of six participants believed in using explicit grammar instruction for teaching speaking, and this was consistent with their practices. To clarify, Wasin and Sakarin explained grammar rules in some depth using L1 before assigning grammar practice. Moreover, their students needed to remember the grammar rules as the participants were observed eliciting grammar rules from students and asking them to summarise the grammar structures. Once again, this emphasised how these teachers believed that grammar could not be learned effectively without ensuring their students had explicit knowledge of rules. Again, the grammar rules that they focused on mainly related to written grammar. Clearly, they were still using traditional approaches, that is, the grammar translation method, for teaching speaking skills.

There was a difference between the findings discussed above and previous research by Alghanmi and Shukri (2016) that focused on Saudi Arabian EFL teachers' beliefs and practices. Through a questionnaire, the researchers determined that more than a half of their university teacher participants did not believe in an explicit grammar approach; however, in their observations of ten actual classrooms, they found that teachers taught grammar deductively and explicitly through traditional approaches, for example, remembering rules and drilling. The low-level students could not understand the grammar rules unless they were explained explicitly. Their participants reported that large class sizes caused them to teach grammar explicitly rather than engaging students with communicative activities. Although their study did not focus on speaking skills, it is worth noting that using an explicit grammar approach may be favoured in large EFL classrooms.



Moreover, in the present study, the participants believed in focusing on accuracy over fluency. Importantly, all of them were observed correcting students' mistakes immediately. Pensiri and Araya made it clear that they believed that focusing on accuracy could lead to an increase in fluency. These findings are similar to those of Tarat's (2016) study of five Thai EFL high school teachers; two of their participants were observed using traditional pedagogy, such as repetition, drilling and memorisation. One of their participants reported that knowing grammar structures could help students to communicate fluently. Although their study investigated Thai high school teachers, the results were similar to the findings of the current study of teachers at the tertiary level.

Alghanmi and Shukri's (2016) study, discussed above, used observation methods that found various consistencies with the results of the present study; 60% of them were observed focusing on accuracy over fluency, and 90 % of them were observed frequently correcting students' grammatical mistakes with the goal of forming good habits. They also spent a good deal of time emphasising grammar. The similarity between their participants and the participants in the present study was that they all agreed that mastering grammar rules could lead to improvement in spoken fluency. Srivastava (2014) pointed out in her article about accuracy and fluency in English classrooms that generally, teachers were likely to focus on grammar practice rather than engaging students with speaking activities because they believed that "grammar is the most important thing to learn first" (p. 55).

Another important point is that it was apparent from interviews and observations that most participants had a limited view of what constitutes fluency and limited knowledge of the kind of activities that can improve learners' fluency. While being asked about how to improve students' fluency, the participants, for example, data gained from Sakarin on how he improved students fluency in speaking was quite limited (see Section 4.2.1.3). Perhaps, an example from Wasin's case is more significant here. He insisted that accuracy was a major part of fluency and did not recognise the long-established view of accuracy and fluency in ELT.

This is consistent with Tavakoli and Hunter's (2018) survey-based study of 84 L2 teachers before attending continuing professional development workshops in the UK. They found that while EFL and modern foreign languages (MFL) teachers focused on teaching speaking skills, they focused less on fluency. The explanation was that the participants lacked knowledge of what activities could improve fluency, and their confidence in increasing students' fluency was only moderate. Moreover, similar to the findings of the current study, their participants held very broad ideas of the term 'fluency' and misunderstood the definition

of fluency to some extent by including accuracy as a part of fluency. However, they seemed to have a high level of confidence in their understanding of the term ‘fluency’. More interestingly, the participants in the present study believed that the classroom was the place to practice accuracy, but several of them, for instance, Araya, Sakarin and Janista, argued that students should also practice fluency outside the classroom. However, teachers should balance promoting fluency and accuracy (Bailey, 2005; Brown & Lee, 2015; Wang, 2014) that is supported by the Goh and Burns’s (2012) model for teaching speaking skills (see Section 2.5.8). In their model, to improve fluency, students are encouraged to conduct speaking tasks without focusing on accuracy at first. Then, they are provided time to focus on the language (grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation) they used in the previous task to improve their accuracy before repeating the speaking tasks with different interlocutors.

Briefly, in the present study, the participants believed in the essentiality of grammar instruction which was evident in their teaching approach including belief in teaching grammar explicitly. These beliefs are similar to others in the Thai context where the focus is not on speaking but on grammar translation. The findings of the present study provide insights into the complex relationship between grammar and speaking skills.

### **5.1.2 The Relationship between speaking and vocabulary**

This section will discuss the key findings of the participants’ beliefs and practices relating to vocabulary instruction. Although all of the participants recognised the importance of vocabulary for speaking, the problem was that they did not have many techniques for teaching vocabulary for speaking. In the previous part, the teachers relied on traditional techniques for teaching grammar for speaking, and in a similar way here, in terms of teaching vocabulary and speaking, teachers relied upon a traditional approach to define meaning. For the most part, their beliefs regarding teaching vocabulary were transferred to their practices. In fact, it was evident that their vocabulary instruction related to receptive knowledge with an emphasis on students’ knowing the meaning of the vocabulary rather than using the vocabulary productively for speaking. There are a few studies focusing on teachers’ beliefs and practices regarding teaching vocabulary for speaking, and the findings of this study are in line with those of Latsanyphoen and Bouangeu (2009) in terms of teachers’ use of L1 to improve EFL students’ vocabulary knowledge. However, there were some examples of teachers showing awareness of using other techniques, particularly in their practices, although they did not explicitly discuss some of these beliefs in the interviews. Significant issues, including the importance of vocabulary for speaking

skills, the lack of vocabulary teaching techniques, the lack of focus on multiword units and the absence of vocabulary recycling and productive use, will be discussed next.

There is widespread agreement among most scholars (e.g., Harley, 1996; Lin, 2015; Nation, 2013) that vocabulary knowledge is the basis for developing second language proficiency (see Section 2.5.3). In this study, all of the participants believed that vocabulary was important for speaking instruction. Similarly, Koizumi and In'nami (2013)'s study, for example, revealed that vocabulary knowledge was a predictor of Japanese EFL secondary school students' speaking proficiency; in fact, students with limited vocabulary knowledge had difficulty finding suitable words at the formulation stage, which interfered with their fluency. Likewise, Oya et al., (2009) found that there was a relationship between English vocabulary knowledge and accuracy, fluency and complexity regarding the speaking skills of 73 Japanese students who were studying at a language school in New Zealand.

Furthermore, two of the participants in the current study, Pensiri and Janista made it clear that they believed that students who lacked vocabulary knowledge were not confident and not able to speak well. This is supported by Akkakoson's (2016) study of Thai EFL university students' anxiety in English conversation courses, which revealed that undergraduates with limited vocabulary knowledge had anxiety when speaking and faced difficulties in understanding others. In different contexts, Singh et al.'s (2015) study of the effectiveness of vocabulary-based activities on Malaysian ESL secondary school students' speaking skills revealed that students speaking skills increased after vocabulary-based activities. This indicates that teachers who taught L2 language were aware of the importance of vocabulary when teaching speaking skills.

Interestingly, in the present study, although all the participants believed that teaching vocabulary was necessary for improving speaking skills, two participants, Teerawut and Araya, confessed that they did not know many techniques for teaching vocabulary other than defining the vocabulary through translation. All participants, including Teerawut and Araya, stated that they believed in defining vocabulary through translation, which was observed in their practices, suggesting that this was a core belief. The participants explained that using translation could help them to save time, and it was practical for teaching difficult words. This is in line with Latsanyphoen and Bouangeu's (2009) findings that the majority of their Laotian EFL student participants with low-level English proficiency improved their vocabulary knowledge through using L1 for giving instruction. Their finding could have been due to, for example, providing a clear definition and using translation exercises. Similar to López-Barrios et al.'s (2017) mixed-

methods study of Argentinian EFL high school teachers' beliefs and practices in teaching vocabulary, teachers were observed using translation frequently although they recommended using different types of techniques for teaching vocabulary. This suggests that using L1 to translate meaning is likely a common practice in many EFL contexts. On the other hand, although using translation can help teachers to save time and deal with the unpredicted vocabulary, students might forget the vocabulary easily (Thornbury, 2002). Although, translation plays an important role in L2 learning, not using L1 based techniques can interfere with learning (Hunt & Beglar, 2009). Boustani's (2019) study revealed that the majority of their Tunisian EFL students learned new vocabulary through translation. Furthermore, 70 % of them thought in L1 before translating into English when speaking. This implies that learning new vocabulary through translation excessively keeps students from thinking directly in English.

Another way to teach vocabulary is elicitation, which Nunan (1999) defines as “a procedure by which teachers stimulate students to produce samples of the structure, function, or vocabulary item being taught” (p. 306). Elicitation is a very useful technique, particularly with vocabulary that involves learners and increases student talk time (Usman et al., 2018). Furthermore, using elicitation can engage students with the lesson, encourage them to speak more and check their understanding (Thornbury, 2002) (see Section 2.5.3). It can also create learner-centred classrooms, where students link the words they knew with new words (Choudhury, 2010). In the current study, two of the participants believed in getting their students involved in vocabulary learning through elicitation, but even then, it was clear that the technique was unsuccessful in their practices. The main problem was that they allowed very little time for students to respond before providing the answers. This meant that students did not benefit from additional talk time. Yaqubi and Pourhaji Rokni's (2013) study revealed that teachers' limited wait time interfered with opportunities for student participation. They suggested that teachers extend their wait time to give students more chances to formulate their responses and that teachers could help students by using techniques, such as scaffolding, asking for clarification and repairing student responses. Clearly the teachers in the present study lacked techniques, particularly elicitation, for teaching vocabulary.

However, one technique that was observed in two participants classes was using technology for vocabulary practice. Wasin and Sakarin used games to introduce and review vocabulary, which was consistent with their beliefs in using technology e.g., Kahoot game for teaching vocabulary for speaking class. Their use of this technique is consistent with other research findings, such as the study by Medina and Hurtado (2017) which revealed that their

Ecuadorean EFL university students improved their vocabulary knowledge after learning vocabulary through playing Kahoot. Students reported that they enjoyed using the game and were interested in using technology for learning. Games can promote vocabulary acquisition because students are having fun and enthusiastically using the target vocabulary (Wells & Narkon, 2011). This indicates that online games can enhance vocabulary knowledge, and it can encourage using the vocabulary they learn for meaningful communication if the teachers design the speaking activities and their lessons effectively.

Additionally, competent speakers need multiword units to improve fluency (Lewis, 2009). Learning formulaic language enables learners to express their intentions because they contain pragmatic functions and can shorten the time between the planning stage and the articulation stage in the cognitive process (see Section 2.2) (Thornbury, 2005). For a number of years, the value of learning of and using fixed formulaic expressions has been well documented (Goh & Burns, 2012; Nation, 2003; Richards & Rodgers, 2012).

While many scholars (e.g., Goh & Burns, 2012; Nation, 2003; Pawley & Syder, 1983; Thornbury, 2002) highlight the effectiveness of teaching students lexical chunks to promote their speaking skills (see Section 2.6.3), in the present study, only Pensiri showed awareness of formulaic language. In the second pre-interview, she pointed out that students could learn the vocabulary through remembering whole sentences (see Section 4.2.2.2). This was also possibly because the textbook she used did not provide any specific vocabulary section presenting the new vocabulary words or practice exercises to use them (see Section 3.5.1). Her practice corresponded closely to her beliefs in this case; she was observed asking her students to repeat lexical phrases following the video clips. When drilled properly, lexical phrases can increase student confidence and fluency (Nattinger, 1988). Students benefit from exposure to useful lexical chunks, then they can acquire the grammar rules afterwards (Thornbury, 2002).

Nation (2003) and Richards and Rodgers (2012) suggested that collocation can promote student fluency, and several scholars (e.g., Goh & Burns, 2012; Nation, 2003; Thornbury, 2002) support teaching lexical chunks to improve speaking proficiency (see Section 2.5.3). In some cases, while beliefs were not evident in terms of teaching collocation, two teachers, Wasin and Sakarin, were observed doing this. However, this may have been simply their reliance on set coursebook exercises, as in the case of Wasin (see Section 4.2.2.2). Sakarin, on the other hand, gave examples of collocation even though they were not mentioned in the textbook (see Section 3.5.1). However, Sakarin did not mention collocation when he was asked about his vocabulary

teaching for speaking in the interview. The findings of this study suggest that most of these Thai EFL teachers still did not consciously recognise teaching vocabulary through lexical phrases.

Arguably, the lexical approach has not been successfully implemented in the classroom comparing to the grammar syllabus due to several difficulties, including unclear principles of what should be taught, a lack of a clear guideline for how a learning theory can be implemented (Harwood, 2002; Thornbury, 1998; Timmis, 2009) and unclear principles for designing lessons and teaching materials (Timmis, 2009). This is possibly an explanation of a lack of beliefs and practices relating to this approach for teaching speaking in the current study.

Importantly, another key finding of the current study clearly shows that these participants were likely to believe and use the vocabulary techniques relating to receptive knowledge in which they taught the meaning of the vocabulary instead of using techniques relating to productive knowledge, which means that students are asked to recycle the vocabulary to produce language (Lee & Muncie, 2006; Thornbury, 2002) (see Section 4.2.2). For example, all participants provided a translation for defining vocabulary without asking students to use the vocabulary for producing speech. This may be because the in-house textbook (see Section 3.5.1) that all of the participants except Wasin used did not provide any vocabulary exercises or a guide to help teachers to teach vocabulary for speaking. Additionally, Wasin confessed that he focused on teaching the meaning of the vocabulary in vocabulary practice section because it would be a part of the final exam. This suggests that the content and the format of the textbook and the influence of the exam, that is, the negative washback (see Section 2.5.9), also influenced teachers' vocabulary instruction for speaking skills. More importantly, the findings of the study indicate that the participants might teach vocabulary 'to the test' rather than focusing on using it for communication.

On the other hand, Min and Hsu (2008) argued that when students learn the vocabulary by rote memorisation, they tend to get bored. R. Kirkpatrick (2012) agreed that remembering a number of words might not guarantee that that learners will be able to use the words appropriately. Teachers are required to use teaching methods that encourage students to gain vocabulary knowledge and use it for communication (Lin, 2015). Vocabulary should be focused on both comprehension, which refers to understanding and storing vocabulary to memory, and production, which means that vocabulary is retrieved and used (Nattinger, 1988). Bailey (2005) suggested that teachers help students' receptive vocabulary become productive vocabulary by allowing them to discuss and use the words through, for example, using picture- based

activities. Teachers should encourage students to regularly use the words they have learned (I. S. P. Nation, 2013).

In summary, the current study provides insights into their beliefs, actual classrooms and how vocabulary was being taught. The results show that teachers lacked effective techniques for teaching vocabulary for speaking. In addition, the textbook that the teachers used was also influential. Moreover, the use of technology for teaching vocabulary also requires that classrooms be equipped with adequate technology, for example, internet access. The final interviews encouraged the participants to reflect on their beliefs, which helped them to become aware of what they actually do in the classroom to improve their speaking instruction.

### **5.1.3 Dominance of NES models**

This section will present and discuss the key findings regarding pronunciation. The participants' beliefs regarding pronunciation were, in fact, observed in their practices. Most of the participants did not have an awareness of the lingua franca core (LFC), which is similar to the results of previous studies (e.g., Buss, 2016; Lim, 2016) in similar EFL contexts. Significantly, the four participants' beliefs in following NES models were supported by earlier studies (e.g., Young & Walsh, 2010), whereas only two of them believed that intelligibility should be a goal for teaching pronunciation. While all of them valued the idea of introducing of ASEAN varieties of English to their students, only one participant was observed actually doing it. Additionally, although key features in pronunciation were taught, they were not observed to be present in a systematic way. Important aspects, including a lack of awareness of the LFC, NES models as preferred pronunciation models and key feature pronunciation model will be discussed next.

Since 2015, Thailand has been recognised as being a member of the ASEAN community where English is used as a lingua franca (Baker, 2012; Kirkpatrick, 2011). Some scholars (e.g., Hayes, 2010, Deterding, 2011) support the idea of using English as a lingua franca in Thailand; however, other scholars (e.g., Kuo, 2006; Snodin & Young, 2015) argued against this idea (see Section 2.5.4). Interestingly, in the present study, most of the participants were not aware of the existence of the LFC, which is consistent with the work of Snodin and Young (2015). Some (e.g., Geerson, 2013) held views that NES models provide the principles that are likely to be teachable and trustworthy, whereas an obvious problem with the LFC is that there is a lack of consensus regarding its implementation. The LFC still needs further discussion in Thailand. It

will require agreement regarding the ELF curriculum, principles of teaching, standard teaching approaches, assessment and teaching materials (Geerson, 2013) (see Section 2.5.4).

The lack of knowledge about the LFC among teachers has been evidenced in other EFL contexts in the ASEAN region. Lim's (2016) study of Cambodian EFL pre-service teachers' beliefs and practices regarding pronunciation instruction found that those teachers also lacked an awareness of the LFC. In other EFL contexts, for example Buss's (2016) survey-based study of EFL Brazilian teachers at different levels from private schools to universities found that participants overwhelmingly lacked knowledge of the LFC. This suggests that the LFC has not been adopted widely in EFL contexts similar to that of Thailand, and it puts into perspective the lack of awareness of the LFC shown by the teachers in the present study.

Interestingly, although during the interviews, I briefly discussed the concept of the LFC with the participants to bring it to their attention, most of them argued against the concept. Four of six participants agreed that it was better for their students to conform to NES models (American and British), which were observed in their practices using NES video clips or audios as a model for their students and focusing on key features in NES models. This is in line with Young and Walsh's (2010) study of 26 non-native English speakers from various countries including Asia which found that most of their teacher participants used the US variety of English as a model, especially those from Asian countries. Based on their findings, the only participant from Thailand reported that the US variety of English was a model for teaching English. Such findings again point to the fact that the Thai ELT situation has very many similar features to those found in other Asian countries.

Not only were NES models the Thai teachers' preference in the present study, but many studies have indicated that most of Thai students and residents also preferred American and British models. Snodin and Young's (2015) survey-based study of Thai residents including 251 students and 165 workers in different fields illustrated that the highest proportion (69.86 %) of the participants rated the US variety of English as their model, and 45% followed British English pronunciation. This is similar to Saengboon's (2015) survey-based study of 198 Thai university students regarding their perception of world Englishes; the data showed that the majority of these student participants believed that American and British accents were preferable to other varieties of English. The American accent was positively described as "easy, simple, beautiful..." (p. 254), whereas the British accent was described as "noble, unique, sophisticated..." (p. 254).



Snodin and Young's (2015) findings highlighted the fact that students' expectations and the curriculum used in Thailand have a great impact on the teachers' beliefs in following NES models. In Snodin and Walsh's (2010) survey-based study of non-native English teachers' beliefs and practices regarding target varieties of English, participants reported that they followed NES models to fulfil students' expectations. Traditionally, in the Thai context, British English was first used by the country's elites. American English then became widely well-known among Thais as results of the influence of American media. Not surprisingly, Thailand has been described as having "native-speaker fever in English language teaching" (Snodin & Young, 2015, p.250). Khamkhien (2010b) remarked that many Thai learners prefer their pronunciation to be as close to native-like as possible as they view these models as the "prestige norm" (p.757). The idea of 'native speakerism' might be responsible for the way English is taught in many EFL countries (Choi, 2016; Holliday, 2005, 2006).

Thus, it is clear that NES models are a desirable goal for both teachers and students in the Thai context as these models have been rooted as the primary pronunciation model for a very long time in the Thai and other Asian EFL contexts. Galloway and Rose's (2014) mixed-methods study revealed that Japanese EFL students admired NES models, especially American English, and students had a negative view towards non-native speaker (NNS) models probably because they felt having a NNS did not promote intelligibility. Similar to other EFL contexts, native-like English competence has been the primary goal for their learners (Choi, 2016).

Significantly, in the current study, the four participants who believed in following NES models also believed that a Thai accent was difficult for native English speakers to understand. During one observation, Wasin made negative comments to his students who spoke with a strong Thai accent. Speakers with a Thai accent have a problem pronouncing the final sounds of words (Smyth, 2001). This is in line with the findings of Sahatsathatsana's (2017) mixed-methods study of 12 Thai university students' problems in learning English phonetics. He found that these Thai undergraduates had difficulty in pronouncing the final sound -ed. Similarly, in the present study, Wasin and Pensiri focused on the final sound because they believed that it could interfere with intelligibility. Many EFL learners have a problem with missing the final consonant of a word when it is necessary to show grammatical meaning, such as plurality or verb tense because this feature does not exist in their first language (Lightbown & Spada, 2017) (see Section 2.4.3). In this study, teachers' efforts to avoid the Thai accent were prompted by a concern for student intelligibility when speaking to NES rather than NNS, but such beliefs were not explicitly stated by the participants in the interviews.

However, the above concern for intelligibility with NES was not found in Buss's (2016) study. She found that the teacher participants preferred having intelligibility as a goal for pronunciation instruction, and her explanation was that it was a result of their use of English to communicate among NNS in their EFL context in which their strong accent did not cause any discrimination. However, the reason behind the Thai EFL participants' belief in following NES models was possibly due to the fact that these models (British and American) have originally been introduced and been rooted in the Thai context for many decades.

Another interesting result in the current study was that while all of the participants explicitly reported beliefs that ASEAN varieties of English should be introduced in the classroom, only Sakarin did so. Other participants argued that the tensions between their beliefs and practices were due to contextual factors, for example, time constraints and lack of student motivation (see Section 5.3.2). This is to some extent in alignment with the results of Lim's (2016) mixed-methods study of Cambodian EFL pre-service teachers' beliefs and practices regarding pronunciation instruction. He found that although the participants had a positive belief toward ASEAN varieties of English, they hesitated to introduce them because their students preferred NES models. Once again, these Thai teachers displayed beliefs and practices that were found in other ASEAN countries; similar contextual features in these countries appear to influence beliefs and practices in similar ways.

Furthermore, in the present study, the four participants who believed in conforming to NES models focused on stress and intonation, which are non-core features of the LFC (see Section 2.5.4). While Jenkins (2002) claimed that stress is a non-core feature as it is not teachable, and it does not interfere with intelligibility among non-native English speakers (see Section 2.5.4), McCrocklin (2012) argued that stress should be considered a core feature as it can interfere with intelligibility with NES and that using stress inaccurately can cause difficulties in communication. Additionally, stress can enable native English speakers to identify non-native English speakers (Lightbown & Spada, 2017). However, focusing only on NES models may not be appropriate for many learners in Thailand, like many other EFL countries, as students even at the tertiary level, may not have a high expectation of contact with NES. On the other hand, there could be a significant number of students who need to interact with NES in their future careers or to study abroad; therefore, it is important to give those students the opportunity to understand NES pronunciation patterns.

In this study, two other participants, Janista and Araya, were observed not focusing on stress in practice, which were congruent with their beliefs that focusing on stress was too

challenging for their students because it could cause student anxiety. This is consistent with the findings of Khamkhien's (2010b) study, which used a pronunciation test with 90 university students; these students found the most challenging pronunciation feature to be stress, especially word stress and words with several syllables. The difficulties originated in the differences between Thai and English, as stress is not used to differentiate syllables in Thai words (Wei & Zhou, 2002).

In addition, in this current study, five participants believed in focusing on intonation as a key feature in NES models which were congruent with their practices. This included Teerawut and Wasin who believed that intonation did not interfere with intelligibility. This belief, however, runs counter to key findings from Wei and Zhou's (2002) study, which investigated Thai students' pronunciation over six years of teaching oral competence, and found that intonation was the main problem of Thai students' pronunciation, and it clearly interfered with their intelligibility (see Section 2.4.3.2). Additionally, as mentioned in Section 2.4.3.2, intonation is clearly essential to convey the emotions, feelings and purposes of the speakers (Bailey, 2005; Harmer, 2007) and was the key feature in classifying native English speakers and non-native speakers (Thornbury, 2005). However, other studies, such as Buss (2016), showed that it was not widely taught. Buss (2016) found that intonation was rarely taught in the EFL classrooms by Brazilian teachers, even though it was rated as one of the most difficult features of student pronunciation. The explanation given by Buss was that it was one of the most difficult pronunciation features for the teacher participants to deal with. It follows that their participants may have avoided teaching this key feature because of its difficulty. Both student and teacher factors affected their teaching of intonation in the EFL context. In the present study, only Araya believed that a focus on intonation might cause student anxiety. It is quite easy to accept the idea that inability and lack of confidence in using correct intonation can cause learner anxiety (Gilbert, 2014; Goh & Burns, 2012; Singh et al., 2015).

Apart from teaching intonation for yes-no questions and wh-questions briefly, none of the participants systematically taught pronunciation for other features in any observed classes. In fact, they mainly focused on correcting students' pronunciation mistakes, taught the pronunciation of the words introduced in the lessons or used drilling to teach pronunciation. All this observed activity was similar to Buss's (2016) findings that most of their Brazilian EFL teachers taught specific features when needed and did not separate pronunciation instruction from their general English instruction. Arguably, Khamkhien (2010b) suggested that Thai students should be provided with a separate pronunciation course to enable them to pronounce

words accurately; otherwise, they might have difficulties with other English skills including speaking and listening. Consequently, although it is quite normal and acceptable to teach pronunciation incidentally when mistakes arise, perhaps, more focus on a systematic teaching of pronunciation and all its features is necessary in the Thai context.

However, based on the context of the current study, students who were not English majors did not have any opportunity to study in courses focusing on pronunciation. They only learned pronunciation in general English courses including English conversation. Additionally, during their primary and secondary education in Thailand, English pronunciation was never a focus because their teachers mainly emphasised grammar. This prior learning experience could, in part, be responsible for student difficulties in learning English pronunciation at the tertiary level (Sahatsathasana, 2017). A lack of pronunciation instruction at an early stage may cause Thai students to face problems with their intelligibility and their confidence in pronunciation.

In summary, the majority of the teachers in the current study believed in following NES norms, and this belief was observed in their practices. However, most of them lacked an awareness of the debates around English as an international language and the LFC and did not recognise the need to introduce other ASEAN varieties of English to their students in the classroom. This clearly suggests that NES norms have had a great influence on the teaching of pronunciation and explains why the participants focused on key features that the LFC indicates as non-core. At the same time, the findings illustrated that approaches to the teaching of pronunciation were not systematic, as key features were not taught explicitly but taught through drilling or error correction only.

#### **5.1.4 The minimal use of communicative activities and tasks**

This section discusses the key findings of this study regarding beliefs and practices in relation to activities and tasks used in teaching speaking. The main findings focused on the participants' beliefs and reliance on using traditional techniques, including drilling and grammar practice, were reflected in their practices. Similarities can be seen in other studies (e.g., Tayjasant & Barnard, 2010) in relation to this reliance on traditional grammar teaching in the Thai context. In fact, the use of activities, including information gaps, interviews and role plays and one task that was observed in the classroom, were only occasionally used. This conceptualisation of the role of communicative activities and tasks and difficulties in implementing them will also be linked to the findings of previous studies (e.g., Choi, 2000; Wu, 2011). Key issues, including

dominance of controlled practice and difficulties in implementation of communicative activities and tasks are discussed below.

As traditional approaches and methods, such as the audiolingual method, have been implemented in classrooms in the Thai context for many decades (Seangboon, 2004), it is not surprising that techniques, such as drilling, and dialogue memorisation (Larsen-Freeman, 2010) were popular among the participants in this study or that the participants believed that using these techniques was effective for their teaching of speaking. Although, these types of practice are perfectly reasonable and important activities for learning grammar and as preparatory activities for speaking, the majority of the participants did not really see the need to go beyond them.

Four participants believed that drilling was important for speaking, and the other two participants believed that drilling was not as effective as it was with younger learners. In other words, drilling is somehow appropriate for younger learners while adult learners might find it embarrassing or uncomfortable. However, five out of six participants were observed using drilling in their classes. The goal of drilling is to form good habits through the repetition of correct utterances and to provide positive reinforcement (Bailey, 2005; Harmer, 2007; Larsen-Freeman, 2010; Richards & Rodgers, 2012). In drilling, students' mistakes are corrected immediately to ensure correct forms (Bailey, 2003). Unsurprisingly, this technique was commonly selected by the participants in this study who had a strong belief in the primacy of accuracy over fluency.

Although the context of this study was the tertiary level, the findings are not dissimilar to those studies in the slightly different context of Thai secondary school. Tayjasanant and Barnard's study (2010) of eight Thai EFL secondary school teachers' beliefs and practices regarding the use of CLT highlighted the fact that through in-depth interviews, CLT was not highly reflected in their beliefs. During observations, their participants used traditional methods including practicing language structures, repetition and translation.

It is worth pointing out that all of the participants in the current study believed in using role play to improve students' speaking skills. However, the term 'role play' seemed to focus on dialogue memorisation, or at least memorised dialogues were invariably the final stage of the role play activities they discussed or were observed using in the classroom (see Section 4.2.4.1); in fact, role play in terms of communicative theory is a perfect activity for free language production, which allows learners to use all of their language and to interact in a somewhat authentic context. In Thailand, scripted dialogues and memorisation that focused on using

language accurately were common (Wanich, 2014). Dialogue memorisation allows students to rehearse the dialogue before their performance (Khamkhien, 2010a). Teachers should provide time for students to prepare themselves “to gain much more from the whole experience” (Harmer, 2007, p. 349). Teachers can improve students’ automatization by providing speaking activities that allow them to plan and rehearse before speaking (Goh & Burns, 2012). Students benefit from dialogue memorisation in terms of experiencing words, and grammar structures in meaningful communication (Bailey, 2005).

Arguably, the conversation that students learn from a written script differs in a number of ways from the actual conversations that take place in real life (Bailey, 2005). Dialogue memorisation is a common technique in the audiolingual method (Larsen-Freeman, 2010), but the main criticism of this method is that learners are not able to apply the skills in a real-life conversation (Ellis, 1990; Richards & Rodgers, 2012) (see Section 2.5.5). Khamkhien (2010a) remarked that through using dialogue memorisation, students might be able to pass a speaking test; however, they might not even understand their conversation or produce sentences beyond their dialogue. Ellis (1990) asserted that “...memorising patterns did not lead to fluent and effective communication in real-life situations” (p.30). Students only focused on the forms while speaking without concentrating on producing their own language to convey meaning (Bailey, 2005). It is recognised that dialogue memorisation can be a step on the way to automatising language and prepare learners to speak; however, it is also necessary to provide communicative activities that allow learners to interact freely with one another (Richards, 2006).

It is worth noting that CLT has been promoted in 15 EFL countries in East Asia, including Thailand (Kam, 2002). This is reflected in the national policies of different countries which highlight the implementation of CLT into the classroom (Islam & Bari, 2012; Liao, 2004; Littlewood, 2007; Nishino, 2008) (see Section 2.5.5.3). While several studies (e.g., Choi, 2000; Wu, 2011; Ngoc, 2012) revealed that EFL teachers had positive attitudes towards this approach, Khamkhien (2010a) argued that CLT in Thailand has not been successfully implemented as teachers are still somewhat unfamiliar with it. The current study found that only two participants, Wasin and Pensiri, believed that communicative activities were important for speaking instruction, whereas in observations, only Wasin and Teerawut were seen using communicative activities, such as interviews and information gap activities, which might be seen as a nod in the direction of CLT. On the other hand, Pensiri attempted to use a cued

dialogue activity in her class, but she lost sight of the purpose of this activity by asking students to write a script following the pattern of the cued dialogue.

The findings of this study suggest that CLT approaches that focus on teaching speaking were impacted by the teachers' misunderstanding of techniques, the lack of communicative activities and tasks in the in-house textbooks (see Section 3.5.1), the participants' preferences for traditional approaches (e.g., drilling), a focus on teaching grammar rules, and the influence of final written exams. Once again, there are similarities here with an earlier study in Thailand by Tayjasanant and Barnard's (2010) study that highlighted a number of reasons or barriers for Thai secondary school teachers' failure to implement CLT, including their heavy workloads, lack of teaching resources, out of date content and washback from a predominantly grammar-based exam.

Difficulties in the implementation of CLT, however, are not peculiar to Thailand and seem to be shared by a number of countries in which English is taught as a foreign language, showing how CLT may not have taken root in other similar contexts. Al Asmari's (2015) survey-based study of 100 Saudi Arabian EFL university teachers revealed that CLT, which originated in the West, might be challenging for teachers in the EFL context because it requires student exposure to authentic language input and opportunities to practice the target language. Likewise, Musthafa (2001) stated that the Indonesian EFL context did not provide an environment suitable for the use of CLT as it lacks adequate exposure to the target language.

Yu (2001) pointed out that in China, teachers perceive their role as that of knowledge transmitter, which seems to be deeply rooted in Chinese culture. Many unqualified teachers tend to rely heavily on the grammar translation method as it allows them to teach basic English. In addition, large class sizes prevent teachers from successfully implementing of CLT. This is supported by Wu's (2011) study of nine Taiwanese non-native English teachers and 286 university students which revealed that although their participants had a positive perception towards the use of CLT, the teachers had difficulty implementing CLT because they lacked self-confidence in speaking English, knowledge regarding communicative competence, and motivation to prepare CLT teaching materials. The students' lack of English ability and their being passive learners combined with large class sizes and the influence of the grammar-based exam contributed to the challenges of implementing CLT.

These problems were similar to other EFL contexts, such as Korean and Japanese EFL contexts. Choi's (2000) study of 97 Korean high school teachers' beliefs and practices in relation to the use of CLT revealed that although Korean teachers believed in using CLT, the

difficulties, including large class sizes, lack of teaching resources, training and their low proficiency of English, impeded the transfer of their beliefs into practice. This is in agreement with Nishino's (2008) survey-based study of 21 Japanese EFL secondary teachers' beliefs and practices regarding the use of CLT, which found that large class sizes, insufficient teaching hours and teachers' lack of training were the main concerns of EFL Japanese teachers regarding CLT.

As CLT is one of the approaches that can promote students' communicative skills (Larsen-Freeman, 2010; Richards, 2006; Richards & Rodgers, 2012), one solution may be to design better textbooks that provide content relating to more communicative approaches or to provide more teacher training or even simply to hire more teachers (Liao, 2004). Indeed, there is an urgent need to select the textbooks that meet students' needs, but it is clear that textbooks will not be used effectively without knowledgeable teachers (Kanoksilapatham, 2007).

Another key finding in the present study is that while Wasin believed in using task-based language teaching, he lacked an understanding of how to implement task-based learning and that he, in fact, misunderstood of this method. While Wasin tried to use task-based learning by having students create a travel plan, his students were not able to present their travel plan without reading from a script. During the stimulated-recall interview, Wasin reported that this task might have been too challenging for his students; however, his focus on accuracy-based practice did not provide less controlled opportunities to practice and students were not ready for the rare occasions they were given for freer communicative tasks. Students did not have many opportunities to practice this type of task and did not have sufficient input to gain confidence and knowledge; therefore, unsurprisingly, they could not perform well for their first task. As illustrated in the Goh and Burns's (2012) model for teaching speaking (see Section 2.5.8), students should be prepared with language input, including the language items and the content of what they are going to say, in this way, their anxiety could also be reduced (Wang, 2014).

The results of this study are consistent with those of McDonough and Chaikitmongkol's study (2017), who studied the reactions of Thai EFL university teachers and students to the use of task-based EFL courses. Their teacher participants and students had a positive view towards TBL, but they needed guidelines for students who were only familiar with traditional approaches and for the teachers who were not ready to deal with any unexpected situations. This suggests that although these EFL participants believed in the effectiveness of the task-based learning, their limited knowledge about the approach caused difficulties in implementing them in their practices.



In summary, the participants in the current study mainly believed in using controlled practice, only two of them believed in using communicative activities and only one believed in the use of TBL for teaching speaking, showing a minimal use of communicative activities and tasks in the classroom.

### **5.1.5 Representation of intercultural knowledge in relation to speaking skills**

This section will discuss the key findings regarding the participants' beliefs and practices concerning the role of raising intercultural awareness in speaking courses. The majority of the participants believed in conforming to NES norms, which was reflected in their focus on register, as one of the NES norms. The value of ASEAN cultures was reflected in only two participants' beliefs. Two main aspects of this theme, a major focus on NES cultures, and a minor focus on ASEAN culture, will be discussed.

In Thailand, the standards for teaching students focus on NES cultures, which seem to be out of date during the time in which English as an international language is important. Moreover, the book lists suggested by the Ministry of Education focus on either American or British cultures (Darasawang & Watson Todd, 2012). Intercultural knowledge has been overlooked in the teaching process in terms of teaching materials, evaluation and curriculum (Baker, 2015). It is clear that NES norms have always been dominant for English language teaching in the Thai context, so it is not surprising to discover that all of the participants in the current study believed in following NES norms. These were observed in practice in their focus on NES norms regarding register. For example, Pensiri claimed that register was a part of NES norms. Register is one element within sociolinguistic competence in communicative competence (Canale & Swain, 1980) that Shumin (2009) highlighted as significantly contributing to speaking proficiency. Register, including politeness and formality, should be taken into consideration when communicating in any situation (Canale, 1983; Thornbury, 2005) (see Section 2.3.2). Register is used to distinguish formal from informal language and also distinguishes spoken language from written language. Non-native speakers may struggle to acquire register sufficiently because they lack exposure to authentic language used in EFL and ESL contexts (Lee & Bathmaker, 2007). This implies that promoting register could help students to speak English appropriately in various situations.

On the other hand, since 2015, Thailand had been a part of the ASEAN community where people in different cultures were likely to have contact with each other (see Section 2.3.5). Kongkerd (2013) and Baker and Jarunthawatchai (2017) encouraged teachers to raise

students an awareness of their ASEAN cultures to prevent misunderstandings. In the current study, while Sakarin and Araya believed that it was important to introduce ASEAN cultures to students, four other participants did not hold the same belief. Wasin, in particular, believed that it was not important. In practice, no participants were observed introducing ASEAN cultures. They argued that it was because of a lack of ASEAN content in the textbook (See section 4.2.5.1). This is similar to the findings from Bunwirat's (2017) survey-based study, which revealed that 38 % of their Thai EFL university teacher participants in the northern part of Thailand believed that ASEAN cultures should be taught to avoid misunderstandings that might occur during cross-country communication. Clearly, the proportion of those suggesting that ASEAN cultures should be introduced did not seem to be very high, without their classroom observation, there was no data showing whether or not these teacher participants transferred their beliefs in presenting ASEAN cultures to their classrooms.

Additionally, in the current study, the participants were not particularly forthcoming in discussing their beliefs relating the integration of ASEAN cultures in speaking instruction, which may have been because these trends had only recently been introduced in Thailand. Thus, it is unsurprising that these teachers did not have a great awareness of issues regarding ASEAN cultures. This lack of focus on the value of ASEAN cultures was similar in Waterworth's (2016) study of English teachers' attitudes from eight out of ten ASEAN countries, including Thailand. It follows that their teacher participants taught only NES cultures and that their students lacked an awareness of the ASEAN community.

In summary, the findings discussed above indicate that the Thai teachers in the current study did not put an emphasis on introducing ASEAN cultures to their students, but they followed NES norms. These norms were reflected in their focus on register, which may imply that NES norms dominate because of their long-standing presence in the Thai context and the relatively new formation of the ASEAN community. Furthermore, teaching NES models was possibly all these participants could do due to the lack of any clarity on lingua franca, however, this study suggests that these teachers should also be aware of other cultures as their students will likely to come in contact with more non-native English speakers from different countries than native English speakers.

### **5.1.6 The Use of L1 for teaching speaking skills: A mixed picture**

Teachers' handbooks (e.g., Harmer, 2007) suggest that using L1 can be very important, useful and efficient in the classroom to help students to learn L2; however, overuse of L1 can prevent adequate exposure to the target language. Previous studies (e.g., Hall & Cook, 2014; Schweer Jr, 1999) pointed out that L1 can be used appropriately at key points. The results of the current study revealed different beliefs about using L1; however, in practice, they seemed to mainly use L1.

Three teachers who believed in the necessity of using L1, and they were observed using L1 in their classrooms. This finding is in agreement with earlier studies (e.g., Tayjasanant & Barnard, 2010) in the Thai context. On the other hand, two teacher participants who expressed beliefs in balancing the use of L1 and L2 and another participant who believed in maximising L2 were all observed using more L1 than L2 in their classrooms. These findings were similar to some earlier studies (e.g., Choi, 2000; Hall & Cook, 2014).

The use of L1 in English language classrooms has long been a subject of debate. (Mahmoudi & Amirkhiz, 2011; Shin, Dixon, & Choi, 2019). While some teaching methods such as the audiolingual method and direct method do not allow the use of L1 in the classroom, supporters of CLT recognise that it is not necessary or desirable to use L2 at all times (Larsen-Freeman, 2010). While many scholars have supported the use of L1 in the L2 classroom (e.g., Jadallah & Hasan, 2010; Latsanyphone & Bouangeune, 2009; Schweers Jr, 1999) to help engage students in learning L2, others (e.g., Krashen, 1981; Mahmoudi & Amirkhiz, 2011) have argued against this idea as it might prevent the process of acquiring L2 (see Section 2.5.6). In the current study, the three participants who believed in the necessity of using L1 were observed doing so, which is in accordance with Tayjasanant and Barnard's (2010) study of Thai EFL secondary school teachers' beliefs and practices regarding the use of CLT. They found that the participants who believed in the necessity of using L1 transferred their beliefs to their practices. This suggests that the concept of using L1 in the L2 classroom was employed by teachers at different educational levels in the Thai context.

EFL teachers in various EFL countries also believed in the necessity of L1 in the classroom. Al-Nofale's (2010) study of teachers' and students' attitudes towards using L1 in EFL Saudi Arabian classrooms revealed that their participants had a positive attitude towards using Arabic, and they were observed using it in the classroom to a certain extent. Schweers Jr's (1999) study of EFL university teachers' use of L1 for teaching in Puerto Rico found that all of their teacher participants asserted that they used L1 in their ELT classrooms to some

extent, but the majority of their participants believed that L1 should be used. The finding of his study resonates with the findings of Jadallah and Hasan's (2010) study that explored EFL university teachers' use of L1 in English language teaching. They found that NES teachers and 62.5 % of NNS teachers in Jordan believed that L1 should be used in the classroom.

It is worth noting that in the current study, although two of the participants believed in using both English and Thai for teaching and one participant believed in maximizing L2, in practice, they used more Thai than English. These findings confirm the results of earlier studies in the EFL context. Choi's (2000) study of Korean EFL teachers' beliefs and practices in the use of CLT found that the teachers who believed in maximising the use of L2 reported using L1 in their practices.

In the current study, the participants claimed many reasons for using L1: to help students to understand the lesson more clearly, to save time for giving instruction, to engage students with the lesson by establishing rapport, to incorporate humour, to praise students and to help teachers when they themselves face difficulties in using L2. These shared the similar findings with earlier studies (e.g., Al-Nofaie, 2010; Hall & Cook, 2014; Schweer Jr, 1999).

First, the participants in this study revealed that mainly they used L1 to help students to understand the lesson better. Sakarin and Wasin clearly stated that it was necessary to use L1 for explaining grammar rules. Wasin also pointed out that using L1 saved him time. This study corroborates the findings of a great deal of work conducted in this field of teaching. Hall and Cook's (2014) mixed-methods study of the perceptions of teachers from different countries toward the use of L1 in ELT classrooms found that although the participants felt that English should be a main medium used in the classroom, they used L1 in their class to some extent to explain grammar structures and the meaning of the vocabulary, particularly with students with low levels of English proficiency. This is in line with Schweers Jr's (1999) mixed-methods study of Puerto Rican EFL university teachers' attitudes towards the use of L1, which indicated that mostly these teachers used L1 to explain difficult concepts, and to check for students' understanding because it met students' needs. Similarly, Al-Nofaie's (2010) mixed-methods study of Saudi Arabian EFL students and teachers' attitudes towards using L1 revealed a positive attitude toward using L1, especially for explaining grammar rules, presenting the new vocabulary and explaining the exam instructions.

Because they are responsible for a heavy workload, Thai teachers used L1 for teaching grammar, giving instruction, and using a teacher-centered approach (Noom-Ura, 2013). Instead of taking time to explain lessons in the target language, using L1 can help teachers to save time

explaining grammar rules and defining the meaning of vocabulary (Jadallah & Hasan, 2010). The similarity among the studies mentioned above illustrate that the participants in the current study seemed to focus on teaching English as knowledge rather than viewing English as a medium for communication.

The findings of the present study also reveal that Wasin used L1 for teaching because of positive feedback from his students, which meant that they used L1 to engage students with the lesson. Apart from this, Wasin and Pensiri used L1 to incorporate humour in their classrooms. These findings are in line with those reported by Schweers Jr (1999) that Puerto Rican EFL university students had positive feedback towards the use of L1 because they felt it helped them in L2 learning. Their participant teachers also used L1 to incorporate humour; this is consistent with Hall and Cook's (2014) study, which revealed that their teacher participants from different countries used L1 to build rapport with students. Additionally, in the current study, Wasin was observed code switching from English to Thai to praise his students. L1 could be used in presenting new concepts, reviewing the lesson, engaging student interest and praising students (Jadallah & Hasan, 2010).

On the other hand, Mahmoudi and Amirkhiz's (2011) interview-based study of the attitudes of Persian EFL pre-university students' and teachers towards the use of L1 found that their students reported not being satisfied with the extensive use of L1 and that it could demotivate them in learning English; students felt disappointed by the overuse of L1 as some of their teachers used only L1 for teaching and did not provide time for them to use L2. In fact, this finding differed from the findings of the present study in that while Wasin taught grammar rules in Thai, he allocated some time for himself and students to use L2. While his students may have benefited from L1 explanations to understand the grammar rules, they also had opportunities to use English in some activities and tasks. This might explain why Wasin reported that his students felt positive towards his use of L1 (see Section 4.3.2).

However, even though the use of L1 can enable students to understand grammatical rules and learn the meaning of the new vocabulary, one reason for minimising its use is that it can prevent learners from improving their use of the target language (Choomthong, 2014; Jadallah & Hasan, 2010; Tarat, 2016). Overuse of L1 can cause fossilisation in interlanguage (Choomthong, 2014), whereas exposing students to the target language in a natural way can help them to reduce fossilisation (Wei, 2008). It is worth noting that extensive use of L1 can prevent students from exposure to the target language, especially in the EFL context where the classroom is the important place where students have opportunities to use L2 (see Section

2.5.6). Therefore, judicious use of L1 only when it can promote students' L2 learning might be the solution (Chiou, 2014; Choomthong, 2014; Hall & Cook, 2014; Mahmoudi & Amirkhiz, 2011; Shin et al., 2019).

Furthermore, although not often noticed during the observations, the current study found that the use of L1 by the participants was also reported to come from difficulties the teachers themselves faced when using the target language (see Section 4.2.6.1). Moreover, overuse of L1 might be a result of their lack of confidence in their English proficiency. On the other hand, a limited amount of observation data, it is hard to come to conclusion on this factor in the current study.

Several scholars (e.g., Hall & Cook, 2014; Kanoksilapatham, 2007; Kaur, et al., 2016) have maintained that Thai EFL teachers lack English proficiency. Many Thai teachers have a low level of English speaking proficiency; therefore, they mainly use L1 in the classroom (Karnnawakul, 2004; Kimsuvan, 2004). The difficulties in spoken language shared the similarity with Thai EFL teachers in other levels. Nonkukhetkhong et al.'s (2006) study of Thai secondary school teachers found that their teachers only used English for giving basic instruction. This constraint also exists in other EFL contexts. Chen and Koh's (2011) mixed-methods study of Chinese EFL teachers in higher education found teachers reported that they were disappointed with their low self-efficacy in terms of their own speaking competence and their teaching knowledge. Their lack of self-efficacy belief in their own speaking proficiency prevented them from using L2 in their classrooms.

In summary, the findings showed that regardless of these participants' beliefs toward the use of L1, they were all observed using more L1 than L2 in the classroom mainly to engage students with learning rather than improving their language learning. Factors that caused the participants to use L1 included providing a better understanding of the lesson, saving time, establishing good rapport with students and coping with teachers' difficulties in using the target language.

### **5.1.7 An awareness of affective factors regarding teaching speaking skills**

This section will discuss the main findings regarding the participants' beliefs and practices regarding affective factors and speaking skills. Primarily, five of the participants believed that their students suffered from anxiety while learning in their speaking course, which is consistent with the findings of previous studies (e.g., Akkakoson, 2016) in the Thai context. Interestingly, all of the participants held the belief that decreasing the level of anxiety for students was a focus

of their teaching. For the most part, their beliefs were transferred to their practices, with the significant exception regarding the time they allowed for corrective feedback.

When students have to speak within a limited time frame, they have anxiety (Goh & Burns, 2012), and speaking in a foreign language seems to cause the highest level of anxiety (Young, 1990) (see Section 2.5.7). Several scholars (e.g., Bhatti & Memon, 2016; Heng et.al, 2012; Henter, 2014) highlighted that anxiety had a great impact for students' speaking competence. Akkakoson's (2016) survey-based study of 282 Thai undergraduates' anxiety while studying in English conversation courses found that their students had moderate anxiety. In the current study, five out of six participants were aware that their students had some form of speaking anxiety, while six of them believed that reducing anxiety was central to the teaching of speaking.

The current study revealed that these teachers' belief in reducing students' anxiety was linked to their beliefs in the need to create a friendly classroom atmosphere. In this study, the participants were observed using humour, employing fun activities e.g., games and creating a friendly atmosphere through establishing rapport with students and monitoring students' closely to reduce the gap between them and their students. It is widely accepted that one of the teacher's roles is to ensure an atmosphere that is conducive to reducing anxiety, and this can be achieved by using enjoyable activities (Akkakoson, 2016; Setya Pertiwi, 2019). Teachers need to build rapport that establishes "a positive, enjoyable and respectful relationship" (p. 113) with students. Rapport could be strengthened when teachers and students can use humour with each other (Harmer, 2007).

Zhipping's (2013) study of international students' anxiety in speaking in one Malaysian university found that these student participants were satisfied with their teachers' strategies in making jokes in the classroom. Similarly, Farrell and Yang's (2017) case study of one EAP English teacher's beliefs and practices in teaching L2 speaking in Canada demonstrated that she believed that L2 students had a positive attitude towards learning when she used humour in the classroom, which was congruent with her practice. Additionally, the use of games by the participants in this study to create a fun atmosphere is in line with Al-Issa's (2009) study of EFL Omani student teachers' beliefs. Those teachers believed that games could help them to create an enjoyable and motivating classroom, build good rapport with students and promote student involvement. Clearly, creating a friendly atmosphere is widely held belief among L2 teachers.

Another interesting point is that the participants in the current study believed in providing delayed feedback to avoid causing student anxiety. This is supported by Akkakoson's

(2016) study of Thai EFL university students' anxiety while studying in English conversation courses. He found that students who were evaluated negatively had issues with anxiety and a negative attitude towards speaking class. Similarly, the findings of Bhatti and Memon (2016) revealed that EFL college students in Pakistan had anxiety in English language learning as a result of their fear of being evaluated by teachers and their friends; their lack of confidence and ability in speaking was due to their lack of opportunity to practice speaking English.

On the other hand, during the observations, all the participants in the current study were seen correcting students' errors immediately, which can prevent them from learning the target language naturally (Thornbury, 2005). This is in accordance with Ölmezer-Öztürk and Öztürk's (2016) mixed-methods study of the perceptions of twelve 18 to 20-year-old Turkish EFL students towards types and timing of oral corrective feedback. They found that using immediate corrective feedback made students aware of their mistakes; however, it caused them anxiety and demotivated them to participate in class, particularly when the teacher used it often. Significantly, these participants viewed delayed corrective feedback as a useful way to decrease their anxiety.

Likewise, B. Mak's (2011) survey-based study of factors contributing to 313 Chinese university students' speaking anxiety in Hong Kong revealed that when teachers pointed out students' mistakes while they were speaking in front of the class, it caused them anxiety. This contradicted Ananda et al.'s (2017) survey-based study of 76 Indonesian EFL university students' attitude toward corrective feedback. The majority of them preferred their teachers to provide immediate corrective feedback to help them not to forget their errors. However, most of them preferred to be given corrective feedback privately and individually. This suggests that direct error correction is valuable; therefore, teachers need to consider how to provide situation-appropriate corrective feedback.

In summary, the findings of the current study provide insights into how these teachers reduced student anxiety in the classroom reflecting their beliefs in decreasing anxiety except for the use of corrective feedback. Additionally, the data relating to providing corrective feedback suggests that teachers should always reflect upon their beliefs, for example, belief in providing delayed feedback, to help them to become more aware of transferring their beliefs to their practices.



### **5.1.8 Negative Washback on Teaching Speaking and English-Speaking Test**

Washback is “the influence of testing on teaching and learning” (Bailey, 1996, p. 259). It is worth pointing out that negative washback hinders student development (Bailey, 2005; Taylor, 2005) (see Section 2.5.9). When students receive a low score, it causes teachers to have negative feelings; therefore, teachers try to help students to gain a high score or pass the exam.

Additionally, teachers are pressured to help students to attain good results to satisfy the expectations of employers and parents. Some teachers reduce or ignore some content that will not be tested to focus on other parts to narrow the curriculum and save time causing negative washback (Smith, 1991). Previous studies (e.g., Aftab et al., 2014; Cheng, 1997; Kilickaya, 2016; Lee & Bathmaker, 2017) found that almost all language teachers were influenced to some degree by the exam their students had to take (see Section 2.5.9).

In the current study, the findings also illustrated that there was a degree of negative washback (see Section, 2.5.9) as the written summative exam, which accounted for 40 out of 100 points for English conversation courses and 50 out of 100 points for another course focusing on listening and speaking skills had a great impact on how teachers taught speaking skills and prevented students from developing their speaking skills (Bailey, 2005; Taylor 2006). Although there were speaking tests in their courses in the context of this study, the proportion of the points from the written exam was quite high.

In the current study, negative washback partially influenced teachers’ teaching methodologies, which was evident in their practices. To clarify, the reasons behind Sakarin’s focus on grammar rules, Teerawut’s focus on accuracy, Araya’s and Wasin use of L1, and Wasin’s focus on complex sentences were to some extent due to the influence of the summative assessment in which grammar would be tested (See section 4.2.8). This is possibly due to the fact that having a grammar test could help save time as it is easier to evaluate than a speaking test (Thornbury, 2005), and assessment for speaking skills requires more complex techniques (Hirai & Koizumi, 2009). This is consistent with Hayes’s (2009) interview-based study of six Thai EFL secondary school teachers’ subjective perceptions and their practices. He found that while his participants believed in using CLT, they felt pressure to use traditional approaches along with CLT approaches to teach grammar structures in L1 owing to the influence of university entrance exams. It was not because they lacked awareness of innovative approaches, but their use of traditional approaches matched students’ needs (e.g., low-level students), and also promoted student understanding of the grammar rules that were an important part of the exam. This causes a difficult balancing act for teachers. In the current study, while Wasin

attempted to engage students with communicative activities, he also used a great deal of translation because of the influence of the exam. He stated that “surely, the exam is important.”, and he was “afraid that students might fail the exam.”, so ... he tried to “translate it for them.” (FI). This is similar to Amengual-Pizarro’s (2009) findings regarding the strong influence of the exam on the practices of Spanish EFL teachers.

Additionally, Wasin confessed that he focused on teaching the meaning of the vocabulary because it would be tested in the final exam, suggesting that he felt preparing his students for the test was more important than developing their communicative ability. This is consistent with Kilickaya’s (2016) interview-based study of 30 Turkish EFL lower-secondary school teachers that found teachers were influenced by the exam causing them to focus on the content and style of the exam rather than focusing on speaking skills. This included providing a list of vocabulary to remember and using L1 to teach grammar structures.

Thus, the findings of the current study confirmed the results of the previous studies that the format of the high-stakes exam has a great impact on how teachers teach. In the current study, it involved using traditional approaches, using L1 to provide the meaning of vocabulary and avoiding teaching some content that would not be tested, which resulted in students not practicing and improving their speaking skills. On the other hand, the Amengual-Pizarro’s (2009) study found that their teacher participants believed that having a speaking section in the high-stakes test could encourage them to provide more oral practice for their students to promote communication. Positive washback can occur when, for example, an oral proficiency test is introduced to promote speaking instruction (Taylor, 2005). In addition to the above, this suggests that when teachers focus on the test, teacher education might be more important and bring more benefits since research has not shown that ‘teaching to the test’ is effective (Green, 2013).

Another interesting finding in the current study is that some participants, for example, Janista, Araya and Wasin, were observed using dialogue memorisation as a part of their speaking assessment. They asked students to create a script and provided some corrective feedback before allowing them to perform the script. Khamkhien (2010a) reported that this kind of dialogue memorisation was commonly used in the Thai context at that time of his writing article. However, he questioned this type of activity since the language used, and the interaction is not natural or realistic. Students have time to rehearse their lines, and they can take turns speaking in conversation without questioning when their interlocutor mispronounces words. In fact, the latter would normally cause a communication breakdown. A natural dialogue

demands that interlocutors listen to each other, but recital of a scripted dialogue effectively prevents learners from producing spontaneous speech.

Arguably, communication is not necessary when the language used is highly predicted (Nunan, 1999). Communicative language tests should imitate real communication that “provides something for test takers to talk and think about” (Bailey, 1996, p. 261). As suggested by Bailey (2005), “a test that measures what it is intended to measure is called a ‘valid test’”. (p. 21). This suggests that using dialogue memorisation as a test is perhaps not suitable for measuring students’ speaking proficiency as it does not constitute a valid speaking test. This implies that it is not enough to provide a speaking test, but that such a test should be carefully designed to be a valid test, or negative washback will ensue. The speaking test used in the classroom should evaluate students’ actual speaking proficiency in order to find ways to help them to improve their speaking skills.

In summary, in the current study, negative washback influenced the teachers’ beliefs and their practices, which affected the provision of opportunities for students to improve their speaking skills. The example of the exam used to evaluate students’ speaking skills in the context of this study points out the need to design valid tests if negative washback is to be avoided. This study provides insights into the reality of Thai EFL classroom and gives important information to educators in terms of curriculum design, test design and teacher training needs, all of which will be considered in more depth in the implementation section.

## **5.2 Sources Forming Teachers’ Beliefs with Respect to Teaching Speaking Skills**

As teachers’ beliefs influence their practices, the origin of their beliefs is extremely important. Borg’s framework (1997 as cited in Borg 2003) pointed out different sources forming teachers’ beliefs including schooling, professional coursework and teaching experience (see Section 2.6.5). Several previous studies revealed that the sources of teacher’s beliefs were various and included their experiences as learners (e.g., Alghanmi & Shukri, 2016; Jafari et al., 2015), their own teaching experiences (e.g., Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2017; Yoshihara, 2012), teacher education programmes (e.g., Alghanmi & Shukri, 2016; Debreli, 2016) and continuing professional development (e.g., Moini, 2009; Scott & Rogers, 1995).

This section will answer the third research question: “what are the sources forming Thai EFL university teachers’ beliefs in relation to teaching speaking skills?”. Although the earlier studies revealed sources of teachers’ beliefs in different areas, the findings of the current study

indicate that origin of teacher's beliefs regarding speaking instruction shared similarity with the results of those previous studies. The key findings of the present study illustrate that the most influential source in the formation of teachers' beliefs was their experiences as learners followed by their own teaching experiences. Teacher education programmes and continuing professional development were influential to some extent, but they were not key sources. The following sections will discuss each source of the teachers' participants' beliefs in detail.

### **5.2.1 Experiences as learners**

Teachers' beliefs often reflect how they were taught as students (Richards & Lockhart, 1997). Lortie (1975) called this "the Apprenticeship of Observation" (p. 61) when he referred to the number of hours language teachers spent observing their teachers throughout school. The participants in the current study all reported that their experiences as learners were influential in shaping their beliefs relating to teaching speaking in various areas, including using explicit grammar instruction for speaking skills, employing traditional approaches and adopting NES models as their preferred pronunciation models. Interestingly, the findings also indicate that these beliefs seemed to be specifically rooted in the Thai context. Importantly, the findings reveal that both good and bad experiences as learners were influential in forming beliefs, as has been seen in the findings of other studies (e.g., Hayes, 2010; Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2017). The findings of the current study confirm those of previous studies (e.g., Alghanmi & Shukri, 2016; Tayjasanant & Barnard, 2010; Yoshihara, 2012) that experiences as learners were the most important source in the information of their teacher participants' beliefs and it adds the literature by supporting and reinforcing the findings of previous studies regarding the sources of teachers' beliefs.

All the teachers reported that their experiences as learners were the origin of their beliefs relating to teaching grammar for speaking courses. Pensiri, for example, recalled how her teachers focused extensively on grammar rules. She stated that at that time, although she did not have many opportunities to speak, with the knowledge of grammar rules, she felt able to form language to speak correctly. While a number of other studies reported the importance of learner experiences in shaping a teacher's beliefs in grammar, they did not focus specifically on the area of speaking skills. Alghanmi and Shukri's (2016) study of Saudi Arabian EFL teachers' beliefs regarding teaching grammar, for example, revealed that 70% of the teacher participants stated that they formed their belief in grammar instruction through their experiences as learners.

The participants' beliefs in this study were consistently reported to be formed through their experiences as learners, including using traditional approaches and methods, such as focusing on accuracy over fluency, using L1 for giving instruction, employing extensive controlled practice and defining vocabulary through translation. Moreover, their interpretation of dialogue memorisation as a final step in role play activities could also relate to their learning experiences. It was evident in Sakarin and Teerawut's interviews that their teachers asked them to 'write a script' to carry out 'a role play'. These traditional approaches and methods have been used in Thailand for decades (Punthumasan, 2007; Saengboon, 2004) (see Section 2.5.5) so such findings are not surprising. Tayjasant and Barnard's (2010) case study of eight Thai EFL secondary school teachers illustrates this well. They found that the participants used traditional approaches in teaching Thai high school students because they were taught by using such approaches. The implication of that study and the current study is that long-established approaches in this context were still dominant.

Khamkhien (2010a) stated that at the time of his study, most Thai EFL teachers were still not familiar with CLT; therefore, the implementation of CLT was unlikely to be successful. This is also consistent with another study conducted in an EFL context. Jafari et al.'s (2015) study of Iranian EFL high school teachers' attitudes towards the use of CLT approach found that their difficulties implementing this approach indicated that they had been taught through traditional approaches, and they emphasised teaching grammar rules in the belief that their students needed to understand the rules clearly. However, tellingly, these teacher participants were also critical of the way they were taught because they felt that it had led to their lack of speaking competence, which impeded their implementation of CLT. However, in the current study, only one participant was critical of how his teacher taught him in a similar way.

Four out of six participants believed that their students should follow NES models. There is clear evidence in Sakarin's case, for example, when he stressed that he was taught NES models from the time he was young, and that, therefore, introducing other models might cause a conflict. As mentioned in Sections 2.6.4 and 5.4, NES models have long been viewed as a desirable pronunciation model for Thai people. This belief has been passed down from generation to generation and is clearly deep rooted and difficult to change. The goal for many Thais is to approximate as closely as possible to native English speaker pronunciation. These results are consistent with Young and Walsh's (2010) investigation of EFL teachers beliefs in varieties of English. They found that those who held beliefs in teaching NES models (American

and British) were taught with a “local variety” (p.130) of English depending on their teachers. However, in this case, their teachers’ pronunciation was quite close to NES models.

Furthermore, in the present study, there is clear evidence that two participants, Wasin and Sakarin, formed their beliefs about teaching grammar for speaking through both their good and bad experiences as learners (see Section 4.3.1). For example, Wasin did not like it when his teachers did not explain grammar rules explicitly, whereas Sakarin was impressed with a teacher who explained grammar clearly using L1 (see Section 4.3.1). It is not surprising that some teacher participants adopted beliefs and practices based on those they observed in teachers they reported to ‘like’, while not adopting the method of teachers they reported to ‘dislike’. To clarify, Janista insisted that she definitely would not follow the behaviour of her teacher who yelled at students. Sakarin and Teerawut similarly formed their beliefs regarding corrective feedback through their bad experiences as learners. They reported that they would not follow their teachers’ examples in terms of providing direct corrective feedback (see Section 4.3.1). On the other hand, through their positive experiences, Wasin and Teerawut asserted their beliefs in building a friendly classroom atmosphere.

The results of the current study confirmed previous findings that both positive and negative experiences as learners were influential in the formation of beliefs. Öztürk and Gürbüz’s (2017) case study of three Turkish EFL university teachers’ sources of beliefs found that their participants all manifested some traces of the teaching techniques and activities they had experienced as learners. One of the participants stated that she admired the teachers who had positive personalities, such as cheerful and friendly manners, whereas she was not impressed with another teacher who treated students as passive learners. This is consistent with Hayes’s (2010) case study of one Thai EFL teacher, which revealed that good experiences with her teachers formed her positive attitude towards learning English. She still remembered how her teachers’ enthusiasm made her interested in English and crucially, those teachers became her role models.

In the current study, three of the participants formed their beliefs through their self-learning experiences. Wasin and Sakarin reported that watching their favourite programmes in which the hosts followed NES (British and American) models formed their belief in the superiority NES models. Additionally, Janista’s experience in learning vocabulary through listening to news reports and reading the newspaper shaped her belief that vocabulary was effectively learned by linking the classroom to the real world, for example, through news. Moreover, negative experiences in learning English could influence the teachers’ beliefs. It was

evident that Janista's belief that intelligibility should be a goal for teaching pronunciation might come from her own difficulties in achieving NES pronunciation (see Section 4.3.1).

These findings are in accordance with Baleghizadeh and Nasrollahi Shahri's (2014) interview-based study of three Iranian EFL teachers' conceptions of speaking competence. The participants' own ways of practicing speaking were applied in their classrooms. One of their participants reported that he had acquired phrases including slang and sentences from movies and music lyrics. He also applied this technique in his classroom by asking his students to watch authentic materials to acquire language. This is supported by Öztürk and Gürbüz's (2017) study of the sources forming three Turkish EFL university teachers' beliefs. Their study indicated that one participant's own experiences in learning vocabulary through noting down the vocabulary with their meaning in L1 and L2, parts of speech and phonetics in a separate vocabulary notebook were applied. One of the issues that emerged was that what teachers directly experienced in learning language, apart from what they observed their teachers doing, could also form their beliefs regarding teaching speaking.

In summary, as Nisbett and Ross (1980) remarked that beliefs formed in early experiences later become beliefs that are resistant to change. The current study had similar findings; many of the participants' beliefs that were formed during the time as learners remained unchanged and influenced their beliefs throughout their teaching careers (Borg, 2003) (see Section 2.6.5). Additionally, their personal learning experiences formed their beliefs as they directly experienced whether it was effective for learning.

### **5.2.2 Teacher experiences**

As proposed in Borg's framework (1997 as cited in Borg 2003), teaching experience is one of the main influences on teachers' beliefs (see Section 2.6.5). Similarly, Richards and Lockhart (1997) stressed the notion that teaching experience is considered "a primary source of beliefs about teaching" (p. 31). Teaching experience is a period that teachers find their own teaching style. During this time, it forms beliefs that replace the ideal language teaching that they had been taught in an educational teacher programme to cope with their real context. The new beliefs can relate to teaching materials, tasks and the decisions they make in their own classrooms (Abdullah & Majid, 2013; Borg, 2003) (see Section 2.6.5). This section will focus on the findings regarding teaching experience as a source of teachers' beliefs in this study to answer the third research question. The data suggests that teacher experience was influential in the formation of teachers' beliefs mainly relating to teaching approaches and methods, which

was consistent with the results of a number of previous studies. Additionally, the findings illustrated that students' positive feedback and reactions to their own teaching also strengthened their pre-existing beliefs.

Three of the participants, Pensiri, Sakarin and Teerawut, explicitly stated that their teaching experience formed their beliefs about teaching approaches and methods. The data demonstrates that while teaching, the participants had opportunities to experiment with teaching approaches and methods they had learned to adjust them for their own classroom contexts. Their teaching experience helped them to realise what approaches, and methods were compatible with their students' needs and abilities (see Section 4.3.2). Their own experience taught them, what could be used effectively and what could not (Richards & Lockhart, 1997).

This confirmed the findings of an earlier interview-based study by Yoshihara's (2012), which found that one of the teacher participants in an ESL programme in Hawaii formed her beliefs in using multi-methods through her own teaching experience. She adjusted different teaching approaches to match each student's learning styles. This is parallel to the findings of Öztürk and Gürbüz (2017) who conducted a mixed-methods study with three Turkish EFL university teachers to investigate the sources of their beliefs. Their study found that while spending a large amount of time gaining teaching experience, one of their participants had a more predictable teaching style. Contrary to the findings of that particular study, three participants in the current study, Teerawut, Sakarin and Pensiri, claimed that they always adjusted their teaching to meet the needs of different types of students. A possible explanation for this might be that the participants believed in engaging students with the lesson, which was clearly seen in Sakarin's case (see Section 5.3.1).

Another point is that the participants' beliefs regarding using an explicit grammar approach and the necessity of using L1, which were formed through their experiences as learners were reinforced through their teaching experiences. This was likely because while teaching, the teachers found that their pre-existing beliefs were practical, and suitable for their classrooms and Thai students clearly appreciated this approach; however, this is not to suggest that this method is necessarily the most effective in terms of developing communicative skills. On the other hand, it is worth noting that teaching experience provides time for teachers to consider their previous knowledge by experimenting with it in their practices and adjusting their knowledge to suit the real context (Abdullah & Majid, 2013; Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2017).

Additionally, the present study found that students' reactions and feedback reinforced their beliefs in using L1 and using humour to create a relaxed classroom atmosphere, which was



clearly evident in Wasin's case. This is in agreement with the results of the study reported by Öztürk and Gürbüz (2017). They revealed that students' feelings, and welfare were the central concern of their teacher participants. This suggests that student feedback and their responses were a possible indicator for teachers to see whether they were moving in the right direction to accomplish their goals (Abdullah & Majid, 2013).

In brief, the results of the current study confirmed the findings of previous studies (e.g., Abdullah & Majid, 2013; Farrell & Yang, 2017; Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999; Yoshihara, 2012) that teaching experience was influential in shaping the participants' beliefs and importantly, that pre-existing beliefs acquired through experiences as learners can be reinforced through their own teaching experience.

### **5.2.3 Teacher education programmes**

Previous studies (e.g., Alghanmi & Shukri, 2016; Debreli, 2016) have revealed that teacher education programmes were influential in forming teachers' beliefs. However, teachers enter these programmes with pre-existing beliefs (Abdullah & Majid, 2013; Freeman & Johnson, 1998). Although similar to some earlier studies, in the present study, three of the participants clearly stated that their teacher education programmes were not the main source of their beliefs regarding teaching speaking skills. This is discussed below.

In his second pre-interview, Wasin stated that what he learned from his teacher education program was not practical for his students (see Section 4.3.3). This was in line with the case study carried out by Öztürk and Gürbüz (2017), which found that their EFL teacher participants had difficulties in applying knowledge from their teacher education programme into their teaching during their early years of teaching. This is similar to another study conducted in the ESL context by Pennington and Richards's (1997). Their mixed-methods study of five inexperienced ESL teachers in Hong Kong found that these participants had difficulties implementing what they were taught in their actual classrooms. They were likely to use traditional approaches that were not supported by the programme.

Apart from this, the study by Öztürk and Gürbüz (2017) further illustrated that one of their three participants reported that although he learned many teaching theories in his pre-service teacher education programme, he felt that he was not well prepared for facing the reality of an actual classroom. This is similar to the results of the present study, particularly in Pensiri's case. In her first pre-interview, she maintained that the educators at her teacher education programme only provided her with theories for teaching through lectures. The implication here

is that purely theoretical teacher education delivery, which is based on information transmission only, is unlikely to be effective if more practical teaching is not involved. Choi and Lee (2018) suggested that their pre-service teacher participants would have a higher level of self-efficacy beliefs in using communicative practices if their teacher education programme had provided more opportunities for practicing such practices. Sakarin, Janista and Araya argued that speaking instruction was not highly focused on their teacher education programme possibly because the curriculum of the programme focused on how to give instruction in general. This point made here is that specific skills, such as speaking, were not adequately covered.

Wasin made it very clear that he had already formed his beliefs about teaching before attending his teacher education programme. Once again, this is evidence of how resistant to change such early beliefs can be. It is also in line with Borg's (2011) mixed-methods study of the impact of teacher education programmes in the formation of six in-service teachers' beliefs in the UK. He found that these teachers became aware of their own beliefs and that their pre-existing beliefs were also heightened after attending the eight-week programme; at the same time, their pre-existing beliefs were not changed. Borg (2003) stated that the programmes that overlook existing teacher beliefs are not highly effective (see Section 2.6.5).

Other research suggests a more complex picture regarding the impact on beliefs of subsequent teacher education experiences. Li's (2019) study of two pre-service teachers who were studying in a TESOL programme in the UK found that the participants' beliefs regarding language and language learning that were formed through their experiences as learners were difficult to change, while their beliefs regarding teaching and the relationship between teacher and students, for example, teaching approaches, designing activities, student involvement and teacher roles were formed through their teacher education programme. This suggests that to some extent, pre-service teachers' beliefs are susceptible to change and can be reshaped after attending a teacher education programme. To some extent, findings similar to the above study emerged among some participants in the current study.

Sakarin and Teerawut made it clear that their beliefs were shaped by their teacher education programmes. Sakarin maintained that he gained much knowledge in terms of teaching techniques, teaching activities, and classroom management, which formed his beliefs in teaching speaking. His belief in increasing students' confidence through introducing varieties of English was also formed through his teacher education programme. In the same vein, Teerawut's belief in creating a friendly and relaxed atmosphere and building rapport was learned from his teacher education programme. This is in accordance with Alghanmi and

Shuki's (2016) mixed-methods study of Saudi Arabian EFL university teachers, which revealed that the majority of their participants' beliefs were shaped through teacher education programmes as they applied many teaching methods they had learned in their own classrooms.

In summary, although teacher education programmes were able to form some participant beliefs in relation to speaking instruction, other participants argued that it was not a key source for several reasons including a lack of focus on speaking instruction, providing more on teaching theories in general, a lack of sufficient time to practice what they had learned from the programme and their pre-existing beliefs before attending the programme.

#### **5.2.4 Continuing professional development**

While some studies (e.g., Scott & Rodger, 1995) revealed that continuing professional development could form teachers' beliefs, other studies (e.g., Rashidi & Moghadam, 2015; Wyatt & Ončevska Ager, 2016) found that this source was not key. In the current study, the findings reveal that continuing professional development, for example, training courses and workshops, were less influential than other sources in the formation of the participants' beliefs, although some particular influence was discernible.

In the current study, five of the participants reported that they rarely attended training courses, and that, in fact, there were not many training courses regarding speaking instruction available. Additionally, the time allocated for some courses was quite short, for example, lasting from one to three days (see Section 3.4). In contrast, the findings reported by Scott and Rodgers (1995) who studied the change in foreign language teachers' beliefs in teaching writing after attending a pre-service writing training course, revealed that after a nine-month training, their participants' evaluation of student writing had changed and they applied what they had learned from the training course in their practices. It is worth pointing out that the results of their study were based on the large amount of time allocated to the training courses and ample opportunities for the participants to practice evaluating writing. The length and availability of such development courses is clearly likely to impact their potential to influence beliefs.

It is worth noting that the participants of the current study lacked further training opportunities that could introduce them to or update them with the latest teaching approaches, methods and techniques. Furthermore, Wasin claimed that the content of the training courses he had attended was not practical or suitable for his classroom while Pensiri agreed by commenting on the way the training courses focused on teaching theory. These results are in agreement with Rashidi and Moghadam's (2015) study that explored the relationship between Iranian EFL

institute teachers' beliefs and practices. Their participants reported that the techniques they had learned in training courses were not practical for their real contexts. This is also repeated in findings reported by Wyatt and Ončevska Ager (2016) who investigated Macedonian EFL teachers' beliefs regarding continuing professional development. Their participants reported that courses and workshops provided for teachers did not meet their needs, suggesting that this problem of relevance to local needs might be common in a number of EFL contexts.

On the other hand, the findings of the current study confirm the result of earlier studies (e.g., Moini, 2009; Scott & Rogers, 1995) (see Section 2.6.5) that continuing professional development could form these participants' beliefs to some extent. To clarify, Wasin and Sakarin's belief in using technology for teaching vocabulary, for example, the Kahoot game, and Sakarin's belief in maximising his use of L2 were shaped through in-service training courses. Despite the use of YouTube by some participants, only Wasin and Sakarin brought a technology application into the classroom. This highlights the importance of training courses in forming teachers' beliefs. This is in agreement with Moini's (2009) survey-based study of Iranian EFL teachers' cognition regarding grammar instruction, which suggested that in-service training could shape teachers' beliefs.

In brief, although teacher training is very necessary for teaching development (R. Kirkpatrick, 2012) and teachers' beliefs could be formed through the knowledge gained from in-service training courses (Richards & Lockhart, 1997), considering all of the above evidence, it seems that generally teacher training intervention did not meet the teachers' expectation and they were not practical ; as a result, they were not a key source forming teachers' beliefs.

Based on the results of several studies on the sources forming teachers' beliefs in different areas (Alghanmi & Shukri, 2016; Debreli, 2016; Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2017), the present study provides evidence that teachers' beliefs regarding teaching speaking came from several sources with the most influential being their experiences as learners and their own teaching experiences. Most of these beliefs and practices reflected traditional approaches. On the other hand, teacher educational programmes and continuing professional development courses that updated them with new trends in teaching methodologies were not found to be key sources.

### **5.3 Relationship between Teachers' Beliefs and Practices in Relation to Teaching Speaking Skills**

Buehl and Beck's framework (2015) (see Section 2.6.6) pointed out that both internal (factors from inside the teacher) and external (contextual) factors (from the environment) could either support or impede the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices. Borg's framework (1997 as cited in Borg, 2003) proposed that contextual or external factors could cause mismatches between teacher's beliefs and practices. Significantly, earlier studies (e.g., Melketo, 2012; Phipps & Borg, 2009) revealed that both internal factors and contextual factors affected on the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices. Although the focus of previous studies was not on speaking instruction, their findings were similar to the findings of the present study.

This section will discuss the findings in relation to the fourth research question: "what is the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices in relation to teaching speaking skills?" In this study, the findings indicated that overall, teachers' beliefs regarding teaching instruction mostly converged with their practices with some instances of divergence caused by both internal and contextual factors. The following section is divided into two main parts discussing the congruence and incongruence between teachers' beliefs and practices.

#### **5.3.1 Congruence between teachers' beliefs and practices**

The findings indicate that a convergence between teachers' beliefs and practices was also a result of their core beliefs, a sense of responsibility beliefs and self-efficacy beliefs. On the other hand, maladaptive beliefs that seemed not to be supported by the latest literature as best practice were also observed in the participants' practices. These types of beliefs will be discussed in the following section.

Phipps and Borg (2009) stated that "core beliefs are stable" (p.381) and they will be implemented in teaching practices (Breen et al., 2001). In the present study, several beliefs seemed to be the participants' core beliefs as they were resistant to change and were consistent with the teachers' practices. Most of the beliefs were congruent with their practices and were consistent in terms of being a part of traditional approaches. These included beliefs regarding the essentiality of teaching grammar for speaking, the primacy of accuracy, explicit grammar instruction, reliance on a traditional technique for teaching vocabulary, using controlled practice for teaching speaking, and the necessity of using L1 in the classroom.

The findings of the present study are similar to those of Kuzborska (2011) who explored eight Lithuanian EAP teachers' beliefs and practices regarding reading instruction. She found

that most of her participants' beliefs were consistent with their practices relevant to a skill-based approach including focusing on vocabulary meaning, translation, reading aloud and whole class discussion. This is in agreement with Alghanmi and Shukri's (2016) study of the relationship between Saudi Arabian EFL teachers' beliefs and practices regarding grammar instruction. They found that their teachers' beliefs, such as, spending much time teaching grammar, correcting students' mistakes immediately to form good habits and focusing on accuracy over fluency were transferred to their practices. However, other beliefs, such as teaching grammar in a communicative context and using an implicit grammar approach, were not observed. Instead, they were observed applying traditional approaches including the grammar translation method and the audiolingual method into their practices. Although the focus among these studies is different, what seemed to be similar among them was that their participants' beliefs were consistent with their practices and related to traditional approaches.

As Phipps and Borg (2009) stated, that "a characteristic of core belief is that they are experientially ingrained..." (p. 388), which implies that core beliefs are likely to form through first-hand experience. S.H.-y Mak's (2011) study of incongruence between one EFL teachers' beliefs and practices in Hong Kong found that beliefs formed through learning experiences overrode a belief that was formed through an educational programme. This is consistent with the results of the present study in that several core beliefs mentioned above were clearly formed through direct experience as a learner and experience as a teacher (see Section 5.2).

Buehl and Beck (2015) made a key point when they proposed that a teacher's sense of responsibility beliefs can facilitate the relationship between belief and practice. When teachers believe that they are responsible for student outcomes, their beliefs tend to converge with their practices. In the present study, four out of six participants reported that they believed they had a responsibility to increase students' accuracy (see Section 5.1.1). Wasin and Sakarin both stated that teaching grammar for students to use language accurately was a key element of their role as a teacher. This is in accordance with S.H.-y Mak's (2011) study of one Hong Kong pre-service teacher's belief's strong sense of responsibility belief in transmitting knowledge to her students. As observed, in the present study, the participants' sense of responsibility beliefs regarding teaching grammar and accuracy for speaking were convergent with their practices (see Section 5.1.1). As mentioned in Section 5.9, apart from their expected outcome for students to speak English accurately, Sakarin's focus on grammar rules and Teerawut's focus on accuracy were partly due to negative washback. The results of the present study are similar to Li's (2013) mixed-methods case study of the complexity of one Chinese EFL teachers' beliefs and

practices. Instead of transferring his long-term goal of improving students' communicative ability to his practice, the teacher's sense of responsibility in providing useful knowledge for students was observed in his practice. A possible explanation was that his priority was for his students to do well on the exam. This is clearly a result of negative washback (see Section 5.1.8).

Another type of belief that could be a predictor of teacher practice is self-efficacy belief (Buehl & Beck, 2015), which refers to individual beliefs about one's own capability towards teaching (Dellinger et al., 2008) (see Section 2.6.6.1). Interestingly, in the present study, two participants, Wasin and Pensiri, stated that they had a high regard for their own pronunciation and crucially, in following NES models as a goal for teaching pronunciation, which was consistent with their practices. This is in line with the findings reported in Choi and Lee's (2018) study of Korean EFL secondary school teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their practices. The participants who had a high level of self-efficacy beliefs, particularly in classroom management, often used focused communicative practice, whereas those with a low level of self-efficacy did not feel comfortable using such practice in their classes. Jafari et al.'s (2015) study of experienced and inexperienced Iranian high school teachers' perceptions of CLT and the difficulties in implementing their perceptions in their classrooms revealed that, although they had a positive perception of the use of CLT, their lack of self-efficacy in using the target language interfered with its use. Self-efficacy beliefs can be increased if teachers perceive that their teaching will be successful, whereas the beliefs can be decreased if the teachers feel that their teaching might not be satisfactory (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007). These findings clearly imply that increasing teachers' confidence in their teaching and their own language capability can enhance their self-efficacy beliefs.

On the other hand, Buehl and Beck (2015) defined the term 'maladaptive beliefs' as beliefs that do not take into account the latest best practice ideas and approaches for teaching found in the literature. In this way, not all beliefs that converge with their practices seem to be satisfied. Kuzborska's (2011) study of eight Lithuanian teachers' beliefs and practices regarding reading skills revealed that there was congruence between teachers' beliefs in a skills-based approach; however, she suggested the teachers use a metacognitive-strategy approach, which seemed to receive a significant support in the literature.

The findings of the current study confirm the results of earlier studies and indicated that some of teachers' beliefs that were consistent with their practices were not supported by current views on 'best practice' and are referred to maladaptive beliefs. First, all the participants

believed that spoken grammar was similar to written grammar, and four out of six believed that their students needed to speak in full sentences. In fact, as pointed out by several scholars (e.g., Bygate, 1987; Goh & Burns, 2012; Luoma, 2004; Timmis, 2018), due to its circumstance of production, a spoken language is likely to differ from a written language in terms of grammar, lexis, discourses and some processing skills. Spoken grammar commonly does not produce sentence-length units but clause-length units instead due to the time element of conversation (Bygate, 1987; Luoma, 2004; Thornbury, 2005) (see Section 2.4.1). In addition, Wasin believed that accuracy was part of fluency. However, any recent definition in the literature treats fluency and accuracy as two distinct concepts (see Section 2.5.1). More importantly, Sakarin believed that the task-based learning was most suitable in a science subject, but in fact, it is a method quite appropriate used in language teaching (Larsen-Freeman, 2010; Richards & Rodgers, 2012).

It is worth noting that their maladaptive beliefs seemed to be a result of the participants' limited knowledge of teaching approaches, methods and subject matter. This may be due to the paucity of training courses in speaking instruction mentioned by a number of participants (see Section 4.3.4) and the influence of the traditional approaches that formed their beliefs through their experiences as learners (see Section 5.2.1).

Briefly, the internal factors that supported the congruence of teachers' beliefs and practices in this study included core beliefs, their sense of responsibility beliefs and their self-efficacy beliefs, which are consistent with data collect in previous studies (e.g., Alghanmi & Choi & Lee, 2018; Li, 2013; Shukri, 2016). However, the findings suggest that some of the beliefs the teachers held were maladaptive in terms of approach, and the congruence between their beliefs and practices might not be supportive for improving students' speaking skills.

### **5.3.2 Incongruence between teachers' beliefs and practices**

This section will discuss the findings regarding some mismatches between teachers' beliefs and practices due to both internal and contextual factors. Unconscious beliefs found in the results of the study will also be discussed. Although the findings of this study were consistent with the findings of earlier studies (e.g., Melketo, 2012; Phipps & Borg, 2009) regarding the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices, this study sheds light on the literature regarding factors causing some incongruence between teachers' beliefs and practices in the area of teaching speaking, which has been understudied. This section will discuss two main factors in the findings: internal and contextual.



### **5.3.2.1 Internal factors**

The key findings of this study suggest that some instances of divergence between teachers' beliefs and practices were a result of internal factors including core and peripheral beliefs, contradictory beliefs, and teachers' limited knowledge of teaching methodologies. Moreover, some practices that were not stated during the pre-interviews as beliefs were observed in the classroom making them unconscious beliefs.

As pointed out by Phipps and Borg (2009), teachers might think that "I believed in X but I also believe in Y" (p.388). Core beliefs which are stronger seemed to be transferred to practices more often than peripheral beliefs (Kumaravadivelu, 2012; Phipps & Borg, 2009) (see Section 2.6.6.1). For example, although most participants believed in providing delayed feedback to reduce student anxiety, they were observed correcting student errors instantly, which reflected their belief in the primacy of accuracy. This implies that the latter seemed to be a core belief whereas the former was possibly a peripheral belief.

Phipps and Borg's (2009) study of three experienced Turkish EFL teachers' beliefs and practices regarding grammar instruction found that although one teacher believed in using a context-based presentation for teaching grammar, he was observed using rule-based presentations by explaining grammar structures; he argued that he explained grammar rules to engage students with the lesson as students might not think that they learned grammar if they were taught through context-based presentations. This indicates that his belief in using context-based presentations was outweighed by his belief in engaging and motivating students through the use of rule-based presentations.

Furthermore, another participant's belief in using group work was overridden by her belief that teacher-student interaction suited her students as, in this way, she could get their attention and create a good classroom atmosphere. Consequently, while teachers' beliefs about language learning, were inconsistent with their practices, their beliefs about learning which were more general, were instead consistent with their practices. Phipps & Borg (2009) concluded that, "teachers' practices reflected their beliefs that learning is enhanced when learners are engaged cognitively, when their expectations are met, and when order, control and flow of the lesson are maintained" (p.388).

This was also in line with Melketo's (2012) study of three Ethiopian EFL university teachers' beliefs about writing instruction, which found that while one participant believed in giving opportunities for students-centred writing, he was seen working with students pointing out the features in model essays. He explained that he could get students' attention by showing

them examples, reflected that his belief about learning by engaging students was stronger than his belief about language learning through providing students with opportunities for autonomous learning.

The findings of previous studies were similar to the findings of the present study in Sakarin's case. Although, he stated that he believed in maximising L2 for giving instruction, he was observed using a great deal of L1. He argued that he focused on students' feelings and reactions. When he used the target language, his students became quiet, so he decided to use L1 to engage them in answering his questions; this reflected his belief in engaging and motivating students. This indicates that his belief about learning by engaging students to learn something outweighed his belief about language learning that teachers should expose students to the target language. This suggests that the core and peripheral beliefs caused tension between his stated belief and practices. At the same time, the tension between teachers' beliefs in maximising L2 and their practices also came from student-related factors, which will be discussed further in the section below. Additionally, Wasin's stated belief in the importance of introducing ASEAN varieties of English in the classroom was not observed. He explained that his priority was to focus on NES models. This is likely because it was a peripheral belief that was flexible due to context (Breen et al., 2001).

Another point to be made is that teachers are able to hold beliefs that are incompatible (referred to as contradictory beliefs) (Buehl & Beck, 2015; Green, 1971). However, there are very few studies focusing on contradictory beliefs. Crucially, in the current study, one participant, Sakarin, held contradictory beliefs that caused a discrepancy between his beliefs and his practice. In his second pre-interview, he stated that his students should follow NES models; however, he was observed in the first class of the semester, telling his students not to worry about their own accent due to the many varieties of English across the world. This suggests that while Sakarin believed in conforming to NES models, he also believed in increasing students' confidence through raising an awareness of English varieties to promote intelligibility as a goal for pronunciation. Therefore, it might be assumed that because of his contradictory beliefs, his practices seemed to be inconsistent with his stated beliefs. This finding resonates with the findings from Buss's (2016) study in which Brazilian teachers held contradictory beliefs between intelligibility as their goal and conforming to NES models. For example, they believed that their goal for teaching pronunciation was intelligibility, but at the same time, they focused on the /th/ sound, which is a non-core feature in the LFC (see Section 2.5.4).

Interestingly, in the current study, the beliefs that were contradictory were implemented in teachers' practices depending on the contexts (Buehl & Beck, 2015; Green, 1971). Similarly, while Sakarin held contradictory beliefs, which one would be transferred to his practice depended on what he wanted to focus on at the time. As observed, when Sakarin focused on pronunciation, he taught students intonation, stress and final sounds, which was consistent with his belief in following NES norms. On the other hand, when he wanted to increase student confidence to speak in the first class of the semester, he told them not to worry about their accent and introduced varieties of English, which reflected his belief in increasing students' confidence through having comprehensible pronunciation as a goal. The findings of this study help provide insights into the participants' contradictory beliefs and how tensions could occur.

Furthermore, as proposed by Borg (2001), "a belief is a proposition which may be consciously or unconsciously held..." (p. 186), this indicates that teachers can hold both conscious and unconscious beliefs (Rokeach, 1970). In the current study, teachers did many things in their classroom that they had not stated directly as beliefs during the pre-interviews. To illustrate, Teerawut and Araya reported that they did not know many techniques for teaching vocabulary for speaking except defining vocabulary through translation. However, they were seen using other techniques. This was also observed in other four participants, Janista, Pensiri, Wasin and Sakarin, practice; they were seen using different techniques for teaching vocabulary without reporting them during the pre-interviews, showing that they were less consciously aware of what they did in class.

The above findings are consistent with Farrell and Yang's (2017) study of one Canadian EAP teacher's belief regarding speaking instruction. The participant's practices, which were not reported as beliefs, were seen during observations, for example, correcting students' pronunciation errors and providing corrected spellings. This indicated that these beliefs were not held consciously. Before participating in their study, the participant struggled to express her beliefs and was not conscious of her beliefs in relation to her speaking instruction. Although the context of these two studies was different, the L2 teachers in the current study also held unconscious beliefs about speaking instruction.

Several scholars (e.g., Farrell & Lim, 2005; Farrell & Bennis, 2013; Farrell & Ives, 2015; Farrell & Yang, 2017; Othman & Kiely, 2016) encouraged teachers to reflect on their beliefs to help them to become conscious of their beliefs and to examine whether they transferred their beliefs to their practices. This helps shape and reshape the beliefs which are beneficial for students' learning. As Wood (1996) suggested teachers recognise conscious

beliefs rather than unconscious beliefs. The current study suggests that these EFL teachers should be encouraged to reflect on their beliefs to reduce the gap between beliefs and practices and make them aware of what they actually do in the classroom.

Apart from beliefs, the teachers' knowledge was also considered an internal factor (see Section 2.6.6). The findings of previous studies (e.g., Jafari et al., 2016, Li, 2013, Rashidi & Moghadam, 2015; Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999) revealed that teacher's limited knowledge including pedagogical, subject matter and linguistic knowledge interfered with the relationship between their beliefs and practices. The key findings of the present study confirmed the findings of earlier studies that teachers' limited knowledge in teaching approaches interfered with the transfer of their beliefs regarding teaching speaking to their practices.

Teachers' limited teaching knowledge causing tension is clearly seen in Wasin's case. Although he implemented task-based learning, his students were observed struggling while doing the task. His students made so many mistakes that he could not correct them all, which was inconsistent with his belief in the primacy of accuracy. He reported that he should have corrected all of their mistakes. Apart from students' low level of English proficiency, this tension was also caused by his insufficient teaching knowledge as he did not seem to be aware of the fact that these students were not able to transfer the knowledge they had learned previously through extensive controlled practice of particular target forms to a further stage of the task where the language could be used freely. Furthermore, the given task was a kind of implicit focus on form task-based learning (Fotos, 1998) (see Section 2.5.2) in which Wasin did not point out on what target forms they should be focused and that differed from previous controlled practices he assigned. Students could not achieve the task without sufficient input and time. This is consistent with Rashidi and Moghadam's (2015) study of Iranian EFL teachers' beliefs and practices. These participants reported that their low-level teaching skills prevented them from implementing CLT as they lacked confidence, skills and knowledge in managing communicative lessons.

In summary, the inconsistency between teachers' beliefs and practices in this study were caused by core and peripheral beliefs, for example, their beliefs in learning versus their beliefs in language learning, contradictory beliefs, for example, their belief in following NES pronunciation model versus their beliefs in having comprehensible pronunciation as a goal, and teachers' limited knowledge of teaching methodologies. Moreover, their unconscious beliefs were found in this study as some of their beliefs were not mentioned in the pre-interviews; however, they were observed in their practices.

### **5.3.2.2 Contextual factors**

Apart from the internal factors mentioned above, previous studies from various areas (e.g., Jafari et. al, 2015; Kilickaya, 2016; Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2016; Rashidi, & Moghadam, 2015) reported that contextual factors caused some incongruence between teachers' beliefs and practices. The key findings revealed that tensions between teachers' beliefs and practices in speaking instruction were caused by three main contextual factors: factors related to students, educational system and teaching materials.

Phipps and Borg (2009) remarked that the discrepancy between teacher beliefs and practices could come from student factors, for example, "I believed in X but my students learn better through Y." (p. 387) and "I believe in X but my learners are motivated by Y" (p.387). The findings of the current study illustrated that student-related factors, including students' low level of English proficiency and their lack of motivation, caused some tensions between teachers' beliefs and practices regarding speaking instruction. The findings of the present study confirmed the findings of previous studies (e.g., Alghanmi & Shukri, 2016; Jafari et al, 2015) that factors related to students could interfere with the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices. However, the findings of this study add the literature that student- related factors caused such tensions between teachers' beliefs and practices regarding speaking instruction.

In the current study, two participants clearly believed in using a balance of L1 and L2 in the classroom and one participant believed in maximising the use of L2; however, all three were observed using more L1 than L2 in the classroom. They made it clear that students' deficiency in English caused them to use the first language for giving instruction. Furthermore, although Araya believed that drilling did not suit her adult students, in practice, she used it because they had low levels of English proficiency. In addition, although, Wasin believed in the importance of providing corrective feedback for students, he was not observed giving much corrective feedback after the students presented their task. He argued that although he wanted to correct all of the students' mistakes, they made so many that he could not correct them all and he thought that the task was too challenging for them. Additionally, Teerawut did not transfer his belief in introducing ASEAN varieties of English to his practice because he found that his students lacked the motivation to learn other existing models showing an incongruence between his belief and his practice.

Although most of previous studies did not focus on speaking instruction, their findings clearly connect with the findings of this present study. Jafari et al.'s (2015) study of Iranian EFL high school teachers' perceptions of CLT found that students' low ability in English and their

low motivation in learning communicative skills impeded the implementation of CLT in their practice. This is also supported by Alghanmi and Shukri's (2016) study of Saudi Arabian EFL university teachers' beliefs and practices regarding grammar instruction, which illustrated that students' low level of English proficiency was regarded as one of the most powerful factors causing incongruence between teachers' beliefs in grammar instruction and their practices. This is similar to Öztürk and Gürbüz's (2017) study of Turkish EFL teachers' sources of beliefs, which demonstrated that one participant needed to use L1 in teaching grammar and lower the level of her teaching to suit students' ability, which was inconsistent with her beliefs. Studies conducted in similar EFL contexts shared similar results; tensions between participants beliefs and practices were mainly due to students' low level of English proficiency.

Another factor that caused a mismatch between teachers' beliefs and practices in several studies was the educational system, for example, time constraints (e.g., Farrell & Bennis, 2013; Melketo, 2012; Rashidi & Mogahndam, 2015) and the role of exams (e.g., Choi, 2000; Jafari et al, 2015). Similarly, the key findings of the current study demonstrate that both time constraints and exams caused some divergence between teachers' beliefs and practices regarding speaking instruction.

Araya' s belief in providing feedback for students' speaking performances, Wasin' s beliefs in providing corrective feedback to increase students' accuracy and Pensiri' belief in presenting different ASEAN varieties of English were stated as beliefs, but not observed. According to the participants, time constraints prevented them from transferring their belief to their practices. This is consistent with Melketo's (2012) study of Ethiopian EFL university teachers' beliefs and practices regarding writing instruction. He found that one participant's practice was inconsistent with his belief in providing several sources for students to create their own writing but used traditional teaching approaches (the students just copied the model he provided) because he ran out of time. This is also in line with another study conducted in the ESL context. Farrell and Bennis's (2013) qualitative study of ESL teachers' beliefs and practices in Canada found that one participant's belief in using various techniques of corrective feedback diverged with his practice. The participant relied on a very few techniques because he did not have enough time. The results of the current study confirmed the results of earlier studies (e.g., Rashidi & Moghadam, 2015; Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999;) that found time constraints is one of the factors hindering the transfer of teachers' beliefs to their practices.

Another important theme in research studies focuses on the washback effects from high-stakes exams as a cause of incongruence between teachers' beliefs and practices. The findings

of the present study illustrate that the teachers had very clear concerns about helping their students pass the summative exam. Sakarin and Araya made it clear that the incongruence between their belief in presenting ASEAN cultures to their students and their practices was caused by their concern about preparing their students for the final exam. Therefore, they focused on the content in the textbook, which did not include anything relating to ASEAN cultures.

Moreover, an incongruence between Araya's belief and practice in balancing L1 and L2 was a result of her concern about the exam. She argued that she used more L1 because she wanted her students to understand the lesson as much as possible in order to pass the exam. This suggests that negative washback (see Section 5.1.8) interfered with the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices. These teachers felt responsible for teaching to the test; therefore, sometimes they overlooked opportunities for improving students' speaking skills and other knowledge relating to speaking competence. This is not just happening in Thailand; previous studies conducted in other EFL contexts showed similar situations. Jafari et al.'s (2015) study of Iranian EFL high school teachers' beliefs and practices regarding the use of CLT found that teachers' difficulties in the implementation of CLT in their practices was a result of the format of the national exam, which focused on grammar and vocabulary not speaking skills.

Last, factors related to teaching materials also caused tension between teachers' beliefs and practices in the current study. Earlier studies (e.g., Choi, 2000; Rashidi & Moghadam, 2015) revealed that the quality and availability of teaching materials caused a discrepancy between teachers' beliefs and practices. There is clear evidence in Sakarin's and Araya's cases. While they believed in introducing ASEAN cultures to their students, they were not seen doing so. They argued that it was because of there was no content in the textbook relating to ASEAN cultures. As mentioned in Section 5.6, intercultural knowledge has been ignored in the Thai EFL context (Baker, 2015); even the lists of textbooks provided by the Thai Minister of Education focused only on NES norms (Darasawang & Watson Todd, 2012). Bunwirat (2017) suggested that the content in the textbook used by the Thai EFL university teachers should be updated by adding important information including good manners in society and business in other ASEAN cultures in addition to general demographic information to prepare students for their future careers. The results of the present study are consistent with Rashidi and Moghandam's (2015) study of Iranian EFL teachers' beliefs and practices, which revealed that

the textbook used was created by European publications and generally focused on NES norms and ignored local cultures and contexts.

On the other hand, Farrell and Yang's (2017) study of one EAP teacher's beliefs and practices in L2 speaking instruction revealed that a congruence between teachers' beliefs and practices was partly because the participant followed the steps of the textbook, a finding which is also supported by Farrell and Ives's (2015) study. These studies suggest that the content in the textbook greatly influenced what the teachers teach. Textbook design and content are clearly an important contextual factor and can be seen in this example relating to ASEAN culture.

To summarise, the consistency between teachers' beliefs and practices was a result of core beliefs, self-efficacy beliefs and sense of responsibility beliefs. On the other hand, some inconsistency between teachers' beliefs and practice were caused by both internal factors including core and peripheral beliefs, contradictory beliefs; and inadequate teaching knowledge as well as external factors including factors related to students, educational systems and teaching materials. Importantly, other types of beliefs including unconscious beliefs and maladaptive beliefs also had a significant impact on teachers' beliefs and practices.

## **5.4 Summary**

This chapter discussed teachers' beliefs and practices regarding speaking instruction in different key aspects including their beliefs and practices regarding the main elements of speaking skills including grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation. Other aspects of speaking instruction discussed in the current study included activities and tasks for developing students' speaking skills, the use of L1 and affective factors relating to speaking instruction and issues regarding teaching speaking in the Thai EFL context, for example, intercultural awareness in speaking class. Additionally, a discussion of the huge impact of negative washback on speaking instruction was included. Importantly, different sources forming teachers' beliefs regarding teaching speaking skills, such as their experiences as learners and their own teaching experiences, were compared to previous studies, although most of them conducted research on teachers' beliefs in other areas of language instruction (e.g., Alghanmi & Shukri, 2016; Jafari, et al, 2015; Yoshihara, 2012). For the most part, teachers' beliefs were congruent with their practices. However, some evidence of divergence was also observed. Internal and contextual factors that supported or interfered with the link between beliefs and practices were discussed in great detail. The findings of this study add to the literature as research investigating the



relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices regarding speaking instruction, particularly in the Thai EFL context has been understudied.

## Chapter 6 Conclusion

My motivation for conducting this study was primarily derived from my personal interest as an EFL university teacher responsible for English speaking courses; and I was therefore interested in exploring ways to improve English speaking instruction. This interest was also informed by evidence from recent research (e.g., Noom-Ura, 2013) that highlighted the way Thai students struggle to communicate effectively in English. It is worth noting that several studies on teachers' beliefs can lead to professional growth for teachers (Borg, 2001; Zheng, 2009). Therefore, by investigating teachers' beliefs and practices regarding speaking instruction, I hoped to develop EFL teachers' speaking instruction in the Thai EFL context. This, in turn, could improve Thai EFL students' oral English proficiency. Additionally, studying their beliefs could provide information on the main sources forming their beliefs. The findings from this study; therefore, provide data for educators in order to improve the curricula of teacher education programmes and in turn, impact teachers' professional development. Furthermore, by exploring the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their practices, the study provides useful information about how some internal factors facilitated a congruence between teachers' beliefs and practices regarding teaching speaking instruction. On the other hand, other internal and contextual factors interfered with the transfer of their beliefs to their practices, which support findings from earlier studies. The findings from the current studies can be beneficial for teachers and educators in terms of reducing the gap between teachers' beliefs and practices regarding speaking instruction.

This study utilised a qualitative research design following an iterative approach to investigate six Thai EFL university teachers' beliefs and practices regarding speaking instruction. The instruments used in this study included two pre-observation interviews, three video-stimulated recall interviews, three classroom observations, one final interview and field notes for each participant. These were the research instruments recommended in the literature as effective for conducting research on teacher's beliefs. Interviews and observations were employed to gain in depth data between their beliefs and practices and stimulated-recall interviews with video recordings were also used to help recall the participants' actions in the classroom. These instruments could help identify factors hindering the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices. The process of data collection was explained clearly in steps so that other researchers can replicate the research in their own contexts. This chapter restates the purposes of this study and the research questions. The key findings of this study are then

summarised along with implications for practices. Finally, the limitations of this study are discussed, along with recommendations for further research in this area.

The study investigated Thai EFL teachers' beliefs and practices regarding speaking instruction, sources forming their beliefs and the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their practices in relation to speaking instruction. The research questions were restated as follows:

1. What are Thai EFL university teachers' beliefs in relation to teaching speaking skills?
2. What are Thai EFL university teachers' practices in relation to teaching speaking skills?
3. What are the sources forming Thai EFL university teachers' beliefs in relation to teaching speaking skills?
4. What is the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices in relation to teaching speaking skills?

## **6.1 Key Findings**

This section will present the key findings following the research questions. Although there are four research questions, the first and second will be presented in the same section to avoid repetition.

### **6.1.1 What are teachers' beliefs and practices in relation to teaching speaking skills?**

The findings reveal that the participants' beliefs and practices regarding speaking instruction were consistent in terms of traditional approaches in certain aspects. In terms of grammar and speaking skills, the participants believed in the importance of teaching grammar explicitly for teaching speaking skills and, focusing on the primacy of accuracy over fluency; they tended to view spoken grammar and written grammar as the same, and were unaware of the existence of spoken grammar. In practice, all of the participants spent a significant amount of time explaining grammar rules explicitly. This finding is similar to those of previous studies (e.g., Alghanmi & Shukri, 2016; Nonkukhetkhong et al., 2016), although, those studies did not focus specifically on the area of speaking instruction. In addition, the participants were often clearly seen encouraging students to speak in complete sentences to ensure correct grammar use; however, this does not reflect the way people actually speak in conversation. Indeed, research into teachers' beliefs and practices has often focused on the teaching of grammar, so this study makes a contribution to the growing number of studies specifically related to developing speaking skills. In the present study, the participants' belief in the primacy of accuracy was transferred to their practices in areas such as providing corrective feedback and correcting

students' dialogue scripts. This is in line with previous studies (e.g., Tarat, 2016) in the Thai EFL context that have highlighted the way their participants focused on accuracy. Findings in the current study also reveal relatively little focus on fluency, revealing the participants' rather limited knowledge of how to improve students' fluency, echoing an important recent study by Tavakoli and Hunter (2018) in a different context.

The teachers in the present study relied on a traditional approach for providing the meaning of the vocabulary they taught. All of the participants believed that using translation was important for teaching vocabulary, and this was clearly observed in their practices. Some of the participants even reported that they knew little about vocabulary techniques, but in practice, they were observed using different techniques, which represented 'unconscious beliefs' (see Section 4.2.2).

In terms of speaking and pronunciation, the findings reveal that four out of six participants believed in conforming to NES norms. This is similar to the findings from earlier studies (e.g., Saengboon, 2015; Snodin & Young, 2015; Young & Walsh, 2010) that showed that NES pronunciation models (American and British) were preferred by teachers in the Thai EFL context. In the present study, those who believed in following NES norms were observed teaching students key elements of pronunciation relying on NES norms, including stress, intonation and final sounds. While all of them believed that ASEAN varieties of English should be presented in the classroom, only one participant did so, which is an example of a peripheral belief. The key findings also reveal that these participants lacked awareness of the lingua franca core (LFC), which is consistent with results from earlier studies (e.g., Buss, 2016; Lim, 2016) in similar EFL contexts (see Section 5.1.3).

Related to their beliefs about focusing on accuracy, the participants believed in using controlled practice, which was evident in the observations where the use of drilling and grammar practice came to the fore. Findings are consistent with results from studies in Thailand but in secondary school contexts (e.g., Nonkokkethong et al., 2016; Tayasanant & Barnard, 2010). On the other hand, two participants in the current study clearly stated a belief in the importance of communicative language teaching (CLT) for speaking instruction, and one participant believed that task-based learning (TBL) was important for teaching speaking. However, such speaking activities and the task-based approach were only occasionally observed. Additionally, they did not implement such activities and tasks effectively due to their lack of knowledge and some student-related factors. This is in line with findings from Choi's

(2000) study in a similar EFL context where teacher-related factors and contextual factors interfered the implementation of CLT in their participants' classrooms (see Section 5.1.4).

Apart from conforming to NES pronunciation models, all of the participants in the present study believed in focusing on NES cultures, and this was reflected in their emphasis on introducing register as a part of NES norms. While four out of six participants believed that ASEAN cultures should be introduced in the classroom, in fact, none of them were observed presenting cultures other than NES. This supports Bunwirat's (2017) findings in a study in the Thai context that showed that ASEAN cultures were not highly valued (see Section 5.1.5)

Furthermore, although the key finding reveals different beliefs in using L1 for teaching speaking, in practice, all participants were observed using L1 more than L2. This is congruent with findings from earlier studies (e.g., Choi, 2000; Hall & Cook, 2014) in similar EFL contexts. Last, a commonly held set of strong beliefs were found in relation to reducing student anxiety in the speaking classroom. With the exception of their practices around corrective feedback, the beliefs transferred to their practices included creating a friendly classroom atmosphere, monitoring students closely to create rapport between teachers and students, praising students and using fun activities (see Section 4.2.7.1). However, a key implication from this was an observed overreliance on corrective feedback which once again related to core belief and practices based on the primacy of a focus on accuracy.

### **6.1.2 What are the sources forming teachers' beliefs in relation to teaching speaking skills?**

Consistent with findings from earlier studies (e.g., Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2017; Yoshihara, 2012), the key findings here reveal that teachers' experiences as learners and their own teaching experiences were greatly influential in their formation of their beliefs regarding speaking instruction.

In this study, beliefs that were formed through teachers' experiences as learners included using an explicit grammar approach for teaching speaking skills, using traditional approaches and following NES pronunciation models. Their good and bad experiences as learners also shaped their beliefs regarding speaking instruction. This is similar to the findings from previous studies (e.g., Hayes, 2010; Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2017) (see Section 5.2.1). Furthermore, teachers' personal learning experiences such as practicing pronunciation and learning new vocabulary, were influential sources of their beliefs in teaching speaking.

The influence of teaching experience strongly echoed results from previous studies (e.g., Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2017; Yoshihara, 2012), and this was particularly true in relation to

teaching approaches and methods. Additionally, factors such as positive feedback from students and their reactions to teaching in their actual classrooms also strengthened their pre-existing beliefs, including beliefs in the necessity of using L1 and using humour to create a friendly classroom atmosphere. Perhaps most importantly, a number of beliefs regarding, for example, using an explicit grammar approach for teaching speaking skills or the necessity of using L1, seemed to be formed through their experiences as learners, and crucially, reinforced through their teaching experience (see Section 5.2.2).

Importantly, while teacher education programmes and continuing professional development courses contributed to teachers' beliefs regarding speaking instruction to a certain extent, the participants in this study reported that neither greatly influenced in the formation of their beliefs, a finding in line with those from earlier studies (e.g., Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2017; Wyatt & Ončevska Age, 2016). The participants reported that their teacher education programmes provided mostly theory and content that was not practical for their contexts. Their programme curriculum focused on how to give instruction in general and rarely on speaking instruction. The participants also reported that few training courses were offered with a focus on speaking instruction (see Section 4.3.4).

### **6.1.3 What is the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their practices in relation to teaching speaking skills?**

The findings reveal that for the most part, there was congruence between teachers' beliefs and practices with some divergences. While some internal factors supported congruence between teachers' beliefs and practices, other internal factors and contextual factors caused tensions between beliefs and practices. Results also show that the participants held unconscious beliefs and maladaptive beliefs regarding speaking instruction (see Section 5.3).

The key findings reveal that some internal factors supported the congruence between teachers' beliefs and their practices, which is similar to the findings from earlier studies (e.g., Choi & Lee, 2018; Li, 2013; S.H.-y Mak, 2011). The internal factors that facilitated the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices in this study included teachers' core beliefs, self-efficacy beliefs and sense of responsibility beliefs. To clarify, teachers' beliefs in certain areas including using explicit grammar instruction for teaching speaking skills, focusing on accuracy over fluency, the necessity of using L1 for instruction, the importance of using translation to provide the meaning of the vocabulary and the necessity of using controlled practice for speaking instruction were stable and transferred to their practices which indicates that these were core beliefs. Beliefs were consistent in terms of following traditional

approaches. Moreover, four out of six participants clearly reported that they had a responsibility to increase students' accuracy, and two of them insisted that they were responsible for teaching grammar for speaking skills. This was indicated that it was an example of sense of responsibility belief, a clear example of beliefs transferring to practice. Additionally, two of the participants held strong self-efficacy beliefs in their own pronunciation and crucially, also in following NES models as a goal for pronunciation teaching, which converged with their practices (see Section 5.3.1).

On the other hand, internal factors also caused tensions between teachers' beliefs and their practices. These findings are consistent with findings from earlier studies (e.g., Buss, 2016; Li, 2013; Melketo, 2012; Phipps & Borg, 2009). Such internal factors included core and peripheral beliefs, contradictory beliefs, and teachers' limited teaching knowledge. Moreover, similar to findings from earlier studies (e.g., Jafari et. al, 2015; Kilickaya, 2016; Öztürk & Gürbüç, 2016; Rashidi, & Moghadam, 2015), contextual factors were found to have caused incongruence between teachers' beliefs and their practices. These contextual factors were related to factors related to students, the educational system and teaching materials.

Additionally, some participants held unconscious beliefs, since some practices were observed that were not stated as beliefs during the interviews. This is consistent with the findings of previous studies (e.g., Farrell & Yang, 2017) (see Section 5.3.2). Moreover, similar to the findings of Kuzboska's (2011) study, the participants in the current study also held maladaptive beliefs that were not consistent with current views on 'best practices' in teaching. Such beliefs included the belief that spoken grammar and written grammar were the same, that accuracy was a part of fluency, that a dialogue memorisation was a final stage of role play, and that task-based learning was an approach only suitable for science subjects (see Section 5.3.2).

## **6.2 Contributions**

This study contributes to the literature on teacher's beliefs in several ways. It is one of the very first to investigate teachers' beliefs and practices regarding speaking instruction in the Thai EFL context. The study extends current knowledge of teachers' beliefs and practices regarding teaching speaking by providing clear insights into Thai EFL in-service teachers' beliefs, how they taught in actual classrooms, the sources forming their beliefs and the relationship between their beliefs and practices. Importantly, this study fills the gap in previous research where the focus has not been on the teaching of speaking, and it also provides valuable contributions to the literature in relation to Thai EFL teachers' beliefs regarding speaking instruction.

Studying these teachers' beliefs has enriched our understanding of how beliefs regarding teaching speaking are transferred to practices. This study investigated not only various main aspects of teaching speaking, but also other specific aspects relating to speaking instruction in the Thai EFL context. Exploring both their beliefs and practices can provide pointers to the kind of knowledge, skills, and teaching methodology that teachers in this context require and the challenges they face in teaching speaking. Furthermore, investigating sources of the participants' beliefs indicates that teacher education programmes and teacher training courses were not highly influential in forming these teachers' beliefs. This provides important data for educators and curriculum designers to improve the curricula of continuing professional development and teacher education programmes to meet teachers' needs and to be able to form teachers' beliefs.

The relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices regarding speaking instruction was explicated showing the internal and contextual factors that either supported or impeded the link between them in some depth. This extends our knowledge of the complexity of Thai EFL teacher's beliefs and what factors influenced the relationship between their beliefs and practices. The findings provide important data for educators and others involved in language teaching and learning to take into consideration in order to encourage teachers to reflect on their beliefs, form beliefs that would be beneficial for speaking instruction, deal with possible challenges in the classroom and reduce the discrepancy between their beliefs and their practices. This study makes a significant contribution to providing valuable data that will be beneficial for other researchers in conducting studies regarding teachers' beliefs in relation to speaking instruction and developing teaching and learning for speaking skills.

### **6.3 Limitations of the Study**

Some limitations of the current study should be considered. First, regarding research design, a small group of six participants from one university were investigated and although, Miles and Huberman (2007) pointed out that findings among cases groups that share a similarity in one setting are considered strong findings, the design of this study might not be transferable to all EFL university teachers in Thailand. However, the present study provides sufficient detail including the context of the study, the profile of the participants, the procedure during data collection and data analysis for other researchers to judge whether it could be generalised to their context (Denscombe, 1999) (see Section 3.10); therefore, the findings might be transferable to other universities that share the similarities with the university in this study.



Second, during the interviews, some participants had difficulty explaining their beliefs. This was likely because they had never reflected on their beliefs before. During the interviews, I tried to elicit clearer response by asking follow-up questions that could help them to explain their beliefs; however, I tried not to ask them leading questions. For example, asking follow-up questions, for example, what activities can improve learners' fluency to gain more detail about their belief in relation to fluency after they could not explain how they could promote student fluency. On the other hand, although I gained experience as a researcher from the pilot study, developing interviewing skills takes some time. During the interviews, I experienced difficulty sometimes thinking of the questions and asking them immediately. Undoubtedly, while more useful or generative questions might have been developed to tease out beliefs, I believe that the interviews yielded important data.

Moreover, due to a limited amount of observation data, it is hard to draw conclusions about particular aspects, such as whether teachers' lack of confidence and proficiency in speaking English could be a factor causing them to overuse L1. A few of the participants were observed facing difficulties in speaking English causing them to use L1 instead; for example, one participant used L1 to explain the map for his students as he found that it was difficult to explain in the target language. It would have been desirable to carry out some kind of speaking test or at least gather some comparable data on their speaking abilities. However, the decision was made not to ask participants to take any kind of speaking test to assess their speaking proficiency as there might have been some potential problems and ethical issues would have been involved. A speaking test might have been viewed as intrusive. Setting myself up as a peer to judge them may have been viewed by some potential participants as being inappropriate leading some to feel uncomfortable and endangering their participation in the study. More importantly, teachers with a lack of confidence in their speaking skills might really feel threatened by someone testing them that and would feel insecure and unlikely to participate. Additionally, the extra time factor needed for asking the participants to take the test would be another issue that again, could endanger their participation.

Last, there was a limitation that was also a result of the technology used for data collection. During the observations, when teachers talked to individual students or a small group of students at a far distance from the cameras, their conversation might not have been recorded. While observing, I tried to note what I heard and what they were doing in my field notes to obtain as much data as possible. However, this limitation does not reduce the importance of the findings since through using multiple research instruments including the interviews, classroom

observations, video-stimulated recall interviews, and fieldnotes, I was able to gain ample and sufficient in-depth data to answer the research questions.

## **6.4 Recommendations**

This study provides suggestions for further research as follows.

The Thai EFL context of this study, where not only studies of teachers' beliefs related to teaching speaking skills but also studies of teachers' beliefs regarding other English skills, such as reading, writing and listening, have been very limited. Further studies are encouraged to investigate teachers' beliefs and practices in these other skills.

In addition, while the present study focused on in-service EFL teacher participants' beliefs and practices, it would be interesting to conduct studies on pre-service teachers' beliefs regarding teaching speaking skills to gain insights into their beliefs and practices. More interestingly, it is worth exploring whether their teacher education programme is important in the formation of their beliefs regarding teaching speaking. The data obtained could provide a clear insight into what is currently being taught in teacher education programme and what needs to be developed.

Meanwhile, investigating students' beliefs regarding their speaking instruction could provide more useful information on their beliefs regarding their beliefs and expectations. Furthermore, comparing between teachers' beliefs and students' beliefs in relation to teaching speaking skills could advance our knowledge about similarities and differences between these two groups. The data obtained from that kind of study could be beneficial for teachers' understanding of how their speaking instruction can meet students' needs.

As the setting of this study was in a university, it might be worth exploring Thai EFL teachers' beliefs and practices at different educational levels (Borg, 2003). It would be interesting to investigate the relationship between secondary school teachers' beliefs and practices regarding teaching speaking and how they are influenced by the national university entrance exam, which does not focus on speaking skills.

Interestingly, longitudinal research could be conducted in order to study whether the teachers' beliefs and practices regarding teaching speaking skills change over time. This could provide insights into the factors that influence teachers' beliefs and practices and the relationship between their beliefs and practices in a long-term period. Apart from this, conducting similar research focusing on teachers' beliefs regarding speaking instruction in all its various aspects in

different contexts in other countries would be interesting and provide an awareness of teachers' beliefs and practices for comparative purposes.

## **6.5 Implications**

This study has several implications for several groups in developing in-service Thai EFL teachers' speaking instruction including policy makers, teaching materials developers, teacher educators, continuing professional development providers, and classroom practitioners. Such implications may resonate in other contexts, particularly those that share similarities with the Thai context. The following sections present the implications of this study.

### **6.5.1 Policy makers**

The Higher Education Commission in Thailand launched a policy to improve English instruction in higher education by granting each university the power to create their own policy to develop their students' English proficiency (Baker & Jarunthawatchai, 2017). As a result, improving speaking skills, an essential element in proficiency, should be of great concern for university leaders. The main implication here is that teachers' needs in relation to improving their instruction should be clearly identified and addressed in order to launch a policy that can improve their speaking instruction, which in turn will lead to improving their students' speaking ability.

Other implications of this study for policy in the Thai EFL context relate to the importance of, including a speaking test for the university exit exam, emphasising ASEAN intercultural knowledge among teachers and students and supporting teaching and learning with better equipped classrooms with up to date technology.

First, the policy focusing on improving students speaking skills should be launched to raise both teachers and students' awareness of the importance of such skills. More courses focusing on improving speaking skills, including English pronunciation, should be opened for university students (Khamkhien, 2010b) as pronunciation instruction is very important for improving speaking skills (Buss, 2015, Goh & Burns, 2012; Lim, 2016). In addition, the university should provide an environment that encourages both students and teachers to be able to communicate in English outside the classroom, for example, an 'English zone' or other areas that are well-equipped with English media and learning materials to promote students' autonomous English language learning including speaking skills where time limitation in the classroom limited the opportunities for students to practice fluency (see Section 4.2.1.3).

More importantly, as all universities must provide an English language exam to evaluate students' English proficiency (Commission of Higher Education, 2016), a speaking test should be included in the exam to encourage both teachers and students to develop their students' speaking proficiency via positive washback (Taylor, 2005) (see Section 2.5.9). Teachers should be supported to participate in in-service training courses that can improve their assessment literacy, which refers to "an individual's understanding of the fundamental assessment concepts and procedures deemed likely to influence educational decisions" (Popham, 2011, p.267) and knowledge teachers have of appropriate speaking test formats for classroom-based assessment including a speaking test such as the use of role plays that are not scripted followed by formative feedback, interview type assessments (Goh & Burns, 2012) and the use of self-recorded audio and video using technology on the website as well as the use of suitable speaking assessment criteria for evaluating students' speaking proficiency in this context. This is an area where existing policy may need to be reconsidered.

Moreover, some of the teachers did not seem to value the importance of ASEAN cultures, even though Thailand is part of the ASEAN community. This may be because this has been introduced only recently, and these teachers might not be sufficiently aware of the advantages of the ASEAN community. However, intercultural knowledge can decrease conflicts when speaking with people from different cultures (Kongkerd, 2013; Richards, 2003; Shumin, 2009). Raising ASEAN cultural awareness could prevent problems that may arise from misunderstandings among people in ASEAN countries (Kongkerd, 2013) (see Section 2.3.5). The importance of ASEAN cultural knowledge should be highlighted in educational policy at the tertiary level to support the policy created by the Ministry of Education to promote Thailand as an international education hub (ASEAN Information Center, 2015) and enhance students' effective cross-cultural communication in various contexts. This would encourage teachers to recognise the value of ASEAN cultures and emphasise it in their classrooms.

Additionally, in the present study, when technology was employed for teaching and learning, some students were not able to participate because they could not access the Internet. Universities can help improve the classroom environment and the use of technology to motivate student learning by allocating a budget for well-equipped classrooms with, for example, free WiFi to support students access to online teaching materials, for example, Kahoot, which could be adapted to promote students' vocabulary learning and engage students with the lessons (see Section 5.1.2). Well-equipped classrooms could also help teachers to be ready to use new innovative ways of teaching in the era of modern technology such as online autonomous

learning and the classroom- based assessments that can be based on the student's own audio or video recordings.

### **6.5.2 Teaching materials developers**

The findings reveal that some external factors, including teaching materials also influenced the transfer of teachers' beliefs to their practices. The participants did not transfer their beliefs; for example, introducing ASEAN intercultural awareness into their practice due to their lack of this content in their textbook. The implication is that teachers' beliefs that relate to the content in the textbook are likely to transfer it into their practice.

Previous studies (e.g., Farrell & Ives, 2015; Farrell & Yang, 2017) found that following the steps in the textbook could also help support the congruity between teachers' beliefs and practices. Apart from this, including important content regarding speaking skills in the textbook can improve teachers' speaking instruction. This study provides some suggestions for teaching materials developers to improve the quality of their textbooks. In this study, the in-house textbook that most of the participants used lacked important content that could promote students' speaking skills, including spoken grammar knowledge, content that addressed vocabulary, awareness of varieties of English and communicative activities and tasks.

First, the textbook should introduce the characteristics of spoken grammar, such as vague language (e.g., sort of, kind of, something), ellipsis (not including words and phrases, for example, the subject and the auxiliary verb to avoid repetition) and clause length unit (Carter & McCarthy, 2002; Goh& Burns, 2016). This can help students to speak English naturally in various situations and help them to understand that due to the time limitation in speaking, these characteristics can occur normally to increase fluency. This also raises awareness of the existence of spoken grammar for both teachers and students.

Additionally, the textbook should add content that addresses vocabulary highlighted in each unit in the textbook to provide enough focus on key vocabulary for their tasks. Moreover, different vocabulary techniques relating to speaking skills such as collocation (Nattinger, 1988; Thornbury, 2005), spoken discourse markers (e.g., right, you know, okay) (O'Keeffe et al., 2007) and back-channel devices (e.g., really, yeah) (Thornbury, 2005) should be included in the textbook to increase fluency. Apart from this, the textbook should provide speaking activities that promote the recycling of vocabulary learned and also to help them to know how to use the vocabulary appropriately in different contexts.

Similar to the vocabulary aspect, the textbooks used for the participants in this study did not contain a pronunciation section. This is possibly one of the reasons that the participants did not systematically teach students pronunciation. The findings of this study, which highlighted an uneven approach to teaching pronunciation, suggest that teaching materials developers should add such sections in the textbook to raise student awareness of pronunciation and provide them with more opportunities to improve their English pronunciation. At the same time, in order to focus on essential ‘intelligibility’, the textbook should present the lingua franca core, which was created for those who do not use English as their first language (see Section 2.5.4). In this way, both teachers and students can be made aware of the existence of the core and focus more usefully on the models of English pronunciation that are most relevant to their context.

In addition, the textbook should balance the controlled activities and communicative activities in order to help students to increase both accuracy and fluency in speaking. The activities can be designed based on the Goh and Burn’s (2012) model, which is similar to other models (e.g., Florez, 1999 and Wang, 2014). For example, one implication of the model is the introduction of language input, which encourages students to do the activity focusing on increasing their fluency before focusing on the language. Students may then conduct the same type of activity with a different topic or partner to focus on accuracy (see Section 2.5.8). In addition, the textbook should provide ample communicative activities and tasks with clear guidelines for both teachers and students. This would help them to conduct such activities and tasks more effectively.

While the Ministry of Education aimed to improve students’ knowledge of the ASEAN community (ASEAN Information Center, 2015), the participants in this study seemed not to value the importance of ASEAN intercultural awareness. While two of them believed in introducing this intercultural awareness, a lack of content in the textbook interfered with the relationship between their beliefs and practices. This implies that including content relating ASEAN intercultural knowledge in the textbook could help both teachers and students acknowledge the difference among cultures, which could reduce any possible conflicts that can occur during communication.

Thus, there are key implications for teaching materials developers or teachers who organise in-house textbooks in terms of what content to include according to the above example. At the same time, where teachers are able to decide to use commercial textbooks, there is a clear need for them to gain more knowledge in speaking instruction in order to aid in selecting suitable textbooks that promote their students’ speaking proficiency.

### **6.5.3 Teacher educators and continuing professional development providers**

The findings of this study reveal that continuing professional development (CPD) and teacher education programmes were less influential in the formation of the participants' beliefs due to various difficulties, including a lack of availability of practical teaching courses that could meet teachers' needs and interests and courses that could improve their speaking instruction.

Moreover, the time provided for training courses in the context of continuing professional development in Thailand seems to be insufficient for improving teachers' knowledge and skills. This helps explain why in this study these sources were not central to the formation of the participants' core beliefs supporting effective speaking instruction.

Although teacher education programmes and the training courses provided teachers' participants with much theoretical teaching knowledge, not all of this was suitable for their contexts. On the other hand, the participants mainly formed their beliefs regarding traditional approaches through their experiences as learners and their own teaching experiences. As teacher education programmes and continuing professional development aim to develop teachers' various teaching methods and introduce teachers to new trends in teaching pedagogy, this study calls for educators and curriculum designers to not only revisit their curriculum to better meet teacher's needs and interests but also to make this practical and effective for speaking instruction in their particular contexts.

According to the findings of this study, there were many important aspects of teaching knowledge regarding speaking instruction that the participants needed to be aware of and which teacher education programmes and CPD providers could focus on to help raise such awareness. These aspects included spoken grammar knowledge, vocabulary teaching techniques for speaking skills, and a better understanding of the use of CLT and TBLT in practice. Moreover, the participants in this study also misunderstood the concept of fluency, with many of them lacking a clear understanding of how to increase student fluency. One implication that follows is that teacher training courses should provide a clear definition of fluency and allow trainee teachers to explore the concept (Tavakoli & Hunter, 2018) and familiarise themselves with techniques to promote student fluency.

Apart from this, the majority of the participants lacked knowledge of the LFC, which is designed as a model for pronunciation for those for whom English is not their first language (Jenkins, 2002) (see Section 2.5.4). In fact, only one participant reported that he believed in intelligibility as the main goal for teaching pronunciation, which was a result of the influence of a teacher education programme that introduced him to varieties of English. One implication

from this study is that educators should include knowledge of the LFC in their education curriculum in order for teachers to gain more awareness of the LFC, which is certainly relevant to the Thai EFL context.

On the other hand, Noom-Ura's (2013) study of difficulties regarding English language teaching and Thai secondary school teachers' professional development needs found that to solve the problem of professional development not suiting teachers' needs, teachers should be able to initiate teaching activities. They should choose the areas they are interested in and have more opportunities to interact with others who have the same areas of interest while attending training courses. The implications from her study seemed to be comparable to the findings of the current study. Furthermore, Wyatt and Ončevska Ager's (2016) study found that teachers should be encouraged to develop their professional growth through a bottom up approach, for example, conducting action research in which they decide what areas they want to improve.

Furlong and Salisbury (2005) emphasised the importance of conducting action research on teacher development by highlighting its benefits, including increasing teacher confidence in teaching, increasing knowledge through reviewing the literature, collecting and using their research evidence for evaluating their teaching and having "informed reflection" (p. 61) through using knowledge and evidence gained while conducting action research in their practices. Such action research initiatives could be relevant to the Thai context and be useful for improving their teaching.

Moreover, earlier studies (e.g., Goodnough, 2001; Zeichner, 2003) found that conducting action research had a positive impact on teacher development. Therefore, Wyatt and Ončevska Ager's (2016) findings are relevant to this study and could be a way in which teachers explore their own classroom contexts in order to develop their speaking instruction. Arguably, a limitation to the use of action research is the implied time that it would take for teachers already suffering under heavy workloads. In order to motivate teachers to undertake such action research, it would be necessary not only to introduce the value of action research on their professional development, but also to create time and space to allow this to happen.

The findings of the current study reveal that some practices were not reported (likely to be unconscious beliefs), which prompted the need for an emphasis on teacher reflection. Several studies (e.g., Farrell & Bennis, 2013; Farrell & Lim, 2005; S.H.-y Mak, 2011) pointed out the value of reflection on teachers' beliefs since it can help them to become aware of their unconscious beliefs and compare them to their stated beliefs and practices. This study supports



this approach and encourages teacher education programmes and training courses to adopt reflection as a key to developing more effective teachers.

Additionally, the findings of this study suggest that a paucity of training courses and courses in teacher education programmes in the Thai context focus on speaking instruction. As stated above, this lack of training could partially account for why teacher education programmes and continuing professional development courses were not key sources forming teachers' beliefs, with a clear implication for more focus on the area of developing speaking skills. More practical training courses regarding teaching speaking could be extended in length to enable teachers to practise what they have learned, gain more sufficient feedback and focus on the teaching of speaking skills. This would then form their beliefs, since first-hand experience seems so central to the creation of teachers' core beliefs (Phipps & Borg, 2009).

#### **6.5.4 Classroom practitioners**

The findings of this study reveal that there were many areas relating to teaching speaking skills, including pedagogical knowledge and subject knowledge, where participants had uneven, and in some cases, missing knowledge. It was evident that these knowledge gaps influenced their beliefs which was influential in their practices in teaching speaking. Apart from this, contextual factors including the format of the exam and negative washback were influential in their speaking instruction. This study provides important data pointing to the need for teachers to improve their speaking instruction.

Gaining more teaching knowledge could increase teachers' confidence in their teaching and improve their self- efficacy, which could reduce the gap between teachers' beliefs and their practices (Choi & Lee, 2018; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007). When teachers believe in their own capability towards teaching, their beliefs are likely to transfer into their practices (Dellinger et al., 2008). Moreover, it can decrease their maladaptive beliefs as they can develop knowledge of teaching methodologies, approaches, techniques and activities that are supported by best practices and the latest research.

First, many of the participants reported that they did not know much about vocabulary techniques for teaching speaking, and they seemed to misinterpret some techniques for teaching vocabulary, such as elicitation by, for example, providing an inadequate amount of time for students to respond. This suggests that teachers should learn more techniques, for example, focusing on lexical phrases could promote student fluency and speaking proficiency (Goh & Burns, 2012; Nation, 2003; Nattinger, 1988; Richards & Rodgers, 2012). Thornbury (2005)

suggested that teachers teach words that occur frequently, for example, collocation and discourse markers. This could provide students with the input needed to support their speaking.

Moreover, although some of the participants believed that CLT and task-based learning were important for teaching speaking, they had not gained expertise in implementing such approaches effectively. To promote their use of innovative approaches, these teachers should receive more guidance on how to use such approaches and be taught more communicative activities or tasks to balance their use of controlled practice and communicative practice to promote students' speaking. Apart from this, these teacher participants need to be aware that students need scaffolding and guidance to achieve their tasks (Goh, 2016). In the EFL contexts, the target forms for achieving the task should be clarified for students (Fotos, 1998).

The participants believed in focusing more on accuracy than fluency partly because they lacked knowledge of how to increase student fluency and worried about time constraints. Therefore, these teachers should learn other techniques for improving students' fluency suggested by scholars, including pre-task planning for preparing the language (Mohammadipour & Rashid, 2015), allowing students to perform speaking tasks without focusing much on accuracy at first as was illustrated in the Goh and Burns's (2012) model for teaching speaking skills (see Section 2.5.8) (Nation & Newton, 2009) and using activities promoting fluency such as 4/3/2 fluency activities that incrementally decrease the amount of time students are allowed to speak (see Section 2.5.8).

The findings suggest that the participants lacked subject knowledge regarding speaking instruction. None of the participants were aware of the existence of spoken grammar, and they mainly taught written grammar and ignored the need to teach the more natural sounding language used in actual speech (see Section 4.2.1.1). To prepare students to communicate in various real-life situations outside the classroom, teachers should introduce them to the features of natural language (Goh & Burns, 2012). The implication of this study is that it is important for teachers to acknowledge spoken grammar as they need to recognise the difference between written grammar and spoken grammar to be able to teach students to use the language appropriately and naturally in different contexts (Goh & Burns, 2012).

More importantly, the participants in this study should acknowledge the lingua franca core (LFC). Then, they can introduce it to students in the classroom as an alternative pronunciation model apart from NES models in the EFL context in which their students are likely to communicate with non-native English speakers. However, implementing an effective LFC in Thailand has been challenging (Geerson, 2013). It should be borne in mind that this

would take a great deal of time to implement and require cooperation among scholars and educators. At the moment, there is little agreement on what might constitute an effective LFC curriculum, standard teaching approaches, evaluation and teaching materials. Arguably, Thailand has never been colonised by any countries including NES countries, which means that Thai people have not encountered English and NES culture in the way that other colonised countries have. Therefore, native speaker varieties of English might still be preferable among Thai people and the development of a Thai variety of English has not really been paid much attention to in this context (Bennui & Hashim, 2014).

In terms of teachers' English language proficiency, incidents of their difficulties in speaking English were not often observed in the classroom. In fact, more observations would be necessary to draw a strong conclusion on the influence of proficiency on the extensive use of L1. However, the implication of this study is that the participants also need to improve their linguistic knowledge and speaking proficiency because increasing speaking competence can increase their self-efficacy, which in turn, may improve students' speaking skills (Chen & Goh, 2011). In fact, only two out of six participants expressed self-efficacy beliefs relating to aspects of speaking in English and this in itself suggests that proficiency issues could have been a factor for some participants.

Moreover, the findings reveal that one of the main contextual factors that caused incongruence between teachers' beliefs and their practices was the format of exams and that negative washback affected how the participants taught students by narrowing the curriculum and focusing on some particular aspects, for example, grammar rules, accuracy and the meaning of the vocabulary, as they would be tested in the summative exam that excluded an assessment of speaking skills (see Section 5.1.8). This contextual factor reduced students' opportunities for practicing speaking. The implication for the current study is that without the existence of a high stakes speaking test, communicative practices are unlikely to be pursued in the classroom.

Additionally, teachers' 'assessment literacy' (see Section 6.5.1) were somewhat lacking. This suggests the need to raise awareness of the role of classroom-based assessment. Evidence here suggests that the participants' speaking assessment did not reflect the validity of the test, for example, using dialogue memorisation as a test (see Section 5.1.8). The participants' use of a grammar-based exam for speaking courses might reflect the fact that it is easier for teachers to conduct a grammar-focused test because more complex techniques are required to evaluate a student's speaking performance (Hirai & Koizumi, 2009). However, such grammar-based exams do not assess students' speaking skills, so it is important for teachers to

be aware of how speaking tests need to reflect students' real-life achievement and that a suitable assessment criteria for students' speaking performance is necessary (Khamkhien, 2010a).

Briefly, the participants need to improve their pedagogical knowledge including speaking assessment, subjective knowledge regarding speaking instruction and speaking proficiency to form beliefs that can lead to good practice in the classroom in order to enhance students' speaking proficiency. This study needs to be considered alongside other published studies with the hope of gaining the attention of different groups including policy makers, teaching materials creators, educators and curriculum designers in teacher education programmes and continuing professional development (CPD), CPD providers and teachers. This is necessary in order to utilise information and implications to improve teachers' professional growth, particularly speaking instruction, which will in turn, improve Thai EFL students' speaking proficiency.

## Appendix A: Lists of abbreviations

ASEAN Association of Southeast Asian Nations

B.A.	Bachelor of Arts
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference of Language
Cert.	Certificate
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
CO	Classroom Observation
COLT	Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching
CPD	Continuing Professional Development
EAP	English for Academic Purposes
Ed.D.	A Doctor of Education
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
ESL	English as a Second Language
ESP	English for Specific Purposes
FI	Final Interview
FIAC	Flanders Interaction Analysis Categories
GA	General American
IELTS	International English Language Testing System
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
LFC	Lingua Franca Core
M.A.	Master of Arts
M.Ed.	Master of Education
MFL	Modern Foreign Languages
NES	Native English Speakers
NIETS	National Institute of Educational Testing Service
NNS	Non -Native English speakers
Ph.D.	Doctor of Philosophy
PI	Pre-Interview
PPP	Presentation, Practice, Production
RP	Received Pronunciation
TBL	Task-Based Learning

TBLT	Task-Based Language Teaching
TESOL	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
TOEFL	Test of English as a Foreign Language
TOEIC	Test of English for International Communication
TSLT	Task-Supported Language Teaching
UK	United Kingdom

## Appendix B: Information sheet for the dean of the faculty

Research Study: Thai EFL University Teachers' Beliefs and Practices in Relation to Teaching Speaking



Dear Dean,

I am Kittiya Phisutthangkoon, and I am currently carrying out a research project to investigate Thai EFL university teachers' beliefs and practices in teaching speaking which is understudied in Thailand. The study will be beneficial for a clearer understanding of teachers' beliefs and practices in teaching speaking. The teachers will have an opportunity to reflect upon their beliefs and practices, which has generally been found to help their teaching.

I am writing to seek your consent to collect data from teachers and students in your department. I ask that I be allowed to conduct the study as follows.

- The researcher will ask for permission to recruit participants who are Thai EFL teachers teaching a course focusing on speaking.
- The researcher will ask for permission to approach students who attend such courses to get their consent to participate in the study as they will be observed during non- participant classroom observations.
- The researcher will conduct two pre-observation interviews, three non-participant classroom observations and a stimulated-recall interview after each classroom observation and one final interview with each participant.
- The participants will be asked the questions related to their educational background, their past teaching experience, professional development and learning experience and the aspects related to their beliefs and practices in teaching speaking. The duration of each pre- observation interview will be approximately one hour. Each pre-observation interview will be audio recorded.
- The classroom observation will be video recorded based on the length of each lesson and the researcher will observe the lesson without any classroom participation.
- The participants will be asked to watch a video recording of their teaching and explain their teaching and the reasons for their actions. Each stimulated-recall interview will be approximately one hour, and it will be audio recorded.
- For the final interview, the participant will be asked to provide further information from the previous interviews and classroom observations, which will be approximately half an hour and will be audio recorded.
- The duration for data collection for each participant will be approximately three months and the data can be traceable for nine months.
- The participants will participate in this study voluntarily and can withdraw from the study at any time during data collection and up to two weeks after the data is collected.
- The researcher may collect teaching materials during classroom observations.

- The participants will be anonymized and will not be identifiable in any final research reports. All information will be stored anonymously and confidentially. Data will be stored in secure filing cabinets and on a password-protected computer and may be used for future research.
- The video recordings will only be used by the researcher for analysis, and they will not be shown publicly.
- The data will be kept for four years after the completion of a research project; after that time, it will be destroyed.
- If there is possibility that the researcher may use some of the data publicly, data will be anonymized, and the participants will not be identifiable. They can decline such use of the data.
- Any transcribers or translators must sign a confidentiality agreement.
- The teacher participants will be given the opportunity to comment on a written record of their interviews and classroom observations.

I would like to ask you to confirm them that declining to take part in this study does not affect their work or study in any way. This study has been the subject of ethical review. I hope that I will get permission to collect the data from your teachers and students. If you have any further questions that you would like to ask before giving consent or after data collection or withdraw from the study, please contact Kittiya Phisutthangkoon by email [Kp917@york.ac.uk](mailto:Kp917@york.ac.uk) or the Chair of Ethics Committee via email [education-research-administrator@york.ac.uk](mailto:education-research-administrator@york.ac.uk).

Please keep this information sheet for your own records.

Thank you for taking time to read this information.

Yours sincerely,  
Kittiya Phisutthangkoon



## Appendix C: Dean of the faculty's consent form

Research Study: Thai EFL University Teachers' Beliefs and Practices in Relation to Teaching Speaking

**Please indicate on the consent form with a  if you are happy for your teachers and students to take part in this research.**

I confirm that I have read and understand the information given to me about the above-named research project.

I understand that the purpose of the research is to investigate teachers' beliefs and practices in teaching speaking in the Thai EFL university context.

I understand that I have had an opportunity to ask questions about the study.

I understand that the duration for collecting data from each participant will be approximately three months and that the data may be traceable for up to nine months.

I understand that teachers' and learners' participation is voluntary, and they are free to withdraw from the research study at any time during data collection and for up to two weeks after the data is collected.

I understand that the participants' identities will be anonymized and their names will not be identifiable in any final research reports.

I understand that if there is possibility that the researcher may use some of the data publicly, data will be anonymized, and the participants will not be identifiable. They are free to decline such use of data.

I understand that the data gained in this research study will be stored anonymously and confidentially in secure filing cabinets and on a password-protected computer and may be used for future research.

I understand that the video recordings will only be used by the researcher for analysis, and they will not be shared publicly.

I understand that the data will be kept for four years after the completion of the research project; after that time, it will be destroyed.

I understand that the researcher may collect teachers' teaching materials during classroom observations.

I agree that the interviews will be audio recorded and classroom observations will be video recorded.

I understand that any transcribers or translators must sign a confidentiality agreement.

I understand that the teachers will be given the opportunity to comment on the written record of their interviews and classroom observations.

I confirm that declining to take part in this study does not affect the work of teacher and student participants in anyway.

I give my consent for you to approach teachers and learners to participate in this research study.

_____	_____	_____
Name of the Dean	Date	Signature
_____	_____	_____
Name of Researcher	Date	Signature
Kittiya Phisutthangkoon		
E-mail: <a href="mailto:Kp917@york.ac.uk">Kp917@york.ac.uk</a>		

## Appendix D: Information sheet for teachers' participant interviews

Research Study: Thai EFL University Teachers' Beliefs and Practices in Relation to Teaching Speaking



Dear Sir or Madam,

Kittiya Phisutthangkoon is currently carrying out a research project to investigate the Thai EFL university teachers' beliefs and practices in teaching speaking, which is understudied in Thailand. The study will be beneficial for a clearer understanding of teachers' beliefs and practices in teaching speaking. The teachers will have an opportunity to reflect upon their beliefs and practices, which is generally found to be helpful for their teaching. I am writing to ask if you are able to take part in the study.

- The researcher will conduct two pre- observation interviews, a stimulated- recall interview after each classroom observation and one final interview with each participant.
- The participants will be asked questions related to their educational background, their past teaching experience, professional development, learning experience and the aspects related to teachers' beliefs and practices in teaching speaking. The duration of each pre-observation interview will be approximately one hour. Each pre-observation interview will be audio recorded.
- The participants will be asked to watch a video recording of their teaching and explain their teaching and the reasons for their actions. Each stimulated-recall interview will be approximately one hour and will be audio recorded.
- For the final interview, the participant will be asked about further information from the previous interviews and classroom observations and will last approximately half an hour and will be audio recorded.
- The duration for collecting data for each participant will be approximately three months and can be traceable for nine months.
- The participants will participate in this study voluntarily and can withdraw from the study at any time during data collection and for up to two weeks after the data is collected.
- The participants will be anonymized and will not be identifiable in any final research reports. All information will be stored anonymously and confidentially in secure filing cabinets and a password-protected computer and may be used for future research.
- The data will be kept for four years after the completion of the research project; after that time, it will be destroyed.
- If there is possibility that the researcher may use some of the data publicly, data will be anonymized, and the participants will not be identifiable. They can decline such use of the data.
- Any transcribers or translators must sign a confidentially agreement.

- The participants will be given the opportunity to comment on a written record of their interviews.
- Declining to participate in the study will not affect the teacher's work in any way.

This study has been the subject of ethical review. I hope that you will agree to take part. If you have any further questions that you would like to ask before giving consent or after data collection or withdraw from the study, please contact Kittiya Phisutthangkoon by email [Kp917@york.ac.uk](mailto:Kp917@york.ac.uk) or the Chair of Ethics Committee via email [education-research-administrator@york.ac.uk](mailto:education-research-administrator@york.ac.uk).

Please keep this information sheet for your own records.

Thank you for taking time to read this information.

Yours sincerely,  
Kittiya Phisutthangkoon

## Appendix E: Teachers' consent form for interviews

Research Study: Thai EFL University Teachers' Beliefs and Practices in Relation to Teaching Speaking

**Please indicate on the consent form with a  if you are happy to take part in this research.**

I confirm that I have read and understand the information given to me about the above-named research project, and I understand that this will involve me taking part as described above.

I understand that the purpose of the research is to investigate teachers' beliefs and practices in teaching speaking in the Thai EFL university context.

I agree to take part in all interviews.

I understand that I have had an opportunity to ask questions about the study.

I understand that the duration for collecting data from each participant will be approximately three months and that the data may be traceable for up to nine months.

I understand that my participation is voluntary, and I am free to withdraw from the research study at any time during data collection and for up to two weeks after the data is collected.

I understand that my participation in this study is anonymized, and I will not be identifiable in any final research reports.

If there is possibility that the researcher may use some of the data publicly, data will be anonymized and I will not be identified. I am free to decline such use of data.

I understand that the data gained in this research study will be stored anonymously and confidentially in secure filing cabinets and on a password-protected computer and that it may be used for future research.

I understand that the data will be kept for four years after the completion of the research project; after that time, it will be destroyed.

I agree that the interviews will be audio recorded.

I understand that any transcribers or translators must signed a confidentiality agreement.

I understand that I will be given the opportunity to comment on a written record of my interviews.

I understand that declining to participate in the study will not affect my work

in any way.

I agree to take part in the research study.

---

Name of Participant

---

Date

---

Signature

---

Name of Researcher  
Kittiya Phisutthangkoon  
E-mail: Kp917@york.ac.uk

---

Date

---

Signature

## Appendix F: Teachers' Information sheet for classroom observations

Research Study: Thai EFL University Teachers' Beliefs and Practices in Relation to Teaching Speaking



Dear Sir or Madam,

Kittiya Phisutthangkoon is currently carrying out a research project to investigate Thai EFL university teachers' beliefs and practices in teaching speaking which is understudied in Thailand. The study will be beneficial for a clearer understanding of teachers' beliefs and practices in teaching speaking. The teachers will have an opportunity to reflect upon their beliefs and practices, which is generally found to be helpful for their teaching practice. I am writing to ask if you are able to take part in the study.

- The researcher will conduct three non-participant classroom observations.
- The classroom observation will be video recorded based on the length of each lesson and the researcher will observe the lesson without any classroom participation.
- The duration for collecting data from each participant will be approximately three months, and the data will be traceable for nine months.
- The participants will participate in this study voluntarily and can withdraw from the study at any time during data collection and for up to two weeks after the data is collected.
- The researcher may collect teaching materials during classroom observations.
- The participants will be anonymized and will not be identifiable in any final research reports. All information will be stored anonymously and confidentially in secure filing cabinets and on a password-protected computer and may be used for future research.
- The video recordings will only be used by the researcher for analysis, and they will not be shared publicly.
- The data will be kept for four years after the completion of a research project; after that time, it will be destroyed.
- If there is possibility that the researcher may use some of the data publicly, data will be anonymized, and the participants will not be identifiable. They can decline such use of the data.
- Any transcribers or translators must have a signed confidentiality agreement.
- The participants will be given the opportunity to comment on a written record of your classroom observations.
- Declining to participate in the study will not affect your work in any way.

This study has been the subject of ethical review. I hope that you will agree to take part. If you have any further questions that you would like to ask before giving consent or after data collection or withdraw from the study, please contact Kittiya Phisutthangkoon by email [Kp917@york.ac.uk](mailto:Kp917@york.ac.uk) or the Chair of Ethics Committee via email [education-research-administrator@york.ac.uk](mailto:education-research-administrator@york.ac.uk).

Please keep this information sheet for your own records.

Thank you for taking time to read this information.  
Yours sincerely,  
Kittiya Phisutthangkoon



## Appendix G: Teachers' consent form for classroom observation

Research Study: Thai EFL University Teachers' Beliefs and Practices in Relation to Teaching Speaking

**Please indicate on the consent form with a  if you are happy to take part in this research.**

I confirm that I have read and understand the information given to me about the above-named research project and I understand that this will involve me taking part as described above.

I understand that the purpose of the research is to investigate teachers' beliefs and practices in teaching speaking in the Thai EFL university context.

I agree to take part in non-participant classroom observations.

I understand that I have had an opportunity to ask questions about the study.

I understand that the duration for collecting data from each participant will be approximately three months and the data will be traceable for nine months.

I understand that my participation is voluntary, and I am free to withdraw from the research study at any time during data collection and for up to two weeks after the data is collected.

I understand that my participation in this study is anonymized and that I will not be identifiable in any final research reports.

I understand that if there is possibility that the researcher may use some of the data publicly, data will be anonymized, and I will not be identified. I am free to decline such use of data.

I understand that the video recordings will only be used by the researcher for analysis, and that it will not be shared publicly.

I understand that the data gained in this research study will be stored anonymously and confidentially in secure filing cabinets and on a password-protected computer and that it may be used for future research.

I understand that the data will be kept for four years after the completion of the research project; after that time it will be destroyed.

I understand that the researcher may collect teaching materials during classroom observation.

I agree that classroom observations will be video recorded.

I understand that any transcribers or translators must sign a confidentiality agreement.

I understand that I will be given the opportunity to comment on any written record of my classroom observations.

I understand that declining to participate in the study will not affect my work in any way.

I agree to take part in the research study.

\_\_\_\_\_  
Name of Participant

\_\_\_\_\_  
Date

\_\_\_\_\_  
Signature

\_\_\_\_\_  
Name of Researcher

\_\_\_\_\_  
Date

\_\_\_\_\_  
Signature

Kittiya Phisutthangkoon: E-mail: [Kp917@york.ac.uk](mailto:Kp917@york.ac.uk)

## Appendix H: Information sheet for student participants

Research Study: Thai EFL University Teachers' Beliefs and Practices in Relation to Teaching Speaking



Dear Student,

Kittiya Phisutthangkoon is currently carrying out a research project to investigate Thai EFL university teachers' beliefs and practices in teaching speaking which is understudied in Thailand. The study will be beneficial for a clearer understanding of teachers' beliefs and practices in teaching speaking. The teachers will have an opportunity to reflect upon their beliefs and practices, which is generally found to be helpful for their teaching. I am writing to ask if you are able to take part in the study.

- The researcher will conduct three classroom observations, which will be video recorded based on the length of each lesson, and the researcher will observe the lesson without any classroom participation.
- The duration for collecting data from each participant will be approximately three months and the data can be traceable for nine months.
- The participants will participate in this study voluntarily and can withdraw from the study at any time during data collection and for up to two weeks after the data is collected.
- The participants will be anonymized and will not be identifiable in any final research reports. All information will be stored anonymously and confidentially in secure filing cabinets and on a password-protected computer and may be used for future research.
- The video recordings will only be used by the researcher for analysis, and they will not be shared publicly.
- The data will be kept for four years after the completion of a research project; after that time, it will be destroyed.
- If there is possibility that the researcher may use some of the data publicly, data will be anonymized, and the participants will not be identifiable. They can decline such use of data.
- Any transcribers or translators must sign a confidentiality agreement.
- Declining to participate to the study will not affect your study in any way.

This study has been the subject of ethical review. I hope that you will agree to take part. If you have any further questions that you would like to ask before giving consent or after data collection or withdraw from the study, please contact Kittiya Phisutthangkoon by email [Kp917@york.ac.uk](mailto:Kp917@york.ac.uk) or the Chair of Ethics Committee via email [education-research-administrator@york.ac.uk](mailto:education-research-administrator@york.ac.uk)

Please keep this information sheet for your own records.

Thank you for taking time to read this information.

Kittiya Phisutthangkoon

## Appendix I: Student consent form

Research Study: Thai EFL University Teachers' Beliefs and Practices in Relation to Teaching Speaking

**Please indicate on the consent form with a  if you are happy to take part in this research.**

I confirm that I have read and understand the information given to me about the above-named research project, and I understand that this will involve me taking part as described above.

I agree to take part in non-participant classroom observations.

I understand that the purpose of the research is to investigate teachers' beliefs and practices in teaching speaking in the Thai EFL university context.

I understand that I have had an opportunity to ask questions about the study.

I understand that the duration for collecting data from each participant will be approximately three months and that the data will be traceable for nine months.

I understand that my participation is voluntary, and I am free to withdraw from the research study at any time during data collection and for up to two weeks after the data is collected.

I understand that my participation in this study is anonymized and that I will not be identifiable in any final research reports.

I understand that if there is possibility that the researcher may use some of the data publicly, data will be anonymized, and I am not going to be identifiable. I am free to decline such use of the data.

I understand that the video recordings will only be used by the researcher for analysis, and they will not be shared publicly.

I understand that the data gained in this research study will be stored anonymously and confidentially in secure filing cabinets and on a password-protected computer and that it may be used for future research.

I understand that the data will be kept for four years after the completion of a research project; after that time, it will be destroyed.

I agree that classroom observations will be video recorded.

I understand that any transcribers or translators must sign a confidentiality agreement.

I understand that declining to participate in the study will not affect my study in any way.

I agree to take part in the research study.

_____	_____	_____
Name of Participant	Date	Signature
_____	_____	_____
Name of Researcher	Date	Signature

Kittiya Phisutthangkoon  
E-mail: [Kp917@york.ac.uk](mailto:Kp917@york.ac.uk)

## Appendix J: Teacher profile form

<b>Educational Background</b>	
Date of Birth	
Primary school	
Secondary school	
High school	
Bachelor's degree/ institution/ country	
Master's degree/ institution /country	
Doctoral degree/ institution/country	
<b>Teachers' Teaching Education</b>	
Teacher training course	
TEFL/TESOL training	
<b>Teaching Experience</b>	
Years of teaching English	
Years of teaching speaking	
<b>Continuing Professional Development</b>	
In-service training programme	
Sources for developing your speaking instruction	
Research interests	

<b>Educational Background</b>	
Date of Birth	
Primary school	
Secondary school	
High school	
Bachelor's degree/ institution/ country	
Master's degree/ institution /country	
Doctoral degree/ institution/country	
<b>Teachers' teaching education</b>	
Teacher training course	
TEFL/TESOL training	
<b>Teaching Experience</b>	
Years of teaching English	
Years of teaching speaking	
<b>Continuing professional development</b>	
In-service training programme	
Sources for developing your speaking instruction	
Research interests	

## **Appendix K: Questions for interviews (pilot study)**

### **The first interview questions**

#### **Teachers' backgrounds and the sources of teachers' beliefs**

##### **1. Teachers' background and learning experience**

1. Please tell me about your educational background.
2. How did your teachers teach English when you were in school?
  - Is there any difference between how you were taught in primary/secondary school and university?
  - Can you tell me about your English class that you particularly liked? / Why did you like them?
  - How did your teachers teach you speaking skills?
  - What methods or approaches were used for speaking instruction?
  - What kinds of activities did you favour in speaking classes?
  - Can you describe any particularly good or bad experiences you had when learning speaking?
  - Can you describe your favourite teacher at that time?
  - What did your teachers do to help you improve your speaking skills?
  - To what extent has the way you were taught influenced your beliefs about teaching speaking?

##### **2. Teachers' teaching education**

1. Please tell me about the teaching courses you attended while you were studying.
  - What approaches or methods were you satisfied with?
  - What have you adopted from what you learned in your current teaching?
  - To what extent do you think that the teaching education programme you completed influenced the way you teach speaking now?

##### **3. Teachers' teaching experience**

1. How do you feel your teaching of speaking has developed over the years?
2. To what extent does your past classroom teaching experience affect your beliefs about teaching speaking?
  - How does your teaching experience affect your current teaching speaking practices?
  - What are the similarities and difference between you and your teachers in teaching speaking?

##### **4. In-service training /continuing professional development**

1. Please tell me about any in-service training programme relevant to speaking skills that you had attended?



- To what extent have you been able to apply the knowledge from the in-service training programmes to your classroom?
- 2. Please tell me about your experience in learning the skills of speaking English.
- 3. How do you develop your teaching of speaking skills?
- 4. What influenced your teaching development?
  - To what extent do you apply the knowledge you gain from reading research and teacher development literature, discussing your teaching with colleagues, conducting research on speaking, reading online blogs about teaching speaking to your teaching practice?

## **5. Final questions**

1. What do you think is the greatest influence on your beliefs regarding teaching speaking?
2. What factors influence your beliefs in teaching speaking?
3. How would you describe your own spoken English skills? What are your strengths and weaknesses?
4. Is there anything more you want to tell me about teaching speaking?

## **The second pre-interview questions**

### **Teachers' beliefs about the components of speaking and teaching speaking and the sources of these beliefs**

#### **1. The goal of teaching speaking skills**

1. What is the goal of your speaking instruction?
2. What elements are important for the students in learning speaking?

#### **2. Grammar**

1. What is the role of grammar in teaching speaking?
2. What do you think are the most effective ways to teach grammar for speaking in this context?
  - Where did you get that idea?
  - What do you think about the practice of explaining grammar rules to students?
  - How do you choose which grammar structures to teach?
  - What do you think of using grammar exercises for teaching speaking?
  - What do you think of teaching grammar structures before doing speaking activities?
3. Is there any difference between grammar structures in speaking and writing?
4. What do you think of teaching more complex language in speaking such as using subordinate conjunctions?

### **3. Vocabulary**

1. What is the role of vocabulary in teaching speaking?
2. How do you choose what vocabulary will be taught when teaching speaking?
3. What are your techniques in teaching vocabulary for teaching speaking?
  - Where did you get that idea?

### **4. Pronunciation**

1. What is your goal in teaching pronunciation?
  - Where did you get that idea?
2. Do you teach any specific L2 target model?
  - What do you think of teaching native English speaker norms as a model for students' pronunciation?
  - Have you ever heard about the LFC? If yes, what do you think of teaching the LFC for pronunciation?
  - What do you think of teaching English as a lingua franca target model?
  - Do you recognise ASEAN English varieties as a model for teaching pronunciation?
  - What do you think of teaching ASEAN English varieties to your learners?
3. What features should be emphasised for teaching Thai learners' pronunciation?
  - What are the problems of Thai learners in English pronunciation?
4. What do you think of your own pronunciation?
  - What model do you follow?
  - Why do you prefer that model?
5. How do you teach pronunciation in the classroom?

### **5. Intercultural communicative competence**

1. What do you think of raising awareness of different cultures when teaching speaking?
  - How about teaching learners ASEAN cultures?
  - How about teaching native English speaker norms?
  - How do you raise student awareness of different cultures when teaching speaking?
  - Where did you get that idea?
  - To what extent do you raise their awareness of using an appropriate language with interlocutors of different nationalities, languages, and cultures?

### **6. Approaches and methods**

1. What do you think of using drilling in speaking classes?
2. To what extent do you use L1 in speaking classes?
3. What do you think of learner- centred learning?
4. What kind of activities do you use to help learners speak English?
5. What are your teaching roles when teaching speaking?
6. What are learners' roles in the classroom?
7. What is your understanding of task-based learning?
  - What do you think of using tasks for teaching speaking?
8. What do you think of using pair or group work?

- How do you use pair work or group work in teaching speaking?
- 9. To what extent do you focus on fluency?
  - How do you improve learners' fluency?
  - What activities do you think can improve learners' fluency?
- 10. To what extent do you focus on accuracy?
  - How do you improve learners' accuracy?
  - What activities do you think can improve learners' accuracy?
  - To what extent do you correct learners' mistakes?
  - What types of learner mistakes do you always correct?
  - What techniques do you use for correcting learner mistakes?
  - How do you know that?

### **7. Affective factors**

1. To what extent do you think learners feel anxiety when speaking English?
  - How do you help reduce their anxiety?
2. What can help make learners be more willing to speak English?
  - Where did you get this idea?

### **Final interview questions**

1. Is there anything you want to tell me more about teaching speaking?

### **Stimulated-recall interview questions**

1. Could you tell me when you started teaching speaking in this lesson?
2. What objective did you have in mind with this action?
3. What were you satisfied with in this lesson?
4. Are there any areas that you were not satisfied with, what were they?
5. What were you thinking at that particular time?
6. Did you really intend to do that at that moment?
  - Did this lesson go as you had planned?
  - If not, why did you decide to act differently from what you had planned?
7. What is your reason for that decision?
  - Why did you ask this question?
  - Why did you say that?
  - Why did you use this teaching activity?
8. What were the different influences on your approach to teaching speaking in this course?
9. What is your role in this situation?
  - How about the role of the students?
10. Where did you get that idea?

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### **Final interview questions**

1. What do you think of the value of reflecting on your beliefs?
2. To what extent are your beliefs congruent with your practice?
  - What makes your beliefs consistent with your practice?
  - Did you realise that some of your stated beliefs were not congruent with your practice?
  - What makes your practice different from what you said in the pre-interview?
  - Why didn't you implement your stated beliefs in that aspect in your practice?
  - What factors influenced your actions in this situation?

# Appendix L: Questions for interviews (main study)

## The first interview questions

### Teachers' backgrounds and the sources of teachers' beliefs

#### 1. Teachers' background and learning experience

3. Please tell me about your educational background.
4. How did your teachers teach English when you were in school?
  - Is there any difference between how you were taught in primary/secondary school and university?
  - Can you tell me about one class or any classes that you particularly liked? / Why did you like them?
  - How did your teachers teach you speaking skills?
  - What methods or approaches were used for speaking instruction?
  - What kinds of activities did you favour in speaking classes?
  - Can you describe any particularly good or bad experiences you had when learning speaking?
  - Can you describe your favourite teacher at that time?
  - What did your teachers do to help you improve your speaking skills?
  - To what extent has the way you were taught influenced your beliefs about teaching speaking?

#### 2. Teachers' teaching education

2. Please tell me about the teaching courses you attended while you were studying.
  - What approaches or methods were you satisfied with?
  - What have you adopted from what you learned in your current teaching?
  - To what extent do you think that the teaching education programme you completed influenced the way you teach speaking now?

#### 3. Teachers' teaching experience

3. How do you feel your teaching of speaking has developed over the years?
4. To what extent does your past classroom teaching experience affect your beliefs about teaching speaking?
  - How does your teaching experience affect your current teaching speaking practices?
  - What are the similarities and difference between you and your teachers in teaching speaking?

#### 4. In-service training /continuing professional development

5. Please tell me about any in-service training programme relevant to speaking skills that you had attended?

- To what extent have you been able to apply the knowledge from the in-service training programmes to your classroom?
- 6. Please tell me about your experience in learning the skills of speaking English.
- 7. How do you develop your teaching of speaking skills?
- 8. What influenced your teaching development?
- To what extent do you apply the knowledge you gain from reading research and teacher development literature, discussing your teaching with colleagues, conducting research on speaking, reading online blogs about teaching speaking to your teaching practice?

## **5. Final questions**

1. What do you think is the greatest influence on your beliefs regarding teaching speaking?
2. What factors influence your beliefs in teaching speaking?
3. How would you describe your own spoken English skills? What are your strengths and weaknesses?
4. Is there anything more you want to tell me about teaching speaking?

## **The second pre-interview questions**

### **Teachers' beliefs about the components of speaking and teaching speaking and the sources of these beliefs**

#### **1. The goal of teaching speaking skills**

1. What is the goal of your speaking instruction?
2. What elements are important for the students in learning speaking?

#### **2. Grammar**

1. What is the role of grammar in teaching speaking?
2. What do you think are the most effective ways to teach grammar for speaking in this context?
  - Where did you get that idea?
  - What do you think about the practice of explaining grammar rules to students?
  - How do you choose which grammar structures to teach?
  - What do you think of using grammar exercises for teaching speaking?
  - What do you think of teaching grammar structures before doing speaking activities?
3. Is there any difference between grammar structures in speaking and writing?
  5. What do you think of teaching more complex language in speaking such as using subordinate conjunctions?

### **3. Vocabulary**

4. What is the role of vocabulary in teaching speaking?
5. How do you choose what vocabulary will be taught when teaching speaking?
6. What are your techniques in teaching vocabulary for teaching speaking?
  - Where did you get that idea?

### **4. Pronunciation**

4. What is your goal in teaching pronunciation?
    - Where did you get that idea?
  5. Do you teach any specific L2 target model?
    - What do you think of teaching native English speaker norms as a model for students' pronunciation?
    - Have you ever heard about the Lingua Franca Core? If yes, what do you think of teaching the LFC for pronunciation?
    - What do you think of teaching English as a lingua franca target model?
    - Do you recognise ASEAN English varieties as a model for teaching pronunciation?
    - What do you think of teaching ASEAN English varieties to your learners?
  6. What features should be emphasised for teaching Thai learners' pronunciation?
    - What are the problems of Thai learners in English pronunciation?
4. What do you think of your own pronunciation?
- What model do you follow?
  - Why do you prefer that model?
5. How do you teach pronunciation in the classroom?

### **5. Intercultural communicative competence**

2. What do you think of raising awareness of different cultures when teaching speaking?
  - How about teaching learners ASEAN cultures?
  - How about teaching native English speaker norms?
  - How do you raise student awareness of different cultures when teaching speaking?
  - Where did you get that idea?
  - To what extent do you raise their awareness of using an appropriate language with interlocutors of different nationalities, languages, and cultures?

### **6. Approaches and methods**

9. What do you think of using drilling in speaking classes?
10. To what extent do you use L1 in speaking classes?
11. What do you think of learner- centred learning?
12. What kind of activities do you use to help learners speak English?
13. What are your teaching roles when teaching speaking?
14. What are learners' roles in the classroom?
15. What is your understanding of task-based learning?
  - What do you think of using tasks for teaching speaking?
16. What do you think of using pair or group work?

- How do you use pair work or group work in teaching speaking?
- 9. To what extent do you focus on fluency?
  - How do you improve learners' fluency?
  - What activities do you think can improve learners' fluency?
- 10. To what extent do you focus on accuracy?
  - How do you improve learners' accuracy?
  - What activities do you think can improve learners' accuracy?
  - To what extent do you correct learners' mistakes?
  - What types of learner mistakes do you always correct?
  - What techniques do you use for correcting learner mistakes?
  - How do you know that?

### **7. Affective factors**

- 3. To what extent do you think learners feel anxiety when speaking English?
  - How do you help reduce their anxiety?
- 4. What can help make learners be more willing to speak English?
  - What about classroom atmosphere, classroom conditions, any techniques, materials, praising, group work, pair work, preparing before speaking?
  - Where did you get this idea?

### **Final interview questions**

- 2. Is there anything you want to tell me more about teaching speaking?

### **Stimulated-recall interview questions**

- 1. Could you tell me when you started teaching speaking in this lesson?
- 2. What objective did you have in mind with this action?
- 3. What were you satisfied with in this lesson?
- 4. Are there any areas that you were not satisfied with, what were they?
- 5. What were you thinking at that particular time?
- 6. Did you really intend to do that at that moment?
  - Did this lesson go as you had planned?
  - If not, why did you decide to act differently from what you had planned?
- 7. What is your reason for that decision?
  - Why did you ask this question?
  - Why did you say that?
  - Why did you use this teaching activity?
- 8. What were the different influences on your approach to teaching speaking in this course?
- 9. What is your role in this situation?
  - How about the role of the students?



10. Where did you get that idea?

**Final interview questions**

1. What do you think of the value of reflecting on your beliefs?
2. To what extent are your beliefs congruent with your practice?
  - What makes your beliefs consistent with your practice?
  - Did you realise that some of your stated beliefs were not congruent with your practice?
  - What makes your practice different from what you said in the pre-interview?
  - What factors influenced your actions in this situation?

## Appendix M: A sample interview transcript

(R= researcher, P= Pensiri)

R: Could you please talk about your goals in speaking instruction?

P: About my goals?

R: Yes, please.

P: Actually, I give my lectures based on a syllabus. First, our goal is to enable students to communicate with foreigners in daily life and various necessary functions.

R: I see.

P: For example, self-introduction, making requests, making a phone call, asking for directions— those are essential skills.

R: Well, do you have other goals? How about pronunciation? Or others?

P: As students learn pronunciation at the university level, they need accurate pronunciation. At least, they need to think about grammar, for example, how to pronounce when asking Yes-No questions or Wh- questions.

R: Umm.

P: Including how to stress and final sounds. Consequently, when students listen to a clip in my class, I also emphasise pronouncing the final sound. I talked about a past tense and gave examples, such as ‘ch’, ‘d’ and ‘id’ sound.

R: How about overall essential elements in your speaking instruction?  
What did you focus on?

P: During my lecture, I encourage students to participate in many activities. We focus on functions of language. Initially, I give them a topic, let them practice and apply it to many situations. Students need to apply and implement. In class, they are encouraged to speak as much as they can. ‘No fear’ is my vital clue. They are encouraged to be confident. However, we have faced some problems. The number of students in class is a major problem. It is impossible to let every student speak. Sometimes, we divide students into Group A and Group B, but some students still will not speak.

R: Umm.

P: In contrast, when we have an exam, a lot of students try to speak many times. Sometimes, they are concerned about grading. If I asked them to speak, they didn’t say anything. On the contrary, if I give them some points, they will be eager to speak.

R: What about the importance of grammar?

P: Grammar is very important. Especially, when students learn to ask a question, they are supposed to use correct tenses. Then, I tell them that when you ask a question, you need to understand the passage. Next, ‘Wh-questions – what, when, where, why’ will be placed in this passage as well. Mostly, I will teach grammar such as after ‘for’ we need to put ‘verb + ing’.

R: How about the role of grammar in your speaking course? To what extent do you think it is important?

P: As I said that, key roles in my speaking course might be communication skills at the academic level. As university students, they have to use correct grammatical structures. Actually, grammar or structure in a speaking course is not complicated. For example, we use present simple tense in normal situations to state facts. If we are talking, we use present continuous tense. Students will realise some grammatical points while we emphasise as well.

R: Well, what are your effective methods to teach grammar for speaking skills?

P: We teach in a communicative style, the same as grammar for communication. There are many conversations that we are able to use to teach grammar. For example, I teach ‘giving and asking for directions’. It must be imperative. We did not say ‘You turn left.’ or ‘You turn right.’ ‘Would you like to .....’ followed by infinitive of the verb. ‘What about.....’ followed by gerund or verb+ing. I teach them indirectly for every topic.

R: It means you teach ‘expression’ in a lesson.

P: Of course, I also teach ‘expression’.

R: Based on your teaching methods, how do you get ideas?

P: The ideas came from what I learnt. Right? There are many ‘speaking’ teaching methods such as the ‘information gap’ technique. We also assign some students to perform role play activities. A / B as a salesperson in a shop, will know price of products [and the other will ask questions].

R: Do you get this activity from a textbook?

P: Some activities are from the textbook. There are various activities for pair work as A/B. Moreover, we are able to download free learning activities from websites.

R: Well, you also apply some exercises from website.

P: Mostly, I get some interesting conversations from websites. However, I need to consider a proper one similar to what I select from textbooks.

R: What do you think about using grammar exercises for teaching speaking?

P: ‘Grammar’? Actually, ‘Grammar’ sounds necessary in speaking. [For example], ‘Want to go’ ‘I’m going to’; sometimes, I also teach grammar. You need to know the differences between ‘I will’ and ‘going to’. ‘Going to’ obviously expresses intention. Sometimes, we use ‘a picture description’ technique in self-introduction activity. What are they doing? I recommend students use ‘past tense’ when they talk about their childhood memories. Then, when they are going to talk about their plan for next year, they are supposed to use ‘going to’. If a picture shows what they are doing, I will recommend they use present continuous as well.

R: It means that grammar is still necessary.

P: I will teach every topic of grammar, for example, asking to help—how to use ‘Could you’ ‘Can you’.

R: Do you assign any grammar exercises to students?

P: There are plenty of exercises based on pictures or situations. How to offer if a student did not get some coffee. We give students some patterns. Then, they get an example. They are able to apply the structure in other contexts. How to use 'Would you like to' or 'Could you' or 'please'.

R: How do you select a grammar structure to teach in your class?

P: I select grammar structure based on each function in our lesson. I teach grammar indirectly while we study, such as how to use 'enjoy + v. ing'.

R: Well, typically based on a textbook.

P: Yes; for example, I teach grammar about possessive pronouns, possessive adjectives. It will also need to add 's'. This example is related with 'speaking' in this function as well.

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R: Well, while you teach grammar structures, is it necessary to ask students to answer in full sentences?

P: Students are supposed to speak in a full sentence.

R: Okay. Do you think complex sentence structures are necessary to students?

P: I think it is not necessary in speaking. Sometimes, speaking does not need to be formal.

For example, 'Would it be possible for me to use your phone?' Is it ok? No, it is not necessary.

We can say 'Could I', 'Can I'. Although at this level, it is not necessary. It sounds out-of-date.

In real life, we just speak to communicate as quickly as we can....

## Appendix N: Summary of participants' classroom observation

Pensiri's first classroom observation

Stage	Time(mins)	Classroom activities (2 hrs 34 mins)	Classroom interaction
1	3.38	The teacher gave an introduction about requesting, offering, and asking for permission following the content in the textbook. The teacher elicited responses from students.	T-SS
2	4.6	The teacher asked students to do a warm- up activity in the textbook and elicited answers from them. (feedback stage)	T-SS
3	18.23	The teacher showed a YouTube video clip about requesting and then presented some useful expressions and pointing out some structures.	T-SS
4	6.10	The teacher chose some pairs of students to practice asking questions and responding in the front of the class using an exercise about requesting from the textbook.	S-S
5	8.2	The teacher asked students to watch a YouTube video clip about requesting and offering, and then explained offering expressions (in the textbook).	T-SS
6	4.44	The teacher chose some students to practice offering and responding (in the front of the class) from situations provided in the textbook.	SS-SS
7	8.56	The teacher showed a YouTube video about permission and gave explanations of some permission expressions seen in the video.	T-SS
8	19.34	The teacher asked four students to stand in the front of the class holding the sign for each function and asked the rest of students to read the question in front of the class and match the question with its function.	S-S-S
9	12.04	The teacher asked students to produce a sentence from the situations provided in the textbook in front of the class.	S-S-S

### Interaction patterns

T-SS = The teacher to the whole class

T-S= The teacher to the individual student

S-S-S = individual work

S-Mingle = Students mingle with their peers.

S-S= Pair work

SS-SS= Groupwork

S-SS= A student talk to the whole class

Pensiri's second classroom observation

Stage	Time(mins)	Classroom activities (2 hrs.34 mins)	Classroom interaction
1	3.02	The teacher reviewed expressions and structures used for asking permission.	T-SS
2	4.35	The teacher elicited the importance of mobile phones from students.	T-SS
3	21.55	The teacher gave an explanation about telephoning through PowerPoint.	T-SS
4	2.4	The teacher elicited answers from the whole class to complete phrases for telephoning (from the textbook).	T-SS
5	2.32	The teacher presented vocabulary about telephoning using PowerPoint.	T-SS
6	16.25	The teacher continued presenting expressions for telephoning through the PowerPoint.	T-SS
7	3.2	The teacher asked students to watch a YouTube video clip. They then did choral drills following a conversation in the video clip.	T-SS
8	2.25	The teacher asked two groups of three students to practice imitating the conversation from the video clip in front of the class.	SS-SS
9	2.25	The teacher used choral drilling to practice the conversation in the video clip.	T-SS
10	5.25	The teacher elicited the answers of the matching exercise in the textbook with expressions for telephoning.	T-SS
11	54.15	Students created a dialogue script about telephoning following a cued dialogue provided.	SS-SS

Pensiri's third classroom observation

Stage	Time(mins)	Classroom activities (2 hrs 10 mins)	Classroom interaction
1	6.48	The teacher reviewed expressions for telephoning presented in the textbook.	T-SS
2	3.02	Students completed poems about telephoning in the textbook	S-S-S
3	4.30	The teacher used choral drilling to encourage students to practice pronunciation in the poems.	T-SS
4	22.35	The teacher elicited answers for some controlled practice, such as rearranging words into a sentence, matching the sentence, and reordering a conversation.	T-SS
5	3.20	The teacher asked two pairs of students to practice reading a conversation aloud in front of the class.	S-S
6	13.8	Students acted out the scripts that they created in a previous lesson.	S-S
7	0.35	The teacher reviewed expressions for telephoning.	T-SS
8	31.55	The teacher taught expressions and structures for making an invitation through YouTube video clips and the textbook.	T-SS
9	25.20	The teacher asked students to complete a conversation in the textbook by writing it down on a blank paper using the expressions they had been taught.	S-S-S

### Wasin's first classroom observation

Stage	Time(mins)	Classroom activities (2 hrs 55mins)	Classroom interaction
1	6.34	The teacher showed a YouTube video clip presenting a person who did not use English accurately to raise students awareness of using language accurately.	T- SS
2	11.35	The teacher elicited the meaning of some vocabulary from a song.	T-SS
3	3.1	The teacher elicited answers from students on a warm-up activity in the textbook. (feedback stage)	T-SS
4	21.16	The teacher gave an explanation of the 'if-clause' through PowerPoint and elicited responses from students.	T-SS
5	12.27	The teacher elicited answers from students while they did grammar exercises on PowerPoint.	T-SS
6	10.4	The teacher focused on pronunciation and used choral drilling to practice a conversation in the textbook.	T-SS
7	10.5	The teacher asked students to listen to a conversation from an audio clip and asked them to translate a conversation in the textbook from English to Thai.	T-SS
8	5	The teacher elicited answers on a controlled activity in the textbook.	T-SS
9	13.5	The teacher asked students to use a questionnaire provided in the textbook to interview their classmates.	S-mingle
10	15.5	The teacher elicited responses from individual students about the questionnaire mentioned above. (feedback stage)	S-S-S
11	9.38	The teacher elicited answers of the controlled exercise in the textbook.	T-SS
12	10.08	The teacher asked students to create a dialogue script in pairs.	S-S
13	45.39	The teacher asked students to come to him in a group of three for an individual interview focusing on the use of the 'if clause.'	T-S



### Wasin's second classroom observation

Stage	Time(mins)	Classroom activities (3 hrs 4 mins)	Classroom interaction
1	4	The teacher reviewed the 'if clause' structure by eliciting responses from students.	T-SS
2	13.08	The teacher provided time for students to prepare for their acting out dialogue.	S-S
3	35.02	Students acted out the dialogue.	S-S
4	9.48	The teacher used Kahoot to teach vocabulary as a lead in.	S-S-S
5	7.9	The teacher asked students to watch a video clip created by a native English speaker on how to plan a trip to Thailand.	S-S-S
6	16	The teacher elicited answers to the questions from the video clip.	T-SS
7	5.49	The teacher asked students to do a matching collocation exercise in the textbook.	S-S-S
8	4.14	The teacher elicited answers for the above exercise. (feedback stage).	T-SS
9	7.30	The teacher and students discussed a conversation in the textbook relating to asking for information about travel.	T-SS
10	1.38	The teacher asked students to listen to the conversation.	S-S-S
11	1.05	The teacher focused on pronouncing phrases from the conversation.	T-SS
12	3.45	The teacher used choral drilling to practice the conversation.	T-SS
13	8.35	Students listened to the rest of the conversation and completed a conversation exercise while the teacher elicited answers from them.	S-S-S T-SS
14	1.11	The teacher taught useful phrases for checking information and focused on pronouncing those phrases (from the textbook).	T-SS
15	1.21	The teacher asked students to listen to a short conversation and choose the right expressions to complete it. Then he used choral drilling to practice some phrases in the textbook.	T-SS
16	11.33	The teacher provided an explanation on a modal verb using PowerPoint and elicited responses from students on their knowledge of a modal verb.	T-SS
17	42.11	Students created a travel plan.	SS-SS

### Wasin's third classroom observation

Stage	Time (mins)	Classroom activities (2 hrs 34 mins)	Classroom interaction
1	5.19	The teacher reviewed the 'if clause' structure by eliciting responses from students.	T-SS
2	6.2	The teacher and students discussed a New Year's travel plan.	T-SS
3	3.06	The teacher and students discussed a conversation in the textbook and the meaning of the vocabulary.	T-SS
4	5.08	The teacher asked students to listen to conversation and he elicited responses.	T-SS
5	16.02	The teacher asked students to translate a questionnaire provided in the textbook into Thai and elicited answers.	T-SS
6	16.02	Students interviewed classmates by using the questionnaire provided in the textbook.	S-mingle
7	10	The teacher elicited individual responses from the activity above. (Feedback stage)	S-S-S
8	23.17	The teacher elicited answers of a vocabulary exercise in the textbook.	T-SS
9	3.42	Students matched idioms with their meaning in the textbook.	S-S-S
10	1.53	The teacher elicited answers from the above activity. (feedback stage).	T-SS
11	6.24	The teacher asked students to watch a YouTube video clip presenting a Thai host imitating a British accent.	T-SS
12	4.20	The teacher asked individual students about their future jobs.	S-S -S
13	14.13	Students worked as a team to guess the careers in the picture.	T-SS
14	2.36	Students did a vocabulary exercise in the textbook.	S-S-S
15	1.38	The teacher elicited the meaning of the vocabulary about careers from students. (feedback stage)	T-SS
16	1.01	The teacher asked students to do a choral drill from the textbook to practice word stress.	T-SS
17	43.24	Students presented their travel plan in front of the class in group.	SS-SS

### Sakarin's first classroom observation

Stage	Time(mins)	Classroom activities (58 mins)	Classroom interaction
1	8.54	The teacher introduced the course to students.	T-SS
2	1.37	The teacher asked one student to introduce himself in front of the class.	S-SS
3	2.58	The teacher raised awareness of the importance of English.	T-SS
4	5.24	The teacher used a counting game; those who lost in the game had to introduce themselves.	T-SS
5	25.25	The teacher gave explanations of many grammar items by eliciting responses from students and asking them to read the vocabulary aloud and the sentences he presented using PowerPoint.	T-SS
6	4.22	The teacher asked one student to stand in the front of the class and asked the rest of the class to describe him.	T-SS
7	3.08	The teacher asked the whole class to describe pictures on PowerPoint.	T-SS

### Sakaran's second classroom observation

Stage	Time(mins)	Classroom activities (2 hrs 30 mins)	Classroom interaction
1	16.28	The teacher used Kahoot as a lead in.	S-S-S
2	22.22	The teacher gave explanation of Yes- No question and Wh-questions and elicited responses.	T-SS
3	8.12	Students did the grammar exercise in the textbook for Wh-question.	S-S-S
4	3	The teacher asked some students to present their answers in front of the class	S-S-S
5	2.27	Students completed the Yes- No question exercise in the textbook.	S-S-S
6	15.28	The teacher elicited answers in the above exercises from individual students and the whole class. (feedback stage)	T-S/T-SS
7	26.93	Students practiced the Yes-No question with the verb 'to be' and the verb 'to do' by transforming an affirmative sentence into a question in the textbook.	S-S-S
8	6.13	The teacher elicited the answers of the above practice from the whole class and provided corrective feedback on grammar and pronunciation.	T-SS
9	2.04	The teacher asked one student to summarise the grammar structures she had learned (in front of the class).	S-SS
10	17.39	Students did the matching exercise from the textbook matching 'What' and 'How' with the rest of the sentence.	S-S-S
11	3.02	The teacher elicited the answers of the above exercise from the whole class.	T-SS
12	1.22	The teacher taught collocations for sports activities and elicited examples from students.	T-SS
13	1.90	The teacher asked one student to summarise grammar structures that he had taught in front of the class.	S-SS

### Sakarin's third classroom observation

Stage	Time(mins)	Classroom activities (2 hrs 21 mins)	Classroom interaction
1	9.02	The teacher asked students to sit in a group arranged by using a blue card technique. The teacher asked some students to write down the Yes-No question and some students to write down the Wh-question on a post-it note and attach it on the board.	S-S-S
2	3.48	The teacher elicited students' responses to determine whether the questions on the board were correct. (feedback stage)	T-SS
3	2.26	The teacher asked individual students the Yes- No questions.	T-S
4	6.18	The teacher reviewed the Yes- No question structure.	T-SS
5	7.4	The teacher taught a Wh-question structure and elicited answers from students.	T-SS
6	5.31	Each group wrote the Wh-question on a post it note.	SS-SS
7	3.19	Each group answered the Wh-question asked by other groups.	SS-SS
8	2	The teacher taught the alternative question structure in the textbook and elicited responses from students.	T-SS
9	3.38	The teacher asked each group to create an alternative question.	SS-SS
10	2.28	The teacher taught embedded question structure in the textbook.	T-SS
11	3.21	The teacher asked each group to form an embedded question.	SS-SS
12	13.39	The teacher taught the tag-question structure in the textbook and elicited responses from students.	T-SS
13	4.36	The teacher asked students to do a tag question exercise in the textbook.	S-S-S
14	1.35	The teacher elicited the answers of the above exercise from the whole class. (feedback stage)	T-SS
15	7.16	The teacher assigned students to ask their friend a question from the textbook.	S-S
16	8.14	The teacher elicited answers of the above exercise from individual students. (feedback stage)	T-S
17	46.02	Students created a conversation script on the topic they had drawn lots to determine by using all kinds of questions they had been taught.	SS-SS
18	10.10	Two representatives of each group presented their dialogue in front of the class.	S-SS
19	6.29	The teacher asked students what types of questions each group used.	T-SS

Teerawut's first classroom observation

Stage	Time(mins)	Classroom activities (1 hr 45 mins)	Classroom interaction
1	8.22	The teacher introduced socialising functions, including requesting, offering and asking permission and elicited responses from students.	T-SS
2	10.18	Students matched each question with its function on a worksheet and asked them to check their answer with a peer.	S-S-S S-S
3	45.48	The teacher elicited the answers for the exercise above from the whole class and asked them to repeat the questions after him. He explained the answer of each item in detail by translating the sentences from English to Thai. (feedback stage)	T-SS
4	34.08	The teacher gave instruction about requesting and asking for permission by providing phrases and sentences that were used in these functions from the textbook and asked students to repeat those phrases and sentences after him.	T-SS
5	4	The teacher assigned an exercise matching sentences with functions in the textbook as homework.	S-S-S

Teerawut's second classroom observation

Stage	Time(mins)	Classroom activities (2 hrs)	Classroom interaction
1	11.59	The teacher elicited responses from students on their knowledge of requesting, offering, and asking for permission.	T-SS
2	16.35	Students matched questions about the above functions with responses on a worksheet and checked the answer with their peers.	S-S-S/S-S
3	32.38	The teacher elicited answers to the practice above and provided additional explanation. He asked students to repeat the sentences after him. (feedback stage)	T-SS
4	3.37	The teacher asked students to read aloud the questions in Column B while he read the answer in Column A on the worksheet.	T-SS
5	6.42	The teacher asked students to take turns practicing reading the questions in Column A and the responses in Column B with their partners.	S-S
6	38.15	The teacher asked students to divide into two teams to play a game. Each team had to select a number. Each number came with either a question or a response from the exercise above. For example, if students selected the number presenting the question, they had to find another number with a correct response.	S-S
7	01.47	The teacher asked students to give him feedback about the above activity.	T-SS

Teerawut's 3<sup>rd</sup> classroom observation

Stage	Time(mins)	Classroom activities (1 hr, 48mins)	Classroom interaction
1	8.35	The teacher asked students to discuss the picture displayed on a screen by eliciting prompts to stimulate their answers.	T-SS
2	25.07	The teacher showed YouTube video clips illustrating how to ask and give directions. He then asked students to repeat phrases and sentences after him.	T-SS
3	11.37	The teacher elicited responses about giving directions from the map in the video clip and asked students to listen to the model from the clip.	T-SS
4	18.30	The teacher asked students to do an information gap activity on the worksheet by taking turns asking and giving directions from the map provided.	S-S
5	16.10	The teacher asked each pair to ask and give directions in front of the class where he provided corrective feedback.	S-S



## Araya's first classroom observation

Stage	Time(mins)	Classroom activities (2 hrs 13 mins)	Classroom interaction
1	2.39	The teacher introduced the topic, 'making a request', and gave a definition of it.	T-SS
2	4.60	The teacher asked students to do an exercise matching questions and responses in the textbook.	S- S- S
3	5.24	The teacher elicited answers from the above exercise from individual students (feedback stage).	T-S
4	5.21	The teacher asked students to do another exercise matching questions and responses in the textbook.	S-S-S
5	6.25	The teacher elicited responses from individual students in the above exercise. (Feedback stage)	T-S
6	5	The teacher opened a YouTube video clip created by the BBC about how to make a polite request in the workplace.	T-SS
7	8.57	The teacher explained the structures of requesting sentences in the textbook and elicited responses from students.	T-SS
8	2.03	The teacher elicited responses from students on their understanding of conversation in the video clip.	T-SS
9	12.20	The teacher opened the video clip from YouTube and translated all the sentences from English to Thai.	T-SS
10	13.43	The teacher asked the whole class to repeat sentences after the model in the video clips before asking students to do it individually.	T-SS/ T-S
11	40.27	The teacher asked students to make sentences following the provided situations in the textbook and monitored them closely.	S-S-S
12	21.30	The teacher asked individual students to draw lots for orally making a request in front of the class.	T-S
13	2.52	The teacher asked students to form groups of four to write a dialogue script for making a request as homework and making a video clip presenting their conversation.	SS-SS

### Araya's second classroom observation

Stage	Time(mins)	Classroom activities (2 hrs, 33 mins)	Classroom interaction
1	1.14	The teacher reviewed expressions for requesting and their structures.	T-SS
2	8.25	The teacher introduced the topic of 'offering' based on the content in the textbook using PowerPoint and elicited responses from students.	T-SS
3	5.15	The teacher opened the YouTube video clip made by the BBC about offering help in the workplace.	T-SS
4	2.5	The teacher elicited students' understanding of the conversation in the video clip.	T-SS
5	10	The teacher opened the clip again and translated all the sentences in the clips from English to Thai and elicited responses from students.	T-SS
6	1.15	The teacher asked the whole class to repeat the sentences in the video clip.	T-SS
7	22.35	The teacher asked students to make an offer following the situations provided in the textbook.	S-S-S
8	24.11	The teacher asked students to draw lots to determine who would make an offer in front of the class.	T-S
9	8.42	The teacher reviewed the structures for offering and elicited responses from students.	T-SS
10	15.11	The teacher asked students to complete short conversations in the textbook.	S-S-S
11	5.49	The teacher elicited responses of the above activities from individual students (feedback stage). She asked them to do the rest of the exercise as homework.	T-S
12	3.02	The teacher gave an explanation of permission based on the content in the textbook.	T-SS
13	4.3	The teacher asked students to repeat permission sentences after the model in the YouTube video clip.	T-SS
14	34.23	The teacher checked students' dialogue scripts for requesting, which she had assigned students in the previous lesson.	T-SS

### Araya's third classroom observation

Stage	Time(mins)	Classroom activities (3hrs)	Classroom interaction
1	3.32	The teacher reviewed structures for asking for permission using PowerPoint.	T-SS
2	24.23	The teacher elicited answers from individual students about exercises in the textbook that she had assigned in the previous lesson (feedback stage).	T-S
3	47.43	The teacher asked students to do the exercise from the textbook, matching questions with responses about function.	S-S-S
4	6.54	The teacher elicited the answers from the exercise above from individual students. (feedback stage)	T-S
5	5.05	The teacher explained expressions used for apologising based on the content in the textbook using PowerPoint.	T-SS
6	1.26	The teacher opened a YouTube video clip created by a native English speaker about apologising.	T-SS
7	15.54	The teacher asked students to repeat a sentence modelling pronunciation in the video clip.	T-SS
8	1.47	The teacher asked students to listen to a conversation about apologising (created by an NES) and elicited their understanding of the conversation.	T-SS
9	2.08	The teacher translated the above conversation and elicited responses from students.	T-SS
10	2.3	The teacher asked students to listen to another conversation about apologising in a YouTube video clip (created by an NES) and elicited their understanding of the conversation.	T-SS
11	3.05	The teacher translated the above conversation and elicited responses from students.	T-SS
12	46.07	The teacher asked students to work in pairs or groups of three to write a dialogue script about apologising.	S-S/SS-SS
13	34.20	The teacher asked students to act out the dialogue in front of the class.	S-S/SS-SS
14	23.09	The teacher checked students' conversation scripts about requesting before asking them to make a video clip presenting their conversation.	T-SS

## Janista's first classroom observation

Stage	Time(mins)	Classroom activities (2hrs 16 mins)	Classroom interaction
1	1.35	The teacher asked students to read aloud sentences about socialising in an exercise from the textbook.	T-SS
2	8.04	Students matched the questions with the responses in the textbook.	S-S-S
3	1.15	The teacher elicited the answers in the above exercise from the whole class. (feedback stage)	T-SS
4	9.14	The teacher asked students to do another matching exercise in the textbook about socialising while she walked around the class monitoring students closely.	S-S-S
5	2.02	The teacher elicited answers for the above exercise from the whole class. (feedback stage)	T-SS
6	8.55	The teacher taught students how make a request following the content in the textbook.	T-SS
7	2.37	The teacher chose some pairs of students to read aloud a short conversation from the textbook.	S-S
8	31.04	The teacher asked students to compose a request sentence according to situations provided from the exercise in the textbook while she monitored them closely.	S-S-S
9	7.06	The teacher elicited answers of the above exercise from individual students (feedback stage).	T-S
10	5.30	The teacher taught students how to make an offering following the content in the textbook.	T-SS
11	1.29	The teacher asked some pairs of students to read aloud a conversation in the textbook.	S-S
12	44.51	The teacher asked students to compose an offering sentence from situations provided in the textbook while she monitored them closely. She also assigned those who finished the first activity to continue another task completing a conversation with sentences provided in the textbook.	S-S-S

## Janista's second classroom observation

Stage	Time(mins)	Classroom activities (2hrs 11 mins)	Classroom interaction
1	3.35	The teacher reviewed the previous lesson about requesting and offering.	T-SS
2	29.16	The teacher elicited answers from individual students for the exercises that she had assigned the week before; she then provided corrective feedback. (Feedback stage)	T-S
3	1.36	The teacher reviewed the expressions and structures about offering from the textbook.	T-SS
4	46.03	The teacher taught student how to ask permission following the content in the textbook.	T-SS
5	17.47	The teacher asked students to complete an exercise from the textbook, classifying each question into its function and matching it with the correct response while she monitored them closely.	S-S-S
6	5.16	The teacher elicited the answers for the above exercise from the whole class (feedback stage).	T-SS
7	40.15	The teacher asked students to work in pairs and write a script of a short conversation using each function: requesting; offering and asking for permission. They would act out the script in the next lesson. She also monitored them closely while they worked.	S-S

Janista's third classroom observation

Stage	Time(mins)	Classroom activities (3hrs)	Classroom interaction
1	0.43	The teacher asked students to repeat requesting sentences in the textbook after which she focused on intonation.	T-SS
2	11.09	The teacher asked if any students could not pronounce any words in their own dialogue script so she could help them pronounce such words correctly.	T-S
3	34.18	Students acted out the script in front of the teacher, and she provided them corrective feedback.	S-S
4	16.04	Students matched a short conversation with pictures in the textbook as a warm-up activity for apologising and complaining. The teacher monitored students while they were working.	S-S-S
5	4.35	The teacher elicited the answers from the above exercise (feedback stage).	T-SS
6	10.19	The teacher asked students to read about apologising in the textbook and translated it from English to Thai.	S-S-S
7	16.03	The teacher translated all apologising phrases in the textbook from English to Thai and explained more expressions for apologising in the textbook.	T-SS
8	27.21	The teacher asked students to compose one sentence for apologising while she monitored them.	S-S-S
9	02.20	The teacher asked some individual students to present their answers.	T-S

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