

EFL Teachers' Cognition of English as a Global Language: Ideologies, Identities, and Practices



Anuchaya Montakantiwong

Linacre College

University of Oxford

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Abstract

The global presence of English as a lingua franca has raised substantial concerns regarding an urgent need for a shift in English language pedagogy. Teachers working within the immense English Language Teaching (ELT) enterprise are now expected to participate in an unprecedented endeavour to better equip learners with both the necessary language skills and the awareness of the ubiquity of English varieties currently used among speakers, native or non-native alike. In light of this changing sociolinguistic scenario, the emerging field of Global Englishes proposes a framework for action, calling for a re-appraisal of the beliefs about English that permeate all aspects of pedagogical practices (Galloway & Rose, 2015; Rose & Galloway, 2019). Such need for a paradigm shift has continued to be voiced in research, but rarely are the very voices of the teachers heard. Little has been discussed about their sense-making of the pedagogical implications of the ideological rhetoric underlying English teaching at the operational level.

Following the educational and professional journeys of seven in-service lecturers of the English language in two universities in Thailand, the study aims to understand how the global spread of English has impacted the teachers' conceptualisations of English and how such perceptions surface in their local classrooms. Specifically, it seeks to answer three questions: (1) What are the teachers' ideological views of English and its changing usage?; (2) In what way is the teachers' cognition of English related to their sense of professional identities as an L2 English teacher?; and (3) How do the teachers interpret globally-oriented initiatives in light of their teaching contexts?

It explores these questions through an in-depth examination of on-the-ground ethnographically-informed multiple case studies data obtained over the course of fieldwork from multiple sources: semi-structured interviews, focus group discussions, classroom and site observations, and document analysis.

Findings reveal that while the teachers display awareness of English as a global language, their views of the English language remain firmly rooted in standard language ideology, demonstrating clear propensities for the native speaker standards, especially British and American English. These perceptions are filtered through layers of ideological contradictions, which result in the teachers' varying sense of professional legitimacy and the approaches with which they use to prepare the students for real-life language use. Learning contexts factor into teachers' pedagogical decisions, where students' learning is given priority. The thesis raises questions about the potential of globally-informed English language teacher education curricula as a shared agenda and the roles teachers play in it.

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List of Abbreviations

ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
EIL	English as an International Language
ELF	English as a Lingua Franca
ELT	English Language Teaching
ENL	English as a Native Language
ESL	English as a Second Language
GE	Global Englishes
L1	First language
L2	Second language
LTC	Language Teacher Cognition
LTI	Language Teacher Identity
NES	Native English speakers
NEST	Native English-speaking teachers
NNES	Non-native English speaker
NNEST	Non-native English-speaking teacher
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
TESOL	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
WE	World Englishes

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1

Introduction

Globalisation has altered the face of social, cultural, and linguistic diversity in communities around the world, and today's English language classrooms are by no means an exception. The present study builds on the growing body of literature in the emerging field of Global Englishes (Galloway & Rose, 2015; Rose & Galloway, 2019) that seeks to explore the sociolinguistic implications of how English is used by speakers around the world, including pedagogical implications for how the English is taught and learned. In the pursuit of better equipping the learners of English with necessary skills in global communication, it is the teachers who are in the best position to forge that sort of reality. However, little is known about English as a Foreign language (EFL) teachers' viewpoints on English, nor how it is positioned in classrooms (Matsuda, 2017).

Understanding language teacher cognition (LTC), that is, teachers' beliefs and knowledge in relation to their teaching practices (Borg, 2015), has increasingly become a key component in determining how English language teaching is performed (Varghese, Morgan, Johnston, & Johnson, 2005). Any positive change a

teacher hopes to initiate in the classroom is unlikely to happen unless that teacher understands how their cognition affects who they are and why they do what they do as a language teaching professional. In the existing literature, however, the cognition of in-service teachers of English language, especially those working in the Thai higher educational contexts remain relatively unexamined. Building on research in the Global Englishes paradigm together with previous literature in language teacher cognition and identity, my research seeks to better understand Thai teachers' ideological viewpoints toward English, the subject they teach, and the extent to which these views are mirrored in their professional experience.

The significance of the present thesis lies in its potential to provide insights into the whole spectrum of EFL teachers' professional experience in the Southeast Asian context, where research on the topic is relatively underdeveloped (Snodin & Young, 2015). In its endeavour to explore current English language teaching (ELT) practices in Thailand so that the global sociolinguistic realities of how English is used as a global lingua franca can be better addressed, my research finds its purpose in the English language teaching industry in general, and English language teacher education in particular. To improve the experience of the students and teachers, we cannot afford to take the teachers out of the equation as what the teachers believe must ultimately be considered in terms of its effects on their students' learning as well as their own. Building on the assumption that teachers are central to achieving the needed change, the study hopes to

address an oft-cited policy-practice divide by taking into account attitudes of teachers, which are fundamental to the formulation of any policy and its successful implementation (Baker, 1992). It is my hope that the attained knowledge will have gone some way towards empowering Thai teachers of English. Equipped with a comprehensive understanding of their beliefs about the language and the impact on their practices, the teachers can capitalise on their agency to facilitate the positive change they hope to initiate in an English language classroom. The local teachers' experiences can also be fed back to a larger network of scholarship, leading to our improved understanding of how to best put curricular innovations into practice in a variety of contexts to optimise both our students' learning experience and our professional growth.

1.1 Research questions

To understand in-service Thai EFL teachers' cognition of English through their language learning and teaching experiences, the following overarching research questions are addressed:

- RQ1 What are the teachers' ideological views on English and the extent to which these views are realised in their practices?

- RQ2 How do the teachers develop and enact their L2 teacher identities from a Global Englishes perspective?

- RQ3 How do the teachers interpret globally-oriented initiatives in light

of their teaching contexts?

The questions will be answered using qualitative data from in-service university teachers teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) undergraduate courses in higher education institutions in Thailand. Sources of data include focus groups, semi-structured individual interviews, classroom observations, and related documents.

1.2 Chapter overview

The thesis is divided into 8 chapters. **Chapter 1** outlines the background and purpose of the study, setting out the overall argument and contribution to the scholarship in language learning and teaching. Provided also is a brief description of the contents in each chapter. To contextualise the study, **Chapter 2** (Literature review) reviewed relevant literature and existing empirical research in three major areas: Global Englishes, Language Teacher Cognition (LTC), and Language Teacher Identity (LTI). First, it briefly introduces interrelated theoretical paradigms used to examine the rise of English as a global language, namely World Englishes (WE), English as a Lingua Franca (ELF), English as an International Language (EIL), and Global Englishes (GE), highlighting key concepts and pedagogically relevant models for curricular innovation in English language education. Next, the chapter explores research studies in the domain of language teacher cognition (LTC), which serves as the theoretical framework of the study. Definitions of language teacher

cognition are given, followed by discussions of how English language and its pedagogical approaches are currently understood by the teachers. Studies on L2 English teachers' cognition of English as a global language in teacher education programmes and the real-life implementation challenges are also reviewed. Finally, research into language teacher identity (LTI) with a particular focus on L2 English teachers are reviewed. It provides an overview of multiple ways in which self/identity has been conceptualised and investigated, focusing on aspects that are closely linked to the L2 English teacher identities in the changing sociolinguistic context of English learning and teaching.

Chapter 3 (Research Methodology) provides details about the methodology employed in addressing the study's research questions. Rationales behind the opted methodological approach are put forward, followed by a comprehensive account of the research design, research context, participants, research instruments, along with procedures adopted for the collection and analysis of data, and strategies used to address reliability and validity issues. It concludes with ethical considerations and a reflection on the role of the researcher.

Chapter 4-6 present findings based on the analysis of data. **Chapter 4** addresses RQ1 where I report on Thai EFL university teachers' perceptions of English and the extent to which these perceptions are realised (or not) in the context of their local language classrooms. Using data from interviews, focus groups, classroom observations, and document analysis, the chapter presents eight major themes that capture the essence of what the English language means to these

teachers in light of the newly emergent shift in English language teaching industry. The study's RQ2 is examined in **Chapter 5** where findings on the L2 teacher identity formation are presented. It reports on the teachers' personal biography (i.e., language learning histories, teacher education, and in-service teaching experiences), exploring how the teachers' sense of professional agency is formed and shaped through strategic uses of resources within the interplay between different facets of their EFL teacher identity. In response to RQ3, **Chapter 6** looks at the teachers' thoughts on implementing globally-oriented language teaching in their local classrooms. It also reports on the teachers' perceived implementational challenges (students, teachers, institutions), and how they possibly shape the teachers' responses to adopting the globally-informed teaching initiatives in light of their professional contexts.

Chapter 7 (Discussion) provides a bird's eye view of the study's overall findings where the key themes identified in previous chapters are discussed in light of the existing literature reviewed in Chapter 2. The theme of tension is used as an organising element to explore the interplay between the teachers' cognition of English, their EFL teacher identity development, and their pedagogical practices in the context of higher education in Thailand. Anchored in the overarching issue of theory-practice divide, the discussion begins with an examination of possible driving forces behind the tensions and the extent to which these have culminated in the manifestation of a conceptual mismatch with regards to how ideal English

language teachers are defined. In the final section, pedagogical implications for TESOL teacher education are provided.

In **Chapter 8** (Conclusion), the final chapter, the findings and discussion are summarised in response to all the research questions addressed in the study. The study's main contributions are noted, and its limitations attended to. It concludes by offering future directions for research and practice.

2

Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

To situate the current study in relation to the existing scholarship surrounding the growth of English as the world's foremost lingua franca and its implication for language teaching, this chapter reviews key theoretical concepts and empirical findings on three areas of literature relevant to the thesis' main inquiry. I first explored keys theoretical concepts underpinning research into the diverse use of English under an inclusive paradigm of Global Englishes, focusing on its implications on the multifaceted dimensions of TESOL curricula and English language teaching practices.

Then I turned to the conceptual framework of language teacher cognition in which the present study is grounded. The term 'Language Teacher Cognition'(LTC) is defined, followed by discussion of how English language and its pedagogical approaches are currently understood by the teachers. Next, I provided a brief review of studies on stakeholders' attitudes toward Global Englishes innovations in L2 teacher education and English-language classrooms. Discussed next is

research on the impact of L2 teacher education on teachers' cognition of a Global Englishes approach to language teaching (and its compatibility) in various educational settings, starting from the broader field before moving on to those conducted in the Thai contexts.

In the final section, I widened the investigation on L2 English teachers' cognition of English by drawing on language teacher identity (LTI) research. I outlined multiple ways in which self/identity has been conceptualised and investigated, focusing on aspects that are closely linked to the L2 English teacher identities in the changing sociolinguistic context of English learning and teaching. The chapter ended with an introduction of the possible selves theory as another theoretical lens through which a fuller account of the language teachers' experiences and cognition of English can be achieved.

2.2 Global Englishes

Central to this study is the notion of Global Englishes with its entailed assumption that the language is no longer a monolithic construct but one that is subject to adaptations and changes. I start out by taking a closer look at the very definition of the term itself: what is Global Englishes? This is followed by an overview of pedagogical models that have grown out of various research paradigms under Global Englishes domain. The section ends by setting out key research issues to be addressed in the current study.

2.2.1 Defining Global Englishes

As with other advances and drawbacks in numerous domains, globalisation has given rise to the omnipresence of English in every conceivable corner of the world, transcending ethnic-national associations and transforming from a mother tongue of a few countries into the world's global lingua franca (Brutt-Griffler, 2002; Crystal, 2003; Mauranen, 2012; McArthur, 2003; Melchers & Shaw, 2003;). Having come to be spoken or learned by more than one billion people in more places than it was a century ago, English has been subject to constant innovation and now constituted a repertoire of culturally and ideologically multiple styles. This is reflected in typological attempts undertaken by Kachru (1992), who identified three concentric circles as the global profile of the English language: **the norm-providing Inner Circle** (e.g., USA, UK, Canada, Australia, New Zealand) where English is spoken as a first or native language (ENL); **the norm-developing Outer Circle** (e.g., Bangladesh, Ghana, India, Kenya, Malaysia, Nigeria, Pakistan, Philippines, Singapore, Sri Lanka, Tanzania, Zambia) which refers to postcolonial countries where English is spoken as a second language (ESL) or an additional language; and **the norm-dependent Expanding Circle** (e.g., China, Egypt, Indonesia, Israel, Japan, Korea, Nepal, Saudi Arabia, Taiwan, USSR, Zimbabwe) where English is used as a foreign language (EFL).

With English now used fluidly within and across geographic contexts due to increased global mobility, the field has not only outgrown this taxonomy but also

called into question what Holliday (2005) calls “native speakerism,” which refers to an established belief that the kind of English used by native speaker teachers represents the ideal version of the language. Based on this set of beliefs, students’ first language (L1), for instance, has been looked upon as a source of error transfers and interference by ELT traditional approaches, which are often modelled after the native speaker norms. Research has also shown that many non-native English speaker teachers (NNEST) are constantly judged and disempowered by students and parents as a result of stereotypes about authentic English teachers (e.g., Amin, 1997; Brutt-Griffler & Samimy, 1999). In countries such as those in the Outer or Expanding Circles, the idea of ‘standard’ English persists as a consequence of stereotypical views towards the English language as being legitimately owned by native English-speaking countries, which led to the resulting educational policies that set American and/or British as the only normative standards. Matsuda (2003), for instance, found that Japanese students consider the owners of English to be American and British people. Galloway’s (2011, 2013) study also resonated this view, pointing out that Japanese learners in her study saw native English speakers as the ‘owners’ of English and thus speakers of a legitimate variety. When it came to defining what standard was, however, they were unable to explain. This “mystique of native speaker,” (p. xiii) as mentioned by Ferguson (1992) reinforces the idea that native English speakers (NES) have more ownership of English than non-native English speakers (NNES).

Given the fact that now the number of non-native English speakers has surpassed that of native English speakers, native English-based models have now bore little relevance for the complex reality of today's English usage in international communications (Saraceni, 2009). Kirkpatrick (2007) also asserted that homogeneous views towards the language have become irrelevant in multilingual societies. As Kachru (1985) puts it: "the native speakers of this language seem to have lost the exclusive prerogative to control its standardization; in fact, if current statistics are any indication, they have become a minority" (p. 30). The inner circle countries are no longer a single headquarter in charge of prescribing norms of usage. In contrast, the scenario that reflects today's reality is that countries all around the world have now become home and hub of the English language, which "belongs to everyone who speaks it, but it is nobody's mother tongue" (Rajagopalan, 2004, p. 111).

Such shift in status of English has given rise to a plethora of different terms and research paradigms that attempt to conceptualise this global phenomenon, including but not limited to **World Englishes** (Kachru, 1976); **English as a lingua franca** or **ELF** (e.g., Jenkins, 1998, 2000; Mauranen, 2003; Seidlhofer, 2001); **English as an International Language** or **EIL** (e.g., Alsagoff, McKay, Hu, & Renandya, 2012; Matsuda, 2012, 2017; McKay, 2002; Sharifian, 2009); and **Global Englishes** (e.g., Pennycook, 2003, 2007; Canagarajah, 2013; Galloway & Rose, 2015).

While the pluricentricity of English use is the shared topic of inquiry, these interrelated fields are somewhat different in the focus of their scholarship. Largely informed by the theoretical work of Braj J. Kachru and Larry Smith (see Kachru, 1976), World Englishes research primarily aims to identify and document variations in linguistic features characteristic of each national variety of English (Rose & Galloway, 2019). A large amount of work carried out under the ELF banner, on the other hand, advocates a broader stance, viewing English as a global communicative tool unbounded by static geographical borders (Galloway & Rose, 2015). Depending on situational requirements, ELF users systematically navigate the negotiations, continuously taking conscious control of their own linguistic repertoires to accommodate the interlocutors who may come from different linguistic backgrounds while at the same time achieving their communicative purposes (Jenkins, 2000). This hybrid quality of English also goes in line with Canagarajah's (2014) notion of "translingual orientation," which conceives language in more dynamic terms and that "these language resources are borrowed, mixed, and reconstructed as people use them for their needs in everyday life" (p. 770).

Unlike World Englishes and ELF research, the scholarship of English as an international language (EIL) embodies a pragmatic perspective, largely focused on the implications of the spread of English for society and language education rather than a linguistic study of language use itself. Similarly, Global Englishes was a term

first adopted by critical linguists to unite a shared research interest that challenged traditional ideologies surrounding language and identity and explored the fluidity of language use worldwide. While built on previous understandings of English language variation and change, Global Englishes research has moved beyond codified, nation-based language constructs and focused instead on challenging the very boundaries between linguistic varieties and nation-states. In this vein, the underlying ideologies of Global Englishes differ in its focus from World Englishes and ELF and align more closely with those of EIL in its universal scope. Despite slightly different areas of focus, these paradigms are, as Galloway (2017) put it, “united in the desire to showcase the diversity of English and to instigate a paradigm shift in ELT” (p. 2).

While researchers in all of the aforementioned paradigms have positioned their work under different umbrella terms, this thesis adopts Rose and Galloway’s (2019) definition of Global Englishes, which has been defined as “an inclusive paradigm looking at the linguistic, sociolinguistic and sociocultural diversity and fluidity of English use and English users in a globalised world” (p. 4). As an umbrella term to unite shared ideologies of these fields, Global Englishes aims to consolidate the work of World Englishes, ELF, and EIL, while drawing on similar movements in Second Language Acquisition (SLA), such as translanguaging and the multilingual turn (Rose & Galloway, 2019).

Highlighted by all of these interrelated scholarship within the Global Englishes domain is an urgent need to renovate current TESOL curricula to better

address the current sociolinguistic realities of how English is used. In response, TESOL researchers and researcher-practitioners have proposed pedagogical models to help operationalise ideas into concrete approaches for curriculum innovation. In the next section, the proposed models for change in ELT that have emerged from these research paradigms within the Global Englishes domain will be outlined.

2.2.2 Proposed models for pedagogical change in ELT

To address the mismatch between what is taught in classrooms and the changing needs of English-language learners who are now learning the language to use as a global lingua franca (Kumaravadivelu, 2012b), calls for pedagogical change have been put forward across all the research paradigms of WE, EIL, ELF and Global Englishes. Emerging from these calls for change are four pedagogical frameworks that have grown out of the four interrelated areas of Global Englishes, including *World Englishes-informed ELT* (Brown, 1993); *Teaching English as an International Language framework* (Matsuda, 2019; Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011); *ELF-aware pedagogy* and the *post-normative approach* from the ELF paradigm (Jenkins, 2006, 2007; Seidlhofer, 2011); and *Global Englishes Language Teaching* (Galloway, 2011; Rose & Galloway, 2019).

World Englishes-informed ELT

Based on Kachru's (1992) critique on fallacies that underpin the field of ELT, *World Englishes-informed English language teaching* urged teachers to raise learners' awareness with regard to the legitimacy of all English varieties, each with its own grammatical and phonological norms. The framework highlights the need for learners to challenge the established target interlocutors, cultures, goals, and norms in ELT (Brown, 1993).

Teaching English as an International Language framework

In response to lack of practical classroom applications of ideas surrounding the discussions of World Englishes, Matsuda and Friedrich (2011) drew on theoretical underpinnings of *WE-informed ELT* to create the *EIL Curriculum Blueprint* (Matsuda 2019). The model, which was recently developed into *Teaching English as an International Language framework*, has yielded five practical advice for teachers. These include 1) selecting instructional models based on "students' goals and needs, teachers' expertise, and availability of materials and resources" (Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011, p. 334); 2) ensuring exposure to other Englishes in the curriculum; 3) facilitating learners' development of strategic competence; 4) providing appropriate cultural materials; and 5) raising learners' awareness of the politics of English.

ELF aware pedagogy and the post-normative approach

Established on the groundwork of ELF-informed, ELF-aware or ELF-oriented pedagogy (Jenkins, 2006, 2007; Seidlhofer, 2011), Dewey (2012)

proposed what he termed as post-normative approach to raise teachers' awareness of ELF through a set of questions that could help the teachers introduce contextually-appropriate pedagogical innovations within their own unique setting. He argued that for ELF ideas to take effect in language classrooms teachers must be aware that the subject they teach can be viewed from an alternative perspective in which English serves as a global lingua franca. In essence, the post-normative approach encourages teachers to:

- Identify and highlight the sociocultural context in which their learners would use English(es);
- Increase learners to a diverse range of English varieties and the different ways it is used in a global setting;
- Engage students in critical discussions on the impact of globalisation on English;
- Reduce focus on standard language forms, and dedicate more time on intelligible forms;
- Equip learners with communicative strategies;

Most of the ELF scholarship have predominantly advocated for the central role of language teacher education in raising teachers' awareness of ELF, as exemplified by the work of Bayyurt and Sifakis (2015a, 2015b).

Global Englishes Language Teaching (GELT)

Originally developed by Galloway (2011) and further refined in Galloway and Rose's (2015) monograph, *Global Englishes Language Teaching (GELT)* framework was last updated in Rose and Galloway's (2019) book where Global Englishes was conceptualised from a curriculum perspective. Underpinned by a wide range of scholarship and a substantial volume of classroom-based research, the framework encourages a paradigm shift from traditionally-informed practices toward more globally-inspired one by drawing upon six GELT proposals (Galloway & Rose, 2015, p. 203), which includes:

- Increasing World Englishes and ELF exposure in language curricula;
- Emphasising respect for multilingualism in ELT;
- Raising awareness of Global Englishes in ELT;
- Raising awareness of ELF strategies in language curricula;
- Emphasising respect for diverse culture and identity in ELT;
- Changing English teacher-hiring practices in the ELT industry (p. 203).

Taking into account the dynamic nature and international presence of English in today's interactions, the proposed changes were organised into 13 categories, including: target interlocutor; ownership; target culture; linguistic norms; teachers; role-models; sources of materials; positioning of other languages and cultures; needs; assessment criterion; goals of learning; ideology; and theoretical orientation (see figure 2.1). According to Galloway & Rose (2015), Global Englishes put emphasis on providing students with more exposure to the

diversity of English and ELF interactions, placing more value on learners' multilingualism, and gearing students towards a new mindset that embraces mutual intelligibility as the ultimate goal in communication instead of native-like competence as promoted in the NES norms. It is important to note that movement from 'traditional ELT' to GELT for each category may be best visualised as moving along a continuum. Teachers are encouraged to work on developing some curricular aspects at a given time until they managed to make their practices more globally informed.

While going by different names, these models are, as Matsuda (2019) asserted, "more similar to each other than different in their assumptions, visions and suggested practice" (p. 146). Regardless of the term, these pedagogical models for change all seek to disrupt the status quo in TESOL and renovate the English language teaching to better reflect today's TESOL.

Table 1.2 *The 2018 Global Englishes Language Teaching framework*

	Traditional ELT	GELT
Target interlocutors	Native English speakers	All English users
Ownership	Inner Circle	Global
Target culture	Static NE cultures	Fluid cultures
Norms	Standard English	Diverse, flexible and multiple forms
Teachers	Non-NE-speaking teachers (same L1) and NE-speaking teachers	Qualified, competent teachers (same and different L1s)
Role model	NE speakers	Expert users
Source of materials	NE and NE speakers	Salient English-speaking communities and contexts
Other languages and cultures	Seen as a hindrance and source of interference	Seen as a resource as with other languages in their linguistic repertoire
Needs	Inner Circle defined	Globally defined
Assessment criterion	Accuracy according to prescriptive standards	Communicative competence
Goals of learning	Native-like proficiency	Multicompetent user
Ideology	Underpinned by an exclusive and ethnocentric view of English	Underpinned by an inclusive Global Englishes perspective
Orientation	Monolingual	Multilingual/translingual

Figure 2.1: GELT framework (Rose & Galloway, 2019, p. 21)

2.2.3 Challenges

The changing global realities bear several important implications with regards to English language teaching and learning. Calls have been made in terms of how the ELT profession should move away from the native-speaker ideology to a more global perspective that celebrates and supports diversity (Brutt-Griffler & Samimy, 1999; Canagarajah, 1999b; Davies, 2003; Holliday, 2005; Phillipson, 1992). It is important that learners become well aware of this changing trend and sufficiently prepared for a new form of interactions, most of which will feature a

whole gamut of fellow language users. They also need to understand that the so-called native English speakers “do not provide a linguistic reference point” (Galloway & Rose, 2015, p. 47), and that aiming for an expert user of ELF is a more achievable language learning goal. In order to respond to call for a paradigm shift, first consideration must be given to how English language teachers believe and understand regarding the ideology and its assumptions.

Despite a growing body of research aiming to raise students' awareness of Global Englishes (Canagarajah, 1999a, 1999b; Jenkins, 2006; Murata & Jenkins, 2009; Seidlhofer, 2011; Galloway, 2013; Galloway & Rose, 2014, 2015, 2018; Rose & Galloway, 2017), the attempt to expose learners to the various kinds of English has yet to keep pace. While several appeals for an “epistemic break” (Kumaravadivelu, 2012b, p. 14) have been put forward, implementing such change may not be easy for ELT practitioners, particularly in Asian Expanding Circle countries like Thailand. According to Galloway and Rose (2015), “GELT may be a very foreign concept to teachers in some parts of the world, and it is unsurprising that many have ambivalent attitudes towards the kind of change proposed” (p. 215), arguing that the most challenging to tackle is perhaps the teachers' attachment to the standard English.

Resonating Jenkin (2012) who pointed out that it is no one's job “to tell teachers what to do” (p. 492), this study is based on the assumption that it is only through the teacher's agency that any potential change in the classroom can

happen (Benson, 2010). Rea-Dickins and Germaine (1998) noted that implementing change can be facilitated when language teachers are aware of their attitudes and willing to clarify as well as refine them. When teachers, for example, are introduced to new materials and teaching approaches, it is up to them whether any of these get to realise in the classroom. This is also in line with Dewey (2012) who stated that change must come from the teachers themselves. According to Widdowson (2012), at the heart of the matter is that the teachers rethink the way they see the very language they teach based on a renewed understanding of English as a lingua franca. They need to become more aware of the purposes, functions as well as nature of the English language.

As novel ideas and initiatives in the realm of second/foreign language teaching are perpetually emerging, what followed is that these language teachers have also been demanded to cope with these changes. Understanding what the teachers think of such changes therefore seems a reasonable task. For this reason, it is not surprising as to why language teachers' beliefs with regard to an implementation of educational innovations have been awarded substantial attention over the past years. Implementing any educational initiatives is an arduous attempt faced by both policy makers and practitioners. Farrell & Kun (2007) argued it was fundamental for language policymakers "to understand the crucial role that teachers play in the enactment of language policy" (p. 399). This attempt becomes problematic, impossible even, when such initiatives do not go in line with the teachers' beliefs and their relative teaching contexts. Carless (2003)

noted that implementing an innovation is a demanding matter that requires change and adaptation. Unless the teachers' viewpoints are taken into serious consideration, "the already challenging nature of implementing something new may be exacerbated" (p. 485). In line with Carless' argument, Todd (2006) asserted that "teachers' attitudes, perceptions and beliefs should be such an influential force behind the curriculum development" and that introducing an innovation may become a smoother process if the information on what the teachers believe is acquired.

Before such endeavour to implement changes in classroom can take place, it is clear that prerequisite steps need to be taken regarding the teacher cognition. The proposals for change are less likely to materialise unless more investigation into the teacher cognition takes place. The next section introduces the concept of language teacher cognition as a research framework to explore how English is perceived from the Thai EFL teachers' perspectives.

2.3 Language teacher cognition as a research framework

This study employs the language teacher cognition framework (Borg, 2015) as theoretical lens for understanding the in-service Thai EFL teachers' cognition of English in light of the global spread of English and the changing sociolinguistic landscape of the twenty-first century. As the use of English expands globally, simultaneously bringing speakers of recognised dialects or varieties of world

Englishes into closer contact with one another, the goal of promoting mutual comprehensibility among interlocutors, especially learners of English, has become increasingly more important and more challenging. Since what the teachers think and believe “must ultimately be considered in terms of the effects their cognitions have on learning” (Ellis, 2009, p. 141), it is important that the complex mental processes of the teachers be examined. Any positive changes we hope to initiate in the classroom cannot happen unless the thoughts, knowledge, and beliefs that guide what teachers do are not fully understood (Borg, 2009). In response to Dewey (2012) who notes that “[u]nderstanding what teachers might do in order to incorporate ELF research in practice is not immediately obvious” (p. 162), and that “there has been relatively little in-depth exploration of what teachers might reasonably do to incorporate an ELF perspective in practice” (p. 167), this study seeks to gain understanding of in-service Thai EFL teachers' cognition of English through the lens of language teacher cognition.

2.3.1 Defining language teacher cognition

To make sense of the language learning/teaching experience in the language classrooms, knowing what is happening in the mind of the teachers is necessary. The study draws on the much-cited definition by Borg (2015), who defines the term ‘language teacher cognition’ as “what teachers think, know, and believe and of its relationships to teachers’ practices” (p. 1). He used it as an inclusive term to describe “the complex, practically-oriented, personalized, and context-sensitive

networks of knowledge, thoughts and beliefs that language teachers draw on in their work” (p. 321). It is also characterised as “an often tacit, personally-held, practical system of mental constructs held by teachers and which are dynamic ... defined and refined on the basis of educational and professional experiences throughout the teachers’ lives” (p. 40). Language teachers have cognitions about all aspects of their work from generic issues (e.g., lesson planning, classroom management) to specific curricular areas (e.g., grammar teaching, literacy instruction, or literature). English language teacher cognition has been extensively explored in several areas of L2 English instruction such as grammar teaching (e.g., Hos & Kekec, 2014; Nishimuro, & Borg, 2013; Underwood, 2012; Watson, 2015), reading instruction (e.g., Hammond, 2015; McNeill & Kirk, 2014), writing instruction (e.g., Gaitas & Alves Martins, 2014; Nguyen & Hudson, 2010) or speaking instruction (e.g., Farrell & Yang, 2019). Language teacher cognition encompasses myriad cognitive constructs such as the teachers’ knowledge, beliefs, conceptions, ideologies, and attitudes upon which language teachers draw in all aspects of their work, especially in their actual classroom practices within a particular context. While grouped under the same notion of language teacher cognition, each of these cognitive constructs do not converge fully in their definitional and conceptual scope of development and therefore need to be disentangled from one another.

Of most relevant to the focus of the current study are *language ideologies* and *language attitudes*. In the second half of the 20th century, the concepts of language ideologies and language attitudes were formulated as conceptual tools to treat everyday speakers' beliefs about and feelings towards ways of speaking (Kroskrity, 2016). The two concepts similarly represent a shared endeavour to introduce people's subjectivity about language form and use into the scholarly inquiries on linguistic phenomena that were once populated by objectivist frames. While both attitudes and ideologies about languages invariably inform us about people's beliefs and feelings, they diverge in several respects. First, the conceptual origins of these two concepts are different: theories of language ideologies come from linguistic anthropology and language attitudes from social psychology of language (Garrett, 2010; Schieffelin, Woolard, & Kroskrity, 1988). Such different paths of development have led each of these notions to have distinct concerns with regards to similar phenomena: language ideologies as a concept tends to qualitatively highlight the users' shared experience as social actors within a socio-political system that serves as a basis on which their beliefs and feelings about language are collectively constructed. In contrast, language attitudes are generally associated with a measurement of the users' "mental states which direct one's response to objects and situations" (Pestello, 2007, p. 200).

Within the larger field of Global Englishes and other related scholarship, ideologies and attitudes have invariably been used as a working definition in prior studies seeking to explore the teachers' beliefs with regards to English language

learning and teaching. The majority of these inquiries were classified as ‘attitude’ studies where the concept of attitudes was used to define “a disposition to react favourably or unfavourably to a class of objects” (Sarnoff, 1970, p. 279). The ‘class of objects’ examined included English varieties/accents and the treatment given to them (see Galloway, 2017; Galloway & Rose, 2015, and Jenkins, 2007 for overview), native English-speaking and non-native English-speaking teachers (e.g., Kang, 2015; Llurda, 2009), instructional materials (e.g., Forman, 2014; Zacharias, 2005), and different models of pedagogical innovation discussed in Section 2.2.2 (e.g., Blair, 2015; Lopriore, 2016; Rose & Galloway, 2019, Vettorel, 2016).

Jenkins’s (2007) use of the term ‘attitudes’ in her pioneering work has also been influential in providing subsequent studies foundational perspectives and methods on examining stakeholders’ (i.e., students and teachers) attitudes towards ELF. To support calls for change in the English language teaching industry, several of these studies have adopted the term ‘attitudes’ along with ‘beliefs’, ‘perceptions’, ‘ideologies’ or ‘views’ to highlight the complexity of attitudes and the underlying influence behind them, including the prevalence of native norms and standard language ideology (Galloway, 2017; Galloway & Rose, 2015). In this sense, their use of these cognitive terms could be said to resonate with the tripartite model where attitudes are classically distinguished into three components: a cognitive component (thoughts and beliefs), a conative or guiding component (readiness for action), and an affective component (feelings towards the attitude object) (Baker,

1992), as evidenced in a growing body of research reporting 'positive' feedback toward integrating a Global Englishes perspective into TESOL teacher education programmes. For instance, to examine the correlation between familiarity with ELF, academic instruction on ELF, and teachers' 'attitudes' toward ELF, Dilek and Özdemir (2015) included attitudinal statements in the questionnaires distributed to 300 pre- and in-service teachers in Turkey. The results revealed that ELF instruction and familiarity with ELF were found to have a positive effect on the teachers' attitudes toward ELF, and the need to include an ELF-aware approach in language teacher education was warranted. In another example, Ali's (2014) research objective was to investigate the perceptions and attitudes of experienced and pre-service language educators towards EIL implementation in Malaysia. Adopting the terms 'perception' and 'attitudes' in her findings, the author stressed the powerful impact of teachers' attitudes on the English language teaching policies and practices.

These attitudinal studies drew upon different terminologies depending on which of the attitude components they wished to highlight. When the discussion revolved around individual teachers' evaluative concepts directed to a linguistic phenomenon, either positive or negative, the affective component of attitudes was tapped into and the term 'attitudes' commonly adopted. However, as the studies went on to discuss the potential roots of such attitudes, the cognitive component – i.e., the underlying beliefs and thoughts – would be employed. In some studies, the term 'ideology' (or 'ideologies') has been conceptualised to refer to this cognitive

component and used extensively in relation to the discussion of native norms and standard language ideology. For example, one of Doan's (2014) guiding questions used to analyse interview data from eleven lecturers enrolling in a teacher education programme in Vietnam to examine culture teaching from an EIL perspective was: "What ideology informs such selection?" (p. 83). Drawing on the notion of standard language ideology and seeing EIL scholarship as an 'ideological shift' in the practice of culture teaching, the author concluded that the teacher participants' selection of American and British cultures as models was informed by their "monocentric/native-speakerist ideology about language and culture" (p. 85).

While the notions of ideologies and attitudes on their own are not a sole indicator of language teacher cognition, there are good reasons why taking them into consideration might yield sharper insights to our examination of the driving force behind what the teachers think and do. For one thing, conclusions about the nature of teachers' beliefs (e.g., how beliefs can impact teaching practices or that they seem to be stable), while widely recognised, are too general to generate a clearer, more precise understanding of the value-laden aspect of the teachers' cognition of English. As Woolard (2020) pointed out:

Ideologies are morally and politically loaded because implicitly or explicitly they represent not only how language is, but how it ought to be. They endow some linguistic features or varieties with greater value than others, for some circumstances and some speakers (p. 2).

As key constructs in the teachers' cognitive system, the terms language teacher ideologies and attitudes provide a fruitful ground on which specific issues of 'value' or 'ideal' in relation to the English language can be explored and discussed (e.g., notions of standard and non-standard forms of English, the socioeconomic opportunities of using one English variety over another, the associated quality attached to certain varieties, and so on).

However, while the concept of attitudes is a valuable indicator of viewpoints, preferences, and desires in the community, such viewpoints and preferences and desires may not always align with the people's behaviours (Baker, 1992). Galloway and Rose (2015) pointed out, "It is clear from these studies that a theory/practice divide exists. ELF is often accepted in the abstract by teachers, but rejected in the classroom" (p. 189). To fully understand where this divide stems from, the teachers' 'mental lives' must be explored from every dimension, be it cognitive, conative, or affective. In this regard, the current study has employed the term 'language teacher cognition' as an "enveloping term" (Feryok, 2010, p. 272) to encompass the *global* meaning of these three attitude components, but the study has also drawn on other related terms like ideologies and attitudes to highlight a specific angle within language teacher cognition. For the purpose of the thesis, the term 'attitudes' has been conceptualised following Ajzen's (2005) definition: "a disposition to respond favourably or unfavourably to an object, person, institution, or event" (p. 3), and is drawn upon when the teachers' intrapersonal inclinations conveyed via the positive or negative evaluation of certain entities are addressed.

Language ideologies as a concept has been defined in the context of this study as "a more ubiquitous set of diverse beliefs, however implicit or explicit they may be, used by speakers of all types *as models* for constructing linguistic evaluations" (Kroskrity, 2004, p. 497). Language ideologies also cut across more than a single belief an individual may have about a certain aspect of the language, encompassing "a network of beliefs and values that exist across a number of people and sites, and deeply entwined with power relations" (McKinney, 2020, p. 34). In this respect, the ideological aspect is incorporated in the framing and overall discussion of RQ1 to allow for a more fine-grained, contextualised and descriptive understanding of the more tacit dimension of the language teacher cognition than simply referring the teachers' beliefs in a broad and isolated sense. Through an ideological lens, the study would be able to unravel not only the teachers' perceptions of what English *is* but also how it *ought to* be and what they feel they could legitimately do with it against the backdrop of power relations that structure everyday life in the community of practice in which the research is situated (Cavanaugh, 2020).

As a close analysis of related concepts and terminology above has revealed, language teacher cognition as a newly emerging line of inquiry, however robust the field may seem to be, still lays subject to terminological variability and lack of a unified framework within which programmatic research agenda are conceived (Borg, 2015). To tackle this, a theoretical framework of language teacher cognition was proposed (see figure 2.2), which has come to serve as a conceptual tool and a

springboard for other conceptual or empirical research that share similar endeavours. The framework outlines the relationship among language teacher cognition and other elements from prior language learning experience (“schooling”), pre-service teacher education (“professional coursework”), to in-service teaching experience (“classroom practice”). In this sense, language teacher cognition can be understood as a collection of all experiences related to the learning and teaching of a language one has constructed from the earliest experience of the language to the pedagogical practices in which one is engaged at the present moment and throughout their professional career.

The next section looks at the L2 English teachers’ cognition of English and the ways it is addressed in today’s TESOL programmes around the world. Despite its much-touted status as a ‘global’ means of communication, English may not always be treated as such.

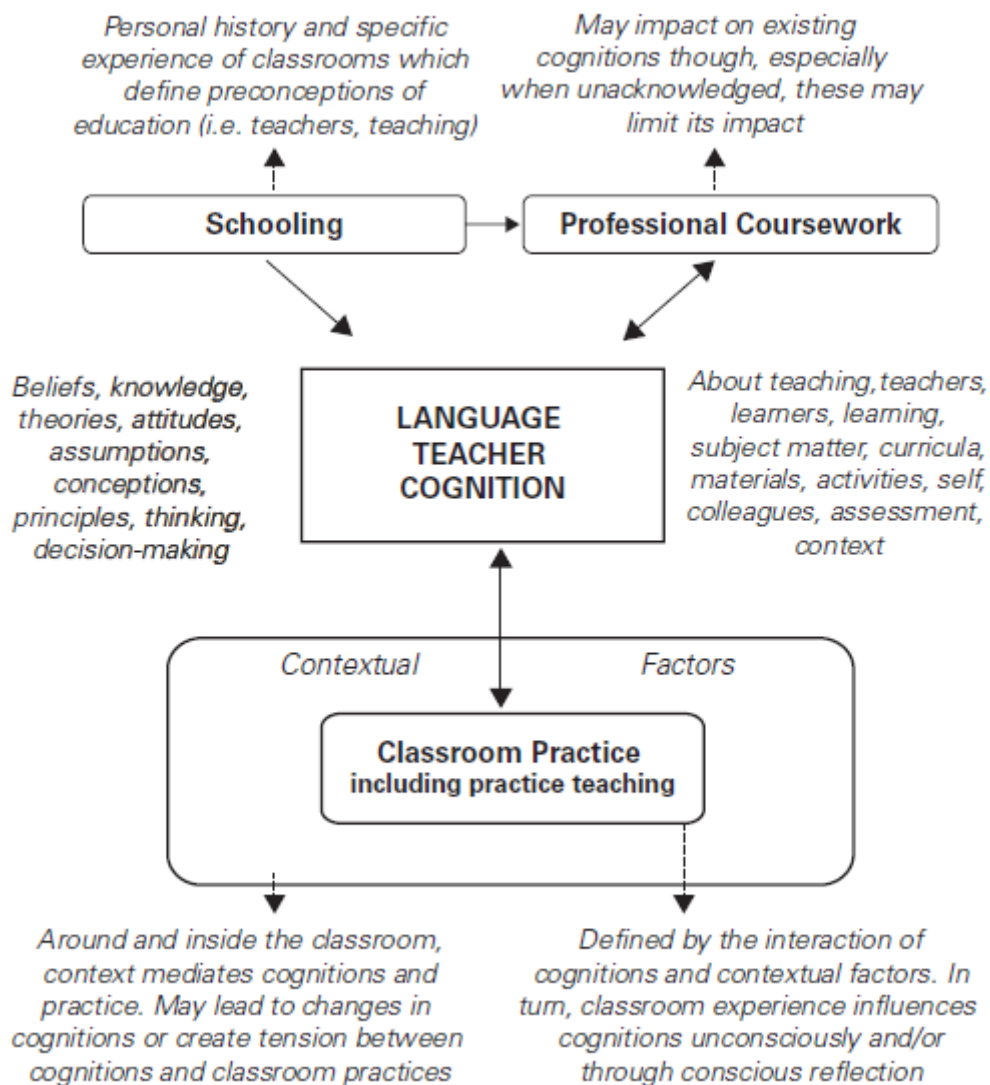


Figure 2.2: Elements and processes in LTC (Borg, 2005, p.333)

2.3.2 Traditional perspectives on English and English language teaching

TESOL as a field has long been predominated by native-speakerism – the conception that a native speaker represents the ideal teacher of English. In spite of the growing awareness of English with its current function as the world’s *lingua franca*, many higher education institutions who claimed their ‘international’ orientation are often characterised by an emphasis on the Western-borne, native speakers’ norms with scarce attention to other varieties of English. A vast majority of TESOL programmes in different teaching contexts and cultures remain heavily and inadvertently unaware of their role in circulating the long-outdated dichotomy of the superior Self vs the inferior Other (Pennycook, 1998) via course content, materials, assessments, and curricular documents (Dewey, 2015).

While regarded as experts in their own contexts, pre- and in-service TESOL practitioners who grew up learning English as a second/foreign language are framed in discourses in which their linguistic, cultural, and other differences are characterised as problematic and thus positioned merely as passive adopters of the dominant English-speaking West philosophies (Dewey & Patsko, 2018; Ilieva & Waterstone, 2013; Kamhi-Stein, 2009). Due to the internalised belief that native speakers are better users and teachers of English, many of these ‘non-native’ teachers often experience linguistic and professional insecurities. With the presumed linguistic deficiencies imposed upon them, these teachers’ knowledge of

their own local English varieties and cultures is often regarded as a deficit. For example, Canagarajah (2012) shared his in-service teacher training experience with the United States Information Agency in Sri Lanka. Using Sri Lankan English while also codeswitching between English and Tamil during the lesson, he felt devastated when his English was questioned and ridiculed by the so-called U.S. experts: "I was left with a poor image of myself as a teacher. ... I had never thought my teaching practice or English proficiency was questionable" (p. 259). These experiences of low self-esteem and professionally-induced anxiety are shared by many L2 English teachers (e.g., Galloway, 2014; Hammad & Ghali, 2015; Park, 2012; Takahashi, 2014; Tum, 2013), which have also found to have negative impact on the teachers' performance and cognition of their intended practices in the future language classrooms.

In some cases, as exemplified in studies by Inoue and Stracke (2013), this Western superiority is not forced upon but actively embraced by many student-teachers themselves. Having learned English as a second or foreign language, most of these teachers choose to pursue their TESOL education in Inner-Circle countries fully aware of the competitive edge they would afford by obtaining a degree qualification deemed as more privileged in their home countries. In many parts of Asia, as a result of native-English speaker fallacy, teaching English means teaching standardised versions of English along with the cultural information associated with Anglo-white, native inner-circle English users with middle-class values.

Instead of being judged against their qualifications and ability to equip learners with much-needed capability “to shuttle between different varieties of English and different speech communities” (Canagarajah, 2013, p. 6), teachers’ competence is still based on their proficiency in standard English (Braine, 2013).

Past and recent research have provided useful insight into the attitudinal aspects of the L2 English teachers regarding traditional and global views of English. These studies have been carried out with teachers studying/working in Inner-Circle countries (e.g., Dewey, 2015; Selvi, 2013) and Outer- and Expanding-Circle countries (e.g., Atay, 2008 (Turkey); Braine, 2013 (China); Decke-Cornhill, 2003 (Germany); Koskun, 2011 (Turkey); Lim & Burns, 2018 (Cambodia); Mahboob & Talaat, 2008 (Pakistan); Monfared & Khatib, 2018 (India and Iran); Sadeghpour & Sharifian, 2017; Sifakis & Sougari, 2005 (Greece); Young, Walsh, & Schartner, 2016 (Asia-Pacific); Wu & VanderBroek, 2008 (Ghana); Zacharias, 2014 (Indonesia)). Consistently found from these studies had been that native-speaker norms as a preferred language learning choice are not limited to learners but also acknowledged in language teachers themselves. For instance, in examining the current conceptualization of language in language learning and teaching, Dewey (2015) discussed recent research into teachers’ beliefs about and responses to ELF. One of the reasons mentioned why ELF pedagogy was minimally taken up was because the norm-centred ideology upholding the current ELT practice prevented the teachers from imagining an ELF view where English can serve its full communicative potential. In response to a module discussion on what kind of

knowledge about language teachers should possess, cohorts of experienced English language teachers enrolled on a Master's programme in ELT and Applied Linguistics described language knowledge mostly in terms of its grammatical rules and common structures used by native speakers. As Dewey (2015) noted, these teachers' normative perspectives (where language was perceived as a system) contrasted sharply with the notion of English as a discourse practice promoted by ELF ontologies of the language. Across different global English teaching contexts, teachers predominantly and consistently express a preference for standardised English such as American or British English over other English varieties, including their own localised English varieties as well as other local languages and cultures.

Additionally, recurring among early studies on L2 English teachers' cognition of Global Englishes and its proposals for pedagogical change is one of general objection. Although EIL has received a growing awareness from both the learners and teachers, English as a lingua franca (ELF) is still seen as deficient versions of native speaker models. Jenkins (2007), for example, found in her study using focus group discussions that teacher participants, native and non-native English alike, felt that ELF generated a sense of fragmentation, which could act as a potential cause leading to a lower or loss of the standard that one may use as a shared point of reference. ELF was also mentioned by some participants as sounding unnatural and therefore a tendency for causing unintelligibility among non-native English speakers. Echoing Jenkin's (2007) findings is Young & Walsh's

(2010) study of 26 non-native speaker teachers' views (one Thai teacher). The study reported that most teachers were not well-informed of what English as a lingua franca or English as an International Language (EIL) look like although a number of them found ELF/EIL "conceptually attractive" (p. 135).

Young et al. (2016) also examined the ways in which the teachers (n=71) and their learners understand and perceive issues pertaining to the English language norms, varieties, and targets in relation to the teaching of English. Findings revealed that the native speaker hegemony continues to play roles in the English language classrooms. However, it was also found that World Englishes alternatives appeal to both teachers and learners of English: "That said, almost all of the respondents were acutely aware of world Englishes and had good reasons for their use of different varieties" (p. 17). The study concluded by suggesting that future research take steps further in discovering the complex relationship between teacher cognitions of language variety and the extent to which those cognitions inform classroom practices. One particular insight drawn from these studies was that students' propensities towards a particular variety seem to depend largely on exposure, either through the artefacts outside (such as media) or the teachers and what happens inside the classroom itself. In other words, native-speaker norms as a preferred language learning choice are not limited to learners but also acknowledged in language teachers themselves. A deeper investigation into the teaching practices, especially the mental constructs that govern the teachers' decision-making of what 'gets practiced' in the classroom, is thus required.

The next section carries on with a deeper investigation into TESOL teacher education where Global Englishes ideas have started to be implemented in the classroom.

2.3.3 Language teacher cognitions of Global Englishes language teaching

Negative repercussions of the long-established native speaker standards on L2 English teachers have given rise to a paradigm shift in the English language teaching industry whereby Global Englishes-informed language teaching models are advocated as another alternative way to approach the L2 English pedagogy. The arrival of Global Englishes and its pedagogical frameworks in educational environments have led to increased awareness, albeit largely among teacher educators and teacher-researchers. In response to these emerging new scenarios where both learners' and teachers' needs must be taken into account, many English language teacher educators have begun to reflect on their own assumptions and beliefs about language education, resulting in reconceptualisation of the TESOL teacher education. As exemplified in a steady growth in publications that discuss English teaching from a Global Englishes perspective (e.g., Ates et al., 2015; Bayyurt & Akcan, 2015; Bowles & Cogo, 2015; Dewey, 2015; Hall, Wicaksono, Liu, Qian, & Xu, 2013, 2017; Eslami, Moody, & Pashmforoosh, 2019; Marlina & Giri, 2014; Matsuda, 2017; Vettorel, 2015; Vetterol & Corrizato, 2016; Sifakis & Tsantila,

2018; Zacharias, 2016; Zacharias & Manara, 2013), these teacher educators have been actively exploring ways to introduce and engender teachers' awareness of a perspective shift in the teaching principles underlying English language pedagogy within language teacher education programs. In recent years, an increasing number of Global Englishes-inspired teacher educators around the world have started to include Global Englishes perspectives in their programme, albeit at varying degrees, from stand-alone lesson activities to frameworks for teacher education curricula (e.g., Sifakis & Bayyurt, 2015; Cameron & Galloway, 2019).

Several studies regarding Global Englishes-informed teacher education have made a strong case for the importance and inclusion of ELF in pre-service teacher education programmes and continuing in-service teacher professional development (e.g., Bayyurt & Sefakis, 2015a, 2015b; Pedrazzini, 2015; Dewey, 2014, 2015). Pedrazzini (2015), for instance, found in her study that ELF-aware activities offer teacher trainees' another perspective into the sorts of variations typically found in ELF communication even if in the end these teacher trainees may return to the 'safety net' of established native Inner-Circle varieties in their teaching contexts. The consensus among these teachers who have reported on their attempt to incorporate Global Englishes perspectives in their classroom seems to be the importance and priority of Global Englishes-oriented instruction and myriad ways in which these priorities can be practically addressed in teacher education.

A large volume of studies on Global Englishes-informed innovations in language classrooms and curricula have also been reported by teacher-researchers, usually in a form of action-research projects or case studies in the teachers' own classroom. These innovative practices include language-based activities (e.g., Galloway & Rose, 2014, 2018; Rose & Galloway, 2017; Rosenhan & Galloway, 2019; Sung, 2015, 2018) or lessons on sociolinguistics (e.g., Galloway, 2013; Hall et al., 2013; Marlina, 2013; Teixeira & Pozzi, 2014). For instance, to raise the teachers' awareness of the pluricentricity of English, Hall et al. (2013) developed an online course by combining insights from World Englishes, English as a lingua franca, critical applied linguistics, and cognitive work on usage-based learning. The course was organised into five units, each of which was designed to introduce new concepts and provide reflective activities for the teachers to reflect on its implications, especially in relation to their local context. One of the main goals of this course, according to the authors, was "to contest monolithic views of English and the deficit model of learning and teaching associated with them" (p. 3) by encouraging the teachers to reflect on their beliefs about English and the extent to which their teaching practices were affected by them. The results from 17 teachers and educators from the Inner, Outer, and Expanding Circles demonstrated that the course could potentially prompt the teachers to problematise the monolithic view of English, and in some cases, motivate them to apply the lessons in their practice. It is worth noting that many of these studies provided pedagogical evidence on

positive benefits of innovations based on the proposals for change. However, while some teachers displayed positive attitudes towards the idea and concurred that the so-called 'perfect' English was ungrounded, a clear preference for the native English model over those spoken in other circles remained the general trend.

In the following section, challenges experienced by the teacher educators who have trialled the proposed curricular innovations and reported on the impact of these innovations will be discussed.

Implementational barriers

Many studies have reported on some difficulties encountered by teacher educators when designing and delivering Global Englishes-tailored activities or tasks in their L2 teacher education programmes. These implementational challenges can be macro or micro. One example of macro challenge is curriculum design. For instance, some TESOL programmes are described as Global Englishes-oriented but only by name. Issues surrounding the diverse use of English may be superficially addressed, gravitating toward theories while empirically-based suggestions for teachers to actually try it out in their real-life classroom remain few and far between. Even when EIL/ELF/Global Englishes were mentioned in the course or programme descriptions (e.g., syllabus), its presence remained superficial without any associated guideline for pedagogical application (Dewey, 2014; Dewey & Patsko, 2018; Matsuda, 2009).

Another kind of challenge teachers may experience can be described as micro. Micro problems are classroom-based, revolving around time and learners (e.g., a particular student population, students' limited proficiency, frustration when facing with classroom realities, overwhelming reading loads). Teacher educators in Matsuda's (2017) publication offered honest and open accounts of the difficulties they experienced and of the lessons they have learnt from these experiences. The difficulties included context-specific ones such as the elective status of a course, the composition of a particular student population or a course deemed too theoretical by the participants. Also mentioned were time and curricular constraints; students' lack of proficiency and the frustration students feel when leaving the idealistic and safe environment of the course and encountering the reality of teaching. In addition, students were often overwhelmed by the amount of reading they had to do. Some of the teacher educators also had to deal with the doubts and reluctance of the students who resist change.

The final challenge concerns language teachers' beliefs and attitudes. Resorting to a critical reflective narrative approach, these teacher educators reflected on their experience of incorporating Global Englishes content in various teaching contexts. Attachment to native speaker norms entertained by both teacher trainers and student teachers along with resistance to the Global Englishes principles was consistently found to be a recurring theme (Giri & Foo, 2014; Manara, 2014; Tanghe, 2014). Many L2 English student teachers have expressed

qualms about the effectiveness of teaching Global Englishes and what will be required of them in its implementation. This may be due to the fact that the English language curriculum, as well as learners' expectation, dictates that they follow the 'native speaker' English model, which learners and teachers alike aspire to replicate despite the well-attested difficulties of the conceptualisation of such varieties. Of all these challenges, teacher cognition is perhaps the crucial disabler that stops change from truly happening.

While student teachers' professional insecurities (and many other negative impacts of monolingual TESOL programmes) should provide sufficiently reasonable ground on which calls for change are warranted, one key issue that runs through all these studies is incongruence in beliefs and practices. That is, teachers' stated beliefs do not always parallel their observed practices. Teachers often reported they felt it was necessary to move away from the so-called standard English, recognising that this approach may not reflect the actual usage of English in the current world and that proposals for using English as a lingua franca as a basis for L2 English instruction sounded conceptually attractive. However, actual implementation of the proposed instructional alternative remains scarce. For many, Global Englishes as an actual and doable English language teaching model was inconceivable. This incongruence has been attributed to various contextual factors in their workplace which have to be taken into account when one aims to arrive at a deep understanding of the teacher cognition and practices.

2.3.4 Impact of Global Englishes teacher education on LTC

While scholars have noted the urgency of reconceptualising teachers' cognition of the subject they teach, and that this sort of conceptual change must come from the teachers themselves, what studies on Global Englishes and its pedagogy have in common is that they emphasise how teacher education and professional development play a key role in language teachers' conceptual transformation. A number of studies have reported on the impact of pre-service language teacher education and continuing professional trainings for in-service teachers on their beliefs and practices. Through several aspects of the teachers' pre-service education such as curriculum, teacher educators, or practicum experience, teachers are given the opportunity to engage with Global Englishes principles and challenge their pre-existing language ideology. It was during the process of teacher education that the teachers' prior expectations and personally held beliefs are either unwavering or transformed by the program agenda, the effect of which can last throughout their entire career (Borg, 2015). Such impact was made evidenced in publications that showcase how L2 English teachers across learning contexts interpret Global Englishes, resulting in a variety of Global Englishes-inspired teaching practices at all levels and in every form. Global Englishes teacher education programmes can contribute to the student teachers' conceptual transformations in three dimensions: their prior learning experiences, their role as a teacher, and their teaching context.

Reflect on prior learning experiences

Studies have shown that prior language learning experiences constitute one of the main sources of the teachers' cognition on language teaching. Past experiences teachers had when they were language learners, or what Lortie (1975) called "the apprenticeship of observation," (p. 61) can influence teachers' beliefs not only about language teaching and learning but also their pedagogical approach. Since it is usually one of the earliest time to be exposed to a form of education for the teacher, this type of learning experience plays a powerful role in those formative years leading up to their career. With a lot of time spent observing and interacting with their teachers, teachers have inevitably come to their own conclusion what education should look like.

Language teachers have been advised to pay attention to how prior language learning experience may affect their conception of English as a global language and its pedagogical implications. Pre-service teachers have been found to interpret new information regarding learning and teaching based on personal experiences and perceptions before entering the programme. As Galloway and Rose (2015) highlighted, "teachers have often spent a lot of their lives striving to meet such standards in their own studies, and thus adhere to them in their own practices despite the fact that its existence is questionable" (p. 219). This suggests that the prior beliefs the teachers bring to their teacher education and career can either promote or hinder the degree to which new concepts may be internalised and adopted in practices. Numrich's (1996) diary studies discovered that while

some pre-service teachers avoided grammar teaching or giving corrective feedback due to their negative experience as learners, some teachers who enjoyed the cultural components during their own learning experience reported having tried to do just the same with their classroom. Also relevant is the study by Johnson (1994) who pointed out how the pre-service teachers' prior beliefs formed as learners can affect their instructional decisions. Emerging from her data was also "the apparent power that images from prior experience within formal language classrooms had on these teachers' images of themselves as teachers" (p. 449).

This also resonates with the in-service EFL teachers in Öztürk and Gürbüz's (2017) study in Turkish contexts whose initial conceptualisations on how English should be taught or what a good English teacher should look like were rooted in their language learning habits and by observing their own teachers in the past. One illustrative example comes from the case of Zeynap, one of the English teacher participants in the study. In her reflection report, Zeynap wrote that she had asked her students to keep a vocabulary notebook because it had worked for her in the past as a learner and so should it be for her current students, clearly suggesting that belief formed in one's early learning experience can influence the teachers' practices.

Reconceptualise their role as a teacher in light of the current sociolinguistic landscapes

In responding to the changing learning landscape of the 21st century, L2 teachers are urged to critically reflect not only on their own past learning experiences and the underlying beliefs about the subject but also on their role as a teacher of the very subject which has now become a global language with multiple varieties used by different speech communities. With the continually growing research literature under the Global Englishes paradigm, teachers are invited to see oneself as a reflective and mindful practitioner (Johnson & Golombek, 2016; Farrel, 2018). Reflective teachers engaged in Global Englishes-oriented practices are not only well-informed of the principles emerging from the scholarly realm but also able as well as willing to “develop instructional sequences, lesson adaptations, policies and tests that make sense of ELF while being relevant to and appropriate for each local teaching and learning context, its needs, its wants and idiosyncrasies” (Sifakis, et al., 2018, p. 157).

In line with this view of language teacher as a mindful practitioner is a recent development in the multilingual model of ELT (Kirkpatrick, 2011) and translingual pedagogy (Canagarajah, 2013, 2016; Zheng, 2017). The term multilingual English teachers (METs), which was based on the multilingual model of ELT, is recommended as a more appropriate identity goal for Asian teachers of English (Thai teachers included) whose pedagogical practices can serve as an English-using role model for learners. Given its emphasis on the teachers’

multilingual orientation and experience, this model may serve to boost the teachers' professional legitimacy in light of the changing linguistic landscapes where ELF use increasingly becomes a new reality. Similarly, translingual pedagogy encourages language teachers are encouraged to embrace one's own professional trajectory as a translingual language teacher. Given that equipping learners with communicative strategies is vital to a successful language learning across sociolinguistic boundaries, translingual teachers endeavour to expand their learners' as well as their own repertoires of linguistic, social, and cultural resources. As suggested by Canagarajah (2013), instead of fostering mastery of grammatical rules of a single variety, teachers are best positioned to cultivate language awareness and pragmatic strategies in learners, which can be achieved in several ways such as awareness-raising activities or critical examination of relevant theories in the field (see Matsuda, 2017 for a collection of Global Englishes lessons, activities and tasks).

Note that what Global Englishes strives for is to offer an alternative pedagogical framework of going about conducting one's teaching practices. Suggested ideas are put forward, instead of imposed upon, for interested teachers to think about and decide whether (and in what ways) those ideas can play part in reinventing their classroom that better aligns with today's sociolinguistic reality. Given that an appropriate degree of reflexivity, responsibility, and autonomy are

applied, teachers can take liberty to integrate Global Englishes principles in the course of lesson design and implementation that suit their ELT context the most.

Stay informed of their future teaching context

Conflicts between prior beliefs attained during the course of teacher education and real-life practices among novice in-service teachers are common (Johnson, 1994; Xu, 2012; Swann, 2015). These teachers often find themselves struggle over applying the content they are taught and trained during their TESOL programme in the real practice. Taking Swan's (2015) study of English teachers from seven different countries as an example. It was discovered that participants' desires to follow what they were taught were sometime at odds with their classroom reality. In similar manner, teachers in Johnson's (1994) study realised through reflection how they rushed through the lesson plans instead of providing authentic input, something which they had been trained to do. It may be difficult for these teachers to come to term with why they do what they do unless they understand who they are as teachers as well as what their teaching environments look like.

Fullan (1993) noted a powerful role the wider context to which the teachers belong such as that of each educational institution culture plays in the teachers' attitudes. Some studies have discovered that although some TESOL practitioners were trained under Western-based TESOL education they adapted their pedagogical approaches in ways that they deemed fit with the local students' needs while bearing in mind contextual factors such as students' first language (Barnawi

& Le Ha, 2015; Kirkpatrick, 2011; Haneda & Sherman, 2016; Li & Edwards, 2013). To meet the shifting needs of learners, the decisions regarding 'which English' and 'whose English' to be taught should be considered in relation to a realistic, close-up picture of one's teaching environments (Young & Walsh, 2010). In other words, teachers must first have a clear understanding of their own local teaching/learning contexts. For example, within a newly proposed model of Clusters of Language Teacher Cognition (Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2017), the learner profile and institutional factors such as organizational atmosphere, testing and curriculum policies were delineated as determinants of teachers' practices.

Taking the local contexts into account, the following section moves on to studies on teachers' cognition of English varieties within the contexts of Thailand on which the present study is conducted.

2.3.5 Language teacher cognition of English in Thailand

English language has been taught as a foreign language in Thailand since as far back as the mid-1800s and its growth is closely connected with the encroachment of the outside world and the consequent perceived need for western knowledge by the Thai elites (Darasawang & Reinder, 2015). What distinguishes Thailand from other ASEAN member countries is the fact that the influence of English language was not forced upon the Thai people through colonization. Though initially privileged to the educated elite few, English has been regulated in

the Compulsory Education Act of 1921 as one of the compulsory subjects in the national curriculum for students beyond Grade four (Methitham & Chamcharatsri, 2011). A set of core educational standards put forward in the Basic Core Curriculum B.E. 2551 (AD 2008) includes English communicative ability to be achieved by Thai students (Ministry of Education (MoE), 2008).

Despite the growing awareness of English among Thai citizens, English language teaching in Thailand had often been characterised by an emphasis on native speakers' norms, with scarce attention to other varieties of English (Pakir, 2010). Young and Walsh (2010), for example, noted in their study of 'non-native' teachers' beliefs about target varieties that for the participants ELF as an actual English language teaching model was an unfamiliar concept. This may be due to the fact that English language curricula, as well as learners' expectations, dictate that they follow the model of 'native speaker' of English, which Thais aspire to replicate, despite the well-attested difficulties of the conceptualisation of such variety.

Takahashi (2012) recounted her experience attending a Thai TESOL conference and noted how "the native speaker/Western ideal is well and truly alive" in the Thai discourses, especially those owned by Thai academics. Although the irrelevancy of a native-speaker model has begun to be acknowledged, the notion of 'native-speaker' remained inherent in the Thai perceptions of what constitutes 'good English' as evidenced in comments such as 'how a Thai accent has to be eliminated' or 'how Thai grammar interferes with standard English grammar.'

According to Takahashi, it was this attitude that undermines the confidence of Thais and promote the "Native speaker only" hiring practices (Akiyoshi, 2010).

Baker and Jarunthawatchai (2017) explored Thailand's current language ideologies using the country's English language education policy as a lens. Seeing English as "the fabled Aladdin's lamp which permits one to open, as it were, the linguistic gates to international business, technology, science and travel (Kachru, 1986, p. 1), Thailand has invested considerable resources and time in English language education. The hoped-for returns in terms of English proficiency level, however, did not reflect such enormous investment. This is due to, as Baker and Jarunthawatchai claimed, "inappropriate native speaker and Anglo-centric models of English which do not reflect the growing use of English as a lingua franca (ELF) globally and particularly as the official lingua franca of ASEAN" (p. 1).

However, the findings from Boonsuk's (2016) research suggested that the concepts of native-speakerism and linguistic imperialism have started to change. The study utilised a mixed-method approach to investigate four groups of stakeholders, including Thai University students (n=301), native English-speaking teachers (n=7), non-native English-speaking teachers (n=8), and English program administrators (n=4), to investigate notions of nativeness and its relationship to the teachers' pedagogical effectiveness. The study found that most participants believed there was no connection between having a native background and being an effective English teacher, and that evaluation of teaching effectiveness should

be made in consideration of the teachers' other qualities like cultural sensitivities or professional characteristics. While the study's participants were not exclusively teachers, including perspectives from other key educational stakeholders allowed for multidimensional insights into the perceptions surrounding the idea of nativeness and the pedagogical implications in the Thai higher education context.

Within the context of Thailand, language teacher cognition of English as a global lingua franca has yet to receive more empirical attention. The only (and most recently published) studies that I am aware of and which deal exclusively with Thai teachers' beliefs and perceptions of global approaches to teaching English were those of Huttayavilaiphan's (2019) and Prabjandee's (2020). Through analytical lens of World Englishes and English as a lingua franca, Huttayavilaiphan (2019) examined the beliefs of ten Thai university teachers of English working in a public university in northern Thailand about ELT and how these beliefs related to their awareness of Global Englishes and classroom practices. Employing a qualitative approach, the study revealed that the teacher participants held different types of beliefs about ELT, which were formed and enacted by both internal and external factors. The findings also noted a number of factors influencing a relative lack of Global Englishes teaching practices compared to those informed by native-speaker norms. In the conclusion chapter, the author concurred with prior studies on the impact of teachers' beliefs on their pedagogical decisions, urging teachers to be mindful of the implications of their beliefs on students' learning.

Prabjandee's (2020) study reported on teachers' attitudes toward Global Englishes Language Teaching (GELT) before and after participating in the GELT-informed teacher professional development. The major aim of the study is to explore the potential benefits of teacher professional development to influence teachers' attitudes toward GELT through a series of transformative learning activities. A total of 38 lower secondary school teachers participated in the study with questionnaire; researcher's field notes; materials produced by participants; and teacher's reflection constitute data collection methods. The teachers reported positive feedback for the introduced activities and some positive changes were observed, but the changes were minimal. Nevertheless, this study has offered an insightful glimpse into the teachers' different attitudes towards globally-informed ELT, especially in the Thai context where minimal research on the topic has been done. Building on prior studies, the present thesis strives to obtain a more in-depth picture by focusing on the cognition of EFL teachers working in higher education settings. It also hopes to broaden their interest in teacher attitudes by incorporating the aspect of teachers' identity as part of the investigation.

2.3.6 Setting the scene for the current study

Attitudes as a topic of research have largely been ignored in Thailand. A few studies on English language attitudes in Thailand have been limited to those of learners (Baker, 2009, 2012a, 2012b; Boonsuk, 2016; Jindapitak & Teo, 2012;

Ploywattanawong & Trakulkasemsuk, 2014; Snodin & Young, 2015). Ploywattanawong and Trakulkasemsuk (2014), for example, looked at how Thai graduates view different grammatical features distinct to ASEAN ELF. Snodin and Young (2015) used a questionnaire to examine the perceptions and attitudes of Thai learners of English as to which English varieties they thought they were currently using and which they perceived as their target model. They discovered that native speaker varieties (such as American and British English) still predominated over other alternatives such as English as a Lingua Franca. The nature of each variety is also perceived differently by Thai learners.

Recurring among all these studies reviewed so far is the fact that Global Englishes has received a growing awareness from both the learners and teachers. Nevertheless, the arguments on the merits of Global Englishes language teaching alternatives over the long-established native speaker standard will likely to persevere. While some may agree with McArthur's (2002)'s perspective on a need for some kind of international variety for practical applications, some may feel more inclined with Quirk's (1990) argument that standard English (i.e., British or American English) should be the norm for communication and teaching. As asserted by Dewey (2012), whether these perceived benefits of the new paradigm are brought into pedagogical realities hinges on the very decision the language teachers themselves make. However, except for a few notable studies (e.g., Huttayavilaiphan, 2019; Prabjandee, 2020), published research related to Thai

teachers' attitudes towards Global Englishes innovations in language teaching curricula and teacher education remains scarce.

Given that the implications brought about by the choice of variety in a particular context have a wide impact on a number of areas from language learning and teaching to language curricular design to material writing, it is surprising, as noted by Young and Walsh (2010), that "much of the research which has been conducted to date largely ignores what practitioners say, think or believe about varieties of English or about ELF and EIL" (p. 124). What must be done is expanding the scope of inquiry to encompass not only the language learners' perceptions but also those of the teachers. This knowledge will allow us to better understand the ways in which language teachers' cognitions of English and its pedagogy can transform their classroom instructions and create language learning opportunities for their students in classrooms, which, in turn, illuminate how the learners' learning experience can be improved (Kubanyiova, 2016).

Teachers' cognition of English as a global lingua franca and whether they are translated into language classroom practices suggests an area of fruitful study for understanding the complex yet intriguing operation of the teachers' mental lives. Since these cognitions are shaped by "the totality of teachers' lived experience" (Borg, 2015, p. 126), to fully understand teachers' cognitions on any aspects of their work, the experiences they have had in the past as learners and in the present as teachers must be thoroughly accounted for. Building on previous

research conducted in the realm of Global Englishes together with studies on language teacher cognition studies, this thesis strives to shed light on in-service Thai EFL teachers' knowledge of, understanding about, and attitudes towards of English and the extent to which these mental activities are mirrored in their professional experience.

2.4 Language Teacher Identity

2.4.1 Identity and Language Teacher Cognitions

Since the middle of 1990s, preliminary probes into a range of elements that make up the teachers' inner lives (e.g., Johnson, 1994; Woods, 1996) have suggested that these mental constructs "could not be seen atomistically but that it was the teacher's whole identity that was at play in the classroom" (Varghese, Morgan, Johnston, and Johnson, 2005, p. 22). Clark and Peterson (1986) also wrote: "the thinking, planning, and decision making of teachers constitute a large part of the psychological context of teaching. It is within this context that curriculum is interpreted and acted upon; where teachers teach and students learn" (p. 255). Building on these previous scholarly endeavours, the relationship between these two constructs in the field of TESOL has slowly been receiving research attention. The term self/identity, or specifically language teacher identity, has taken on ever-growing layers of complexity in the literature across varying educational contexts as it has come to be acknowledged by many researchers an important analytic tool

for understanding the teachers' mental lives and what they do in the classroom. In the last two decades, the concept of language teacher identity (LTI), now also an established strand of research, has increasingly served as a research framework “to understand how language teachers construct, negotiate, and enact their identities as part of their professional learning, growth, and practices” (Yazan & Lindahl, 2020, p. 1). The growth of LTI has been reflected in a variety of publications from journal special issues (De Costa & Norton, 2017; Lindahl & Yazan, 2019; Varghese, Motha, Trent, Park, & Reeves, 2016) to edited volumes (e.g., Barkhuizen, 2016a; Cheung, Said, & Park, 2014; Kayi-Aydar, Gao, Miller, Varghese, & Vitanova, 2019; Mercer & Kostoulas, 2018; Yazan & Rudolph, 2018;).

In attempt to capture and describe this construct, a multitude of self-related terms has proliferated – from *self-concepts*, i.e., an evaluative judgment of one's perceived self, possessing both cognitive and evaluative elements (Mercers & Williams, 2014, p.10) to *self-efficacy*, which refers to our beliefs or expectations about our competence to perform certain tasks or actions (Mills, 2014). An overlapping usage of the term ‘self’ and ‘identity’, both of which are often used interchangeably, inconsistently, and without clearly defined characterisation, is an illustrative example of a multifaceted volume of self-constructs the teachers have come across as they journey from being language learner selves towards acquiring the identity of a language teacher. Looking into language teacher identity research,

we see an evidence of such complexity in Barkhuizen (2016b)'s edited volume where a synthesised definition of LTI in the field was presented:

Language teacher identities (LTIs) are cognitive, social, emotional, ideological, and historical—they are both inside the teacher and outside in the social, material and technological world. LTIs are being and doing, feeling and imagining, and storying. They are struggle and harmony: they are contested and resisted, by self and others, and they are also accepted, acknowledged and valued, by self and others. They are core and peripheral, personal and professional, they are dynamic, multiple, and hybrid, and they are foregrounded and backgrounded. And LTIs change, short-term and over time—discursively in social interaction with teacher educators, learners, teachers, administrators, and the wider community, and in material interaction with spaces, places and objects in classrooms, institutions, and online

(Barkhuizen, 2016b, p. 4)

As this definition demonstrates, Applied linguistics (and social sciences in general) has observed shifts in views on identity from essentialist perspectives, where identity was seen as a definitive set of genetically inherent characteristics possessed by an individual in a fixed and static inner core, to post-structuralist perspectives in which the self has come to be conceptualised as *fluid* (e.g., Appleby, 2016; Norton, 2013), *socially situated* (e.g., Norton, 1997, 2000; Wenger, 1998), *discursively constructed* (e.g., Baxter, 2016; Block, 2014; Gee, 2001; Glodjo, 2017; Song, 2016), *multi-dimensional* (e.g., Block & Corona, 2014; Motha, 2006; Park, 2012; Preece, 2016), *multi-layered* (e.g., Edwards & Burns, 2016; Joseph, 2016; Omoniyi, 2006; Tsui, 2007), embedded in *unequal power dynamics* (e.g., Pennycook, 2007; Varghese et al., 2005; Xu, 2012), and negotiated at the crossroads of the past, present, and future (Block, 2007). In short, L2 teacher identity is seen

as complex, multifaceted, dynamic, socially situated, and a process or way of being and becoming (Barkhuizen, 2016a).

2.4.2 Theorising LTI: overview of research on LTI and its development

Research into LTI has been informed and driven forward by a number of theoretical frameworks and disciplines, yielding multiple perspectives that add to growing attempts to theorise LTI. Despite differences in the research foci and that the precise definitions of self-concept and identity are elusive at best, LTI scholars seem to share commonality in the following arguments about L2 teacher identity in the context of second language learning and teaching.

When we talk about English language teacher identity, we are interested in their sense of who they are in relation to the multiple roles enacted in English language learning and teaching. Many scholars agree that learning how to teach is an ongoing identity work where teachers continually negotiate and construct a sense of who they are professionally (e.g., Kanno & Stuart, 2011; Tsui, 2011; Varghese, 2006). Similarly, an act of language teaching has also been conceptualised as a form of identity work (De Costa & Norton, 2017) and as a lifelong process of becoming (Clarke, 2008), characterised by "dynamic interactions among cognition, context and experience" (Borg, 2015a, p. 324). As teachers participate in the teaching practice, they construct the type of professional

identity that align with that valued by their professional community in order to gain legitimate membership (e.g., Trent, 2017; Tsui, 2007; Yazan, 2017). In addition, the teachers also seek the kind of knowledge, discourse, and ideology that can endorse their legitimacy to become part of the community, and thus play a role in maintaining and circulating particular ways of viewing the world in society (Block, 2007; Baxter, 2016) Therefore, teacher education programmes serve as a transitioning/transforming space where teachers are first introduced to their future communities of practice (e.g., Clarke, 2008; Mantero, 2004; Martel, 2015; Sayer, 2012).

The teachers' self-concepts are not only ascribed by others (Duff & Uchida, 1997; Clarke, 2008) but also shaped by the extent to which the teachers themselves identify with these dimensions. In his analysis of how individuals manage the presence of multiple identities in social action, Omoniyi (2006) explained that "one identity isn't simply chosen from an array of possibilities over the others which are discarded; there is on the contrary a cluster of co-present identities but with varying degree of salience" (p. 20). As such, the same individual may need to codeswitch among their multiple selves to align appropriately with the dominant norms and reduced the risk of being perceived as 'other'. As a consequence, there may be a contradiction between how people view themselves and how they are seen by others (Blommaert, 2006). Teacher identity therefore reflects an ongoing process of individuals' interpretation of themselves in relation to the social context

and is part of being recognised as teachers in the profession of teaching (Gee, 2001).

Moreover, the teachers' professional identity is interconnected with their interpretation of past learning experience and imagination of aspired professional identity goals (e.g., Barkhuizen, 2016a; Nguyen & Dao, 2019). It is also closely related to their other social identity categories such as race, ethnicity, gender, age, sexuality, nationality, religion, and several others (e.g., Motha, 2006; Park, 2015, Preece, 2016). Park (2015), for instance, argued that self-perceived marginalization experienced by non-native English-speaking learners and teachers may occur due to their visible minority racial and linguistic identities in scenarios where pervasive attitudes and behaviours in English language teaching (ELT) enterprise and the worldwide presence of English language are closely associated with 'whiteness' identities. Omoniyi (2006) suggested that "an individual's various identity options are co-present at all times but each of those options is allocated a position on a hierarchy based on the degree of salience it claims in a moment of identifications" (p. 19). In this respect, the more salient the identity, the more powerful role it plays in directing the teachers' professional lives (e.g., Motha, 2014; Vitanova, 2016).

Finally, teachers' identity work is contextually mediated, characterised as continuous attempts to negotiate/calibrate multiple (sometime contradictory) aspirations within unequal power dynamics and contextual constraints (e.g., Olsen,

2011; Rudolph, 2016). For example, users of ‘non-standard’ varieties of language may struggle with a sense of illegitimacy inflicted upon them by the socially-ascribed, non-native speaker status. Because identity negotiation and enactment always involve an act of agency and investment, the teachers may vary in their response to tensions, dilemmas, conflicts, and struggles they encountered (e.g., Norton, 2016; Song, 2016; Wolff & de Costa, 2017). One’s identity, as asserted by Wenger (1998), lies in the way one’s identity is lived day-to-day “amid the tension between our investment in the various forms of belonging and our ability to negotiate the meanings that matter in those contexts” (p. 188).

In light of these developments in the field and the multiple insights gained from myriad theoretical approaches, identity work of a language teacher involves cognition, agency, and individual interpretations of the experiences in particular contexts and cultures in which they are embedded. With this evolving understanding, L2 teacher identity can begin to be viewed as inherently socially-situated but not ‘passively’ subject to contextual influences—and therefore able to be intentionally influenced and shaped (De Costa & Norton, 2017). L2 teachers may be regarded as individuals who agentively construct their sense of self and make sense of the world through the filters of their own unique cognitions and social contexts, both of which are dynamic across time and place. As Olsen (2011) stated, “teacher identity opens up the diversity of everyone for scrutiny” (p. 267), suggesting the potential of identity as a research approach to address to examine the teachers’ diverse understandings of and attitudes toward English. Through the

lens of LTI, the thesis hopes to explore the complexities of being an English teacher and the ways they approach their work, which in turn can influence their students' learning as well as their own.

2.4.3 L2 English teachers from a global perspective

An emerging interest in L2 teacher identity is motivated by a number of concerns relevant to language teaching. Among these is the issues of power, status and legitimacy experienced by L2 teachers who have been positioned as non-native teachers of English (Varghese et al., 2005). Non-native English speaker identities, especially experiences of non-native English-speaking teachers in the TESOL profession, have over the past two decades been the focus of examination by a number of scholars (see Braine, 2010 for an overview). Consistent among the findings of this body of work is how Nativespeakerism has played an important role in the identity construction and development of the non-native language teachers. Many language teacher education programmes rely on a traditional native speaker model and do not adequately attend to non-native English speaker learners, bringing forth extant power relationships in the field of language education (e.g., Kamhi-Stein, 2009; Llurda, 2014; Mahboob, 2010; Matsuda, 2012).

In the era of globalisation where English is used as an international lingua franca in global language contact zones and multicultural spaces, a dualistic view of native and non-native English speakers has been called into question. Learning

English for the purpose of communicating in a global sphere now means learning new strategies as well as new ways of looking at oneself. For example, research has shown that participating in the EMI programme can contribute to students' and teachers' identity formation, providing them a learning space where the native speaker ideals are excluded from their ideal selves. It is also where their sense of multilingual and international identities is developed (Doiz & Lasagabaster, 2018; Henry, 2017). As learners and teachers move along different language learning journeys across settings and time frames, they are constructing new ways of relating their sense of self to the new worlds and new ways of expressing their identities through a new medium (Ushioda, 2013), bringing with them manifold identities reflecting the multiple roles, social groups, and settings with which they are connected.

The potential impact of globalisation on ELF identity construction has been examined from both the perspectives of learners (e.g., Sung, 2014, 2017) and teachers (e.g., Jenkins, 2007; Kumaravadivelu, 2012a; Pedrazzini & Nava, 2011). When using English in lingua franca contexts, L2 learners may be motivated by different reasons. Common findings suggest that while some L2 users wish for a global, cosmopolitan identity which affords them with a sense of connectedness and belonging to a global community, some may want to display their L1 identity by tailoring their English to pursue their local needs and interests (e.g., Canagarajah, 2005; Kirkpatrick, 2011; Sung, 2017; Ushioda, 2013). Research has also found that some L2 speakers intentionally maintain their L1 accent to convey

their local linguistic-cultural identity instead of conforming to the nativist ideals (Jenkins, 2015). It is also possible that some L2 speakers of English may identify with and thus become a member of both the global and local communities of practice, thereby forming hybrid identities when engaging in ELF communication (Pennycook, 2007).

As previously mentioned, recent conceptualisations of identity construction highlight it as complex, fluid, and always shifting throughout one's lifetime (Darvin & Norton, 2015; De Costa & Norton, 2017). As with any change, L2 learners and how they learn are unlikely to stay the same, which implies that teachers of English, especially those who were once learners themselves, cannot simply recycle the same English lessons with their own students. While the subject of teaching is still English, it is not the same English taught decades ago. The explosive growth of contexts where English along with other major languages are used as a lingua franca points to the needs to replace the native/non-native dichotomy with an approach in which linguistic practices enable language learners and teachers to assert their agency and feel empowered. Greater focus should be on preparing current and future practitioners for their profession with special attention to the teachers' diverse skills, linguistic resources, and transnational identities.

2.4.4 Vision of selves: a future aspect of language teachers' mental lives

While research has shown that what the language teachers think, know, and understand is a composite sum of their past and ongoing present experiences, what remains to be further investigated is how it relates to “what they are passionate about, who they yearn to become and how they negotiate” (Kubanyiova, 2012, p. 23). As Markus and Nurius (1986) explained, not all cognitions that have an impact on peoples' behavior are rooted in social reality. The hopes and desires for the future as well as their imagined identities are important facets of language teacher identities (Kanno and Norton, 2003). Elbaz (1981, 2005) also noted it was of great importance that one understands how teachers' perceptions of proposed reforms influence the successful implementation of curricula. Given the key role of teachers' identity in the process of implementing Global Englishes language teaching in language classrooms, in this study Kubanyiova's (2009, 2012) the concept of possible language teacher selves is used as an initial interpretative framework to explore the role of the EFL teachers' imagined image of themselves in the future and the way in which it relates to what they do, or plan to do, in the classroom. This section sets out to explore language teachers' identity goals in relation to the teachers' sense-making of and their decision to incorporate Global Englishes in their instructional practices.

Making sense of LTC through the possible selves theory

Language teacher identity comprises multiple selves existing in the present and in the future. By examining the content of different aspects of self and the degree to which teachers identify with each of these self-related aspects, one can arrive at values, beliefs, expectations, and aspirations that the teachers have strongly held as their core identities. According to Markus and Nurius (1986), possible selves are a future-oriented self-concept that includes expected selves, hoped for selves and feared future selves. They are individualised but are also socially constructed, providing “a context of additional meaning for the individual’s current behavior” (Markus & Nurius, 1986, p. 955). Closely interrelated with the theory of possible selves was a similar self-concept called self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987; Strauman & Higgins, 1987). The main argument of self-discrepancy theory is that different types of self-discrepancies are connected with specific emotions. People feel a particular type of emotion when they compare their current self with their ideal/ought-to selves. For example, one may feel disappointed when the ideal self they possess does not match with their actual self.

Linked with specific plans and strategies, one key element of possible selves theory lies in its motivational potential. In other words, possible selves can function as motivators to guide one’s behavior and action toward what one would like to become and away from what he/she is afraid of becoming. For possible selves to exert motivational impact on a person, different conditions must be in place. These

conditions include, for example, elaborated and salient possible selves that feel psychologically close are more motivationally powerful than the future selves that feel psychologically distant (Wilson & Ross, 2001).

The concept of possible selves has been applied in research in various fields including the ESL/EFL motivation research. In the field of ESL/EFL, the concept of possible selves has been mainly applied to studies on motivation of learners since Dörnyei developed the L2 Motivational Self System (Dörnyei, 2009; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011), which has reconceptualised the way motivation may be understood. Based on their empirical findings (Dörnyei, Csizér, & Németh, 2006) and drawing on the theories of 'possible selves' (Higgins, 1987) in mainstream psychology, Dörnyei (2009) suggests that concept of ideal L2 self would be better able to explain complex and dynamic nature of L2 learning than the concept of integrativeness which has not been able to explain the learning situation in many contexts. The model consists of 3 main parts: 1) **Ideal L2 Self** denotes the person we would like to become and acts as a powerful motivator; 2) **Ought-to L2 Self** refers to the attributes we believe we ought to possess to avoid negative outcomes; and 3) **L2 Learning Experience** concerns executive motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience. The underlying hypothesis is that if proficiency in L2 is deeply rooted in one's ideal or ought-to self, this will be a powerful motivating factor to learn the target language, accounting for our psychological desire to fill in or decrease the gap between current and future possible selves.

Along with a majority of empirical studies with possible selves theory as a theoretical lens being carried out in the realm of students' language learning, a growing volume of work using the theory in teacher education in general (e.g., Hamman, Gosselin, Romano, and Bunuan, 2010; Ronfeldt & Grossman, 2008) and language teacher research (e.g., Doiz and Lasagabaster, 2016; Hiver, 2013; Kubanyiova, 2009, 2012) reflects the powerful role of these future self guides in unearthing the teachers' cognition, pedagogical actions and the ways in which students' learning experiences are shaped by them. Studying what motivates language teachers to act the way they do can therefore bring to light an affective aspect of language teacher cognition, offering a fuller picture of not only their cognitions but also who they are.

Over the past years have seen researchers exploring teacher motivation employing possible selves theory in in different contexts (e.g., Hiver, 2013; Kubanyiova, 2007, 2009, 2012). Kubanyiova's (2007, 2009, 2012) study focused on the development of self-concepts in L2 eight teachers in Slovakia. Using grounded theory ethnography, she investigated how different language teacher selves influenced their pedagogical strategies and the overall development as English teachers. In line with the L2 motivational self system, Kubanyiova (2009) proposed the Possible Language Teacher Self framework. Based on possible selves theory (Markus & Nurius, 1986), which suggested that "not all cognitions that affect peoples' behavior are anchored in the social reality," but rather "constitute an

important imagined future dimension that transcends direct experience and functions as an incentive for development and change” (Kubanyiova, 2009, p. 315), the Possible Language Teacher Self framework displays the future dimension of language teachers’ cognition in three forms:

(1) *Ideal Language Teacher Self* refers to the self which the teacher would like to attain, involving identity goals and aspirations. Theoretically speaking, teachers will be motivated to make their best effort to diminish a gap between their actual and ideal teaching selves;

(2) *Ought-to Language Teacher Self* refers to “the language teachers’ cognitive representations of their responsibilities and obligations with regard to their work; this may involve latent expectations of colleagues, parents and students as well as the normative pressures of the school rules and norms” (p. 316); and

(3) *Feared Language Teacher Self* refers to the person into whom the teachers could turn given that the ideals or perceived obligations are not fulfilled.

Emerging from the data was a strong connection between teachers’ motivation and their various language teaching-related self-concepts. Ideal Language Teacher Self, for instance, was found to be prevalent in teachers’ mental lives and have an impact on their classroom practices. The personal meanings the teachers attached to their engagement in a teacher development program can be best understood through “an overarching metaphor of their socially-constructed, personally meaningful, and vivid images of who they would like to become, felt they

ought to become, or feared they might become" (Kubanyiova, 2016, p. 102). Insights into the content of the participants' possible selves can enhance our understanding of the teachers' conceptual changes, the impact of which can potentially extend to a broader, more practical context.

Ideal self as a powerful predictor of teacher actions

Kubanyiova (2012) contends that, in addition to a well-established assumption in language teacher cognition that what teachers know and believe influences what they do in classroom, it is also who they see when they imagine themselves in the future that constitutes their pedagogical actions. Not only do these future images of oneself make up one of the many cognitions language teachers have with regard to their work but they also are "at the very core" (Kubanyiova, 2016, p. 102) of how the teachers give meaning, purpose, and direction to their action. Ideal language teacher self has been shown to play an important role in shaping the teachers' classroom practices in various contexts. For instance, in Doiz and Lasagabaster's (2016) study, three group discussions were arranged to explore the adapted version of L2 motivational self system (Dörnyei, 2009) of university teachers working in the English-medium instruction (EMI) settings from three different faculties. Adapting Dörnyei's (2009) and Kubanyiova's (2012) conceptual frameworks, Doiz and Lasagabaster (2016) came up with EMI Teacher Motivational Self. Findings indicated that the Ideal EMI teacher self played a key role among EMI teachers. Acknowledged of the

impossibility to attain the Ideal EMI teacher self (the L2 speaker who speaks the L2 like a native), most of the teachers aimed for the more realistic local ideal EMI teacher self for whom English functioned as a lingua franca. Here, ELF acted as a motivating factor that allowed these teachers to "leave their complexes aside and managed to come through as a confident communicator in English" (p. 141). This has a clear implication for the institutional policies that can better capitalize in these teachers' interests. More studies of this kind in different contexts are also needed.

To summarise, language teacher identity does not always situate in what they do in the classroom "here-and-now" but also in the future aspect of who they aspire or think they ought to be. In essence, the kinds of teachers who they imagine themselves to be are tightly associated with the teachers' past (language learning and teaching experiences) and present actions (Kubanyiova, 2012). Research in teacher education have shown how visions of themselves as future English teachers can act as motivators for the teachers. The extent to which the teacher invests in these future-oriented self-images may also determine what they do professionally. To make sense of teachers' cognitions and actions which together form their experience, all aspects of life that make up the language teachers' identity need to be accounted for since being a language teacher is an ongoing process of negotiating one's position "at the crossroad of the past, present, and future" (Block, 2014, p. 32). Believing that what the teacher knows and understands has a direct correlation to the way teachers teach their students, this

study specifically considers the question of what attributes the teachers perceive as constituting an 'ideal' English language teacher and the extent to which these perceptions are aligned with the image of language teachers advocated by Global Englishes.

2.4.5 Summary

As made clear by Mercer and Williams (2014), the most comprehensive picture of the self can only be obtained through a combination of insights from a vast array of theoretical stances. Bringing together all magnitudes of how the teachers see themselves reveals just how vast and complex an individual's sense of self is, and how it spans across time to incorporate their experiences in the past, their hopes for the future, and the present moment they are living. The teacher was by no mean a "neutral player in the classroom" (Varghese et al., 2005, p. 22). In most EFL classrooms, teachers are often the gatekeepers of classroom content and delivery methods; they control what aspects of language are practiced and how learning outcomes are realised. Teachers act as role models, guiding the students throughout the learning journey. Language teachers also, as echoed by Hayes (2016), "exercise their own agency, have their own strongly held views of themselves as teachers, and are not merely passive instruments of larger political forces, unknowingly colluding in the linguistic-imperialist enterprise of English language teaching" (p. 57). Apparently, to come to a fuller understanding of

language teaching and learning, we need to “have a clearer sense of who they are: the professional, cultural, political, and individual identities which they claim or which are assigned to them” (Varghese et al., 2005, p. 22). Taken together, it seems clear that the teachers’ sense of identity is closely interconnected with the concept of language teacher cognition (Miller, 2009), and thus a key aspect to include in our current exploration. To reflect the complex and diverse nature of the construct under investigation, the terms ‘self’ and ‘identity’ are used interchangeably throughout the thesis.

Kubanyiova (2012) pointed out that one of the problems associated with research carried out in language teacher cognition domain is our tendency “to focus on measuring isolated constructs in an isolated manner without setting them in a big picture of who the teachers are” (p. 23). While the topic of language teacher identity had in recent years made its way into the realm of applied linguistics, it has not been sufficiently addressed in the research domain of Global Englishes. The current study seeks to address this by adopting language teacher identity as an organising lens via which the interplay between the EFL teachers’ cognition of English, their professional development as a language teacher, and the uptake of globally-informed approaches to English language teaching will be illuminated.

2.5 Chapter summary and implications for research

To understand the experience of EFL teachers today when English (or Englishes) has claimed the status of a global language, three major areas of

literature pertaining to the thesis' focus were reviewed. First, the chapter outlined key concepts and theories that underpin the field of Global Englishes before moving on to introducing the GELT framework (Galloway & Rose, 2015; Rose & Galloway, 2019) and the proposals for change in ELT practice. Then, it examines research on stakeholders' attitudes toward calls for change that have been push forward through a language teacher cognition lens. The chapter then provided an overview of key arguments in language teacher identity research, highlighting the synergies between language teacher cognition and language teacher identity. By taking a language teacher identity approach along with a special focus on the possible selves theories, the chapter widens the investigation to explore the implications of Global Englishes on the teachers' cognition of English and development as a language teaching professional.

Prior research on pre-service language teacher education has yielded valuable insights into the nature of prospective teachers' cognitions and of the ways in which these are shaped by their prior learning experience in schools, their experiences of teacher education, and their initial teaching experience, suggesting that studying these experiences is important as it provides *a better understanding of the factors which shape teachers' mental lives* (Borg, 2015, p. 325). While a good number of previous studies have reported on attitudes toward Global Englishes-informed innovation ideas, the impact remains limited since most studies of this character have been focusing on school and university students' attitudes toward

the innovation (e.g., Ahn & Kang, 2017, in South Korea; He & Zhang, 2010, in China; Takahashi, 2017, in Japan), only two of which (He & Zhang, 2010; Takahashi, 2017) also involved teachers' attitudes. In the context of Thailand, attitudes toward English as a topic of research have largely been limited to those of learners (Baker, 2009, 2012a, 2012b; Boonsuk, 2016; Snodin & Young, 2015; Ploywattanawong and Trakulkasemsuk, 2014; Jindapitak and Teo, 2012).

There are also very few studies conducted on teachers (e.g., Buckingham, 2015, on in-service teachers in Oman; Galloway & Numajiri, 2020, on pre- and in-service teachers in the UK; Lee, Lee, & Drajeti, 2019, on pre-service teachers in Indonesia; Si, 2019, on in-service teachers in Business English programme in China). Within the context of Thai English language education, except for Huttayavilaiphan's (2019) research on Thai university teachers' beliefs about English language teaching and its relationship to their awareness of Global Englishes and Prabjandee's (2020) study on teachers' attitudes toward GELT before and after participating in the GELT teacher professional development, published research on teachers' attitudes towards Global Englishes innovation ideas, especially with an exclusive focus on in-service teachers who are currently teaching in actual classrooms, remains rare.

Although a considerable number of LTE-situated studies and classroom-based research have emerged to explore the impact of advocated proposals in teaching practice in order to narrow the theory-practice gap, more studies on teachers' existing attitudes toward innovation ideas are needed to bridge the gap

in communication and understanding between the innovators – i.e., scholars proposing the change – and the student-facing teachers in mainstream language classrooms who are the potential receivers of the innovation. Resonating with Sifakis and Bayyurt's (2015) key takeaways from implementing ELF-aware teacher education, the current study sets out on the premise that for the paradigmatic change to be effective and sustainable, prescribing a particular teaching methodology or even a specific curriculum should be avoided. In this regard, the current study contributes to the literature by involving currently practicing teachers whose insights on the 'real-life' teaching contexts gained in the face of actual challenges can inform research and bring about a meaningful change in ELT.

Further, upon looking at research on language teachers' attitudes toward Global Englishes (including ELF, EIL and World Englishes) innovations, surveys dominate (e.g., Boonsuk, 2016; Buckingham, 2015; Lee, Lee, & Drajati, 2019). Interviews had been used in some (e.g., Galloway & Numajiri, 2019; Si, 2019) but a paucity of observation was evident. Of all the studies focused on language teacher cognition of Global Englishes/ELF, only a few (e.g., Huttayavilaiphan, 2019; He & Zhang, 2010; Takahashi, 2017; Young et al., 2016; Zacharias, 2005) resorted to multiple data collection methods, including classroom observations. To date, the only empirical studies examining language teachers' cognition of English in the Thai context have relied on questionnaires and interview data (e.g., Boonsuk, 2016; Prabjandee, 2020; Young et al., 2016). Lacking are classroom observations to

provide a holistic picture of teachers' practices in natural classroom dynamics. According to Borg (2015), since evidence of one's cognition does not exist as a static entity and consequently cannot be readily accessed via a single method of elicitation, a variety of elicitation instruments should be employed in language cognition research. With these suggestions in mind and an aim to build a fuller account of LTC, this study sees observation of actual practices as mandatory and cannot be dissociated from the acts of inquiry. More studies are clearly needed in order to gain an in-depth understanding of the EFL teachers' cognition of English, their professional development as a language teacher, and the uptake of globally-informed approaches to English language teaching from the perspectives of the teachers.

3

Methodology

3.1 Introduction

Previous chapters provided an overview of substantial issues that form a major focus of the current study. This chapter proceeds onto the description of and justification for the study's methodology. First, the overall design is discussed and the rationale behind the selected methodological approach provided. It then outlines the research context and explains the participant selection process before giving detailed descriptions of research procedures, data collection methods, and data analysis. The chapter ends with a discussion of validating strategies, ethical challenges, and the role of the researcher in the study. The following are the research questions addressed in this study:

- RQ1 What are the teachers' ideological views on English and the extent to which these views are realised in their practices?

- RQ2 How do the teachers develop and enact their L2 teacher identities from a Global Englishes perspective?

- RQ3 How do the teachers interpret globally-oriented initiatives in light of their teaching contexts?

3.2 Overall approach and rationale

3.2.1 An ethnographic approach

A growing recognition in applied linguistics of how social, cultural, and situational factors play an important role in shaping the various aspects of language acquisition (Duff, 2008) has rendered qualitative methodology an ideal choice for “providing insights into such contextual conditions and influences” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 36). When embarking on an inquiry into new and relatively uncharted areas where little is known about the issues (Eisenhardt, 1989, as cited in Dörnyei, 2007), researchers may decide to use qualitative methodology as a tool to arrive at an in-depth understanding of the “meaning in the particular” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 27). To allow for an in-depth picture of teachers’ mental processes as well as other contextual variables to emerge, qualitative methodology is deemed most suitable. In situating the concepts surrounding Global Englishes in English language teaching within the Language Teacher Cognition framework (Borg, 2015a), it is evident that researching a concept as complex and unobservable as teachers’ cognition calls for a research design that combines deep insights from multiple sources of data so as to gain trustworthy results.

Although the study draws on theoretical concepts in Global Englishes, a sub-field within the larger applied linguistics arena, it is methodologically grounded in ethnography. It is ethnographic in that it is an in-depth study conducted in situ for an extended period of time, allowing the researcher to enter the participants' world to "hear, see, and to begin to experience reality as participants do" (Marshall & Rossman, 2006, p. 100). While the time spent on doing an ethnographic research in the field of anthropology is usually a minimum of a complete year or several years, in applied linguistics this extensive timeframe often means for the duration of a course or an academic year. Because applying an ethnographic lens to studying language practices can "provide great data for understanding cultural traditions and values, social structures and relations, and individuals' cognitive processes of meaning negotiation as well as their emotions, attitudes, and subjectivities" (Wei, 2019, p. 158), recent years have seen a growing number of studies in applied linguistics and language education using ethnographic perspectives as an analytical framework across a wide array of topics, from specific language tasks (e.g., Starfield, Paltridge, & Tardy, 2016) to the relationship between learning experiences and identity development (e.g., Duff, 2002; Hornberger, 1988) to linguistic and cultural and cultural diversity in contemporary contexts (e.g., Blackledge & Creese, 2010; Heller, 2006). Kubanyiova (2016) also highlights how using ethnography in researching identity-relevant constructs can be intellectually and pedagogically beneficial in that it allows "for moving the analysis beyond the face value of what participants say by paying close attention to what they do and

strive to achieve across multiple contexts of meaning-making in their social worlds” (p. 104). In resonance with what the literature has suggested, the present study is designed to employ an ethnographic approach to explore teacher cognition of English, its connection to L2 professional identity development, as well as the teachers’ interpretation of Global Englishes-informed curricula and the way Global Englishes can potentially be represented in EFL classroom practices.

While giving a clear-cut definition for qualitative research seems a difficult task (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Silverman, 2005; Holliday, 2004), there exists a fundamental set of features that would constitute a properly conducted ethnographic qualitative study (Dörnyei, 2007, Fetterman, 2010; Wolcott, 2008). Ethnography is a research design which focuses on developing a complete description of the shared and learned patterns of values, behaviours, beliefs, and language of a culture-sharing group – a “bounded unit” (Harklau, 2005) – that involves many people who interact over time (Harris, 1968, as cited in Creswell, 2013). It involves extended observations of the group through first-hand observations and interviews in a natural setting. Ethnographic researchers look for patterns of the group’s mental activities, such as ideas and beliefs expressed via language, and material activities, such as behaviours expressed through actions observed by the researcher. In ethnography, theories may be consulted together with extensive fieldwork where multiple types of data are collected to provide a framework for the inquiry. Primary forms of data usually include interviews,

observations, the researcher's diary with field notes and journal entries, and content analysis of artefacts. Ethnographic studies aim to produce a holistic cultural interpretation – the group's descriptions and themes related to the theoretical concepts being explored. This interpretation is derived from a synthesis of the data gained from the participants' insider emic perspective and those of the researchers' etic viewpoint (Fetterman, 2010, Wolcott, 2008).

The strengths of the ethnographic qualitative design lie in, according to Hornberger (1994), its potential not only to depict complicated constructs previously unknown but also to bring into focus the whole picture that “leaves nothing unaccounted for and that reveals the interrelatedness of all the component parts (p. 688). It also permits triangulation of findings from different methods, provides clarification of one method's results using the other method, and helps expand the range of inquiry to achieve more comprehensive answers to research questions (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Dörnyei, 2007). The goal of an ethnographic qualitative approach is to deeply understand not only a phenomenon but also the particular social contexts from the participants' point of views (Harklau, 2005). Based on the premises that the real meaning lies within individuals who are unique and different and that multiple meanings exist to be discovered, the study is also in line with Ushioda's (2011) person-in-context relational view in which emphasis lies on “the agency of the individual person as a thinking, feeling human being, with an identity, a personality, a unique history and background, with goals, motives and intentions” (p. 13). In the context of the study,

the teachers' cognition of English will be approached in terms of their personal and professional identities in hope to "capture the mutually constitutive relationship between persons and the contexts in which they act – a relationship that is dynamic, complex and non-linear" (Ushioda, 2009, p. 218).

3.2.2 A multiple case study approach

In line with the rationales behind selecting an ethnographic approach as a means to maximise our insight into the phenomenon under investigation, the present study adopts a 'multiple case study' (Stake, 1995, 2006; Rose, McKinley, & Briggs Baffoe-Djan, 2019) approach as a method of collecting and organising data. Rose, McKinley, and Briggs Baffoe-Djan (2019) noted that case study research in applied linguistics may fall into one of the following categories: 1) *an intriguing case study* where the primary focus of the research is the 'peculiarities' of the case; 2) *a typical case study* in which the primary focus is the event, and the case assumes secondary significance; and 3) *a multiple case study*, where emphasis is placed on the event itself and multiple perspectives are needed for variability to be accurately represented. Primarily concerned with exploring the cognition of 'typical' Thai EFL university teachers with regards to the English language and its pedagogy from multiple viewpoints, the present study adopts a (typical) multiple case design, whereby Thai EFL teachers working in higher educational settings constitute the unit of analysis and the primary analytical attention is given to the phenomenon of

interest, rather than the individual cases: these teachers' cognition of English, their language teacher selves' formation, and the extent to which these constructs are related to how the teachers interpret and operationalise Global Englishes-informed initiatives in their language classrooms.

According to Dörnyei (2007), almost anything, from people to an institution to a social phenomenon, can be defined as cases providing that they “[constitute] a single entity with clearly defined boundaries” (p. 151). In a multiple case study, several cases in one or more sites are studied in combination to “provide insight into a particular issue, redraw generalizations, or build theory” (Grandy, 2009) using a variety of data collection methods in order to understand the object of investigation (Moore, Lapan, & Quartaroli, 2012). Researchers using a multiple case study research design collect data from multiple cases and as a result develop rich descriptions of patterns. Large amounts of data from real-life contexts must be carefully coded in order to enable researchers to generate new theories (theory-building) or support explanations (theory-testing) (Yin, 2014). Case studies as part of a qualitative research tradition are characteristically, as mentioned by Dörnyei (2007), “capable of documenting and analysing the situated, contextual influences...as well as the subtle variations in learner and teacher identities that emerge during the language learning/teaching process” (p. 154), making it suitable for utilisation in a research domain as contextually and topically diverse as language teacher cognition.

Drawing on Borg's (2015) language teacher cognition framework and Kubanyiova's possible Language Teacher Selves (2009, 2012), the case research design enables me to explain emerging themes from the data in real-world environments. It looks at two higher education institutions in Thailand where courses in English language undergraduate English courses are offered. Purposive sampling is used to ensure that the sites provide ample opportunities to explore the research questions. Triangulation of data sources (e.g., semi-structured interviews, class observations, focus group discussions, examination of instructional materials) is also employed to ensure thick description and the findings' trustworthiness (Stake, 1995). Instead of statistical generalisation where results are generalised to populations, the main goal of the study is to aim for 'analytical generalisation' where previously developed theory is used as an analytical basis for the empirical results (Duff, 2008). While case studies have the potential to develop new theory, the decision that underpins the selection of the method has more to do with my intention as a researcher to use the case as a facilitative tool in understanding a particular phenomenon in depth and as a "comparative point across other cases in which the phenomenon might be present" (Grandy, 2009). This way the results on the specifics related to the research questions can be presented in ways that allow the reader to see the transferability of the case findings.

While the study is informed by combined perspectives of ethnography and case study approach in a number of ways, it must be noted that the manner with which both of these research designs have been adopted in the study is more flexible than is traditionally the case in social sciences and other related disciplines. That is, case study and ethnographic approaches are being used as vehicles to explore themes within a phenomenon, rather than presenting data organised around the lived experiences of the participants. Nevertheless, although the study does not fully conform to the common expectations surrounding what ethnographic studies or case study research should traditionally entail, it does not deviate from the way these research designs are commonly used in the field of applied linguistics and language education. Primarily, the study is ethnographic and case study oriented in the sense that it is an in-depth research conducted in situ for an extended period of time. While the time spent on doing an ethnographic and case study research in the field of anthropology is usually a minimum of a complete year or several years, in applied linguistics this extensive timeframe often means for the duration of a course or an academic year (Duff, 2019).

Ethnographic and case study research approaches can also be used to explore not only people or institutions but also social phenomena. For example, of particular relevance to applied linguistics and language education is the use of ethnography in new literacy studies (e.g., Heath, 1983; Street, 1984; Gee, 2007) to examine literacy as a social practice where analytical emphasis is placed on how the local literacy 'events' and the broader socio-political structures are related

(Wei, 2019). Similarly, case study research has also been used in applied linguistics to illustrate a specific phenomenon or “cluster of phenomena” of interest that the case exemplifies (Duff, 2019). With regards to reporting on findings of a case study research in applied linguistics, Duff (2019) argued that case studies, while allowing us opportunities to learn more about the lives of our participants, “are designed not just to introduce readers to participants, but to advance knowledge of a more theoretical and more general nature” (p. 150), encouraging case study researchers instead to examine how cases can help illuminate “the complex factors affecting linguistic behaviours, processes of learning or demonstrated performance, beliefs, identities”. In this regard, writing up a case study research needs not follow its presentation of data where individual cases are introduced one by one and explicated in great detail throughout the discussion. Alternatively, should we wish to highlight the phenomenon the case represents, a greater emphasis on presenting the case study findings in relation to the overall themes emerging from the thematic analysis is also an appropriate use of the method.

Given its focus on the teacher cognition of English as the social phenomenon of interest, this study is in keeping with the spirit of both ethnographic studies and case study research in its orientation. It is ethnographically informed in a sense that its key purpose is to offer more nuanced understandings of “the meaning of specific practices or of a phenomenon in the community in question” (Wei, 2019, p. 157). It also resonates with the practice of case study research in that the study

aims to yield rich detailed understandings of Thai EFL teachers' cognition of English as a whole phenomenon through the perspectives of the teachers who actually live it (Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2013), and not necessarily to paint portraits of individual teachers in their communities of practice.

3.3 Structure of the study

The study is divided into two phases. The first phase is exploratory in nature, involving focus groups which serves a double purpose: to provide a preliminary data concerning the cognition of Thai EFL teachers about the ideology of English and the perceptions of their professional selves for the subsequent individual "deep interviews" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 146) and to explore the site contexts as well as identify potential participants for the main study (Morgan, 1997). Focus groups were conducted at two universities, which includes University A and University B, to obtain group information about the Thai in-service EFL teachers' feelings, perceptions, and opinions towards Englishes in two context-specific settings. Data obtained were then coded and categorised to uncover patterns and themes in participants' shared cognitions.

Preliminary findings from the focus group phase provided a base for the main study phase, comprising a total of seven in-depth case studies from both universities (four from University A and three from University B). The purpose of the main study is to investigate the research questions in greater detail, using two major data sources: in-depth, semi-structured individual interviews and class

observations. The individual interviews, which were conducted throughout one academic term, are of two types: a life history interview to obtain a detailed description of the teachers' English language learning experience; and several post-observation interviews with each teacher to address specific topics that emerge during classroom activities and other relevant issues related to the study's research questions. Data collection timeframe¹ was from August 2017 to March 2018. Figure 3.1 displays a conceptual diagram of this design in the current study.

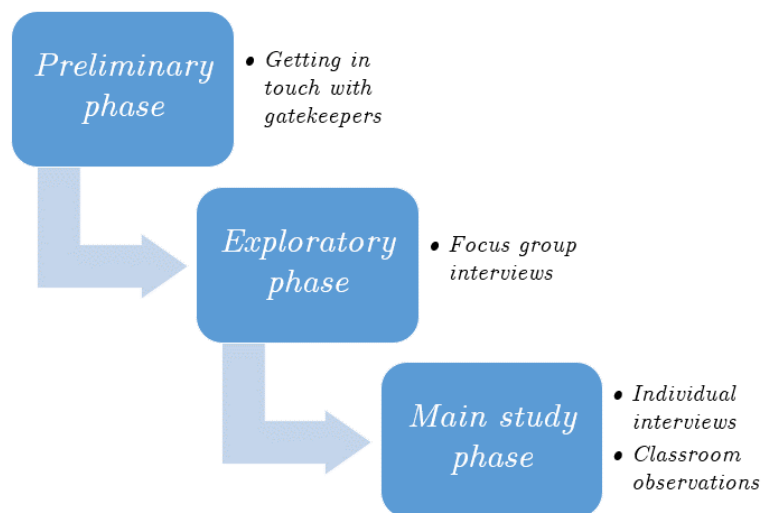


Figure 3.1: Research design

¹ The majority of data were collected during the academic term, which lasted from August to December 2017, followed by a follow-up interview conducted in March 2018.

3.4 Research context: Higher education in Thailand

This study is situated in the Thai higher education system, which comprises two major types of universities: public and private. Within the public university system, higher education institutions are further divided into public, autonomous, and Rajabhat universities.

The study is conducted at two public universities from different categories: one autonomous university and one Rajabhat university. According to History of Thai Higher Education (n.d), autonomous universities, unlike public universities that rely solely on the government annual budget for operation, enjoy the autonomy of self-governance, managing their own administrative structure and budgeting system. Autonomous university employees are subject to rules and entitled to privileges set by the university itself. This type of university, however, still receives government financial support in the form of block grants. Out of a total of 310 universities in Thailand, currently there are 26 autonomous universities (Office of the Higher Education Commission, 2015).

Like autonomous universities, Rajabhat universities have the same right and authority to provide higher education to the general public. They also receive funding (in the form of categorical grants) from the government. Each has its own council responsible for the general administration of the institution similar to that of autonomous universities. However, while having been granted the 'university' status and financial support, Rajabhat universities differ from the autonomous

universities in terms of their main missions, which involve providing academic and higher vocational training for the local communities (Office of the prime minister, 2004). In order to serve and improve educational opportunities for local communities in different regions of Thailand, a total of 39 Rajabhat universities (as of September 2015) are grouped into eight regional clusters scattered across big cities throughout the country.

Different higher education environments present teachers with very different opportunities and challenges. Given that the contextual factors and the teachers' professional experience in one type of school could affect and inform their cognition on the subject matter they teach, their identities (personal and professional), and their teaching approaches, conducting research in the research sites from different types of universities within these higher education systems therefore offers the possibility of gathering a wide range of perceptions and experiences. Thus, it is important that these be taken into consideration when drafting a sampling plan, which is outlined later in this chapter.

3.4.1 Brief descriptions of research sites

The first site, hereinafter referred to as 'University A', is an autonomous university located in a large suburban town near Bangkok. A co-educational higher education institution, the university offers several degree courses in a variety of disciplines and programs with student enrolment of 25,000-30,000 (7% of which

are international). Originally founded as a medical school, University A has a long-standing reputation in medicine and sciences but has also diversified to offer courses and programs in liberal arts, social sciences, and interdisciplinary studies. As is the case with other autonomous universities in Thailand, English has begun to gain more prominence at policy level in University A reflecting its effort in internationalisation. Thanks to the newly revised language policies, the university has formed partnerships and carried out regular activities with over 350 institutions across the world. It also takes part in a number of regional programs, such as the ASEAN University Network's Human Rights Education Network, and collaborates with other ASEAN countries on the development of a joint curriculum in English with transfers between universities.

The second site, University B, is a Rajabhat university, a non-profit, local public higher education institution located in the suburban setting of Bangkok with the undergraduate student population of 16,000-20,000. It was initially founded as a teacher training college in charge of producing qualified school-level teachers and providing support for the local communities. The university status was granted after the "Rajabhat University Act of 2004" was enacted, which allowed University B to function as an independent university but still under the supervision of the Higher Education Commission. Similar to University A, University B offers courses and programs leading to officially recognised higher education degrees in many areas of study, including sciences, humanities, and social sciences. The university also seeks to internationalise by partnering with international universities but

needs to do so while balancing the founding objective of serving the local community.

University A and University B have some shared characteristics but also some crucial differences. Both University A and University B offer a four-year Bachelor of Arts degree programme in English language. Thai generally serves as a medium of instruction at both institutions, except in international programmes at University A where courses run exclusively in English. Graduates from University A's English undergraduate programme receive a Bachelor of Arts degree in English (B.A. in English) while those pursuing a Bachelor of Arts degree at University B have two curricular options: they can enrol either in Bachelor of Arts Program in English and receive a "B.A. in English" or in Bachelor of Arts Programme in Business English and receive a "B.A. in Business English" upon graduation. Teaching staff at both universities comprise Thai nationals and English-speaking foreigners, with the former generally accounting for approximately three-quarter of total staff number. While not stated anywhere in the curricular policy, English as a medium of instruction (EMI) is highly valued and espoused in practice at University A. This was rarely the case at University B. Both universities also offer courses in a wide array of disciplines. The difference is that courses offered at University A are tailored toward students seeking employment or educational opportunities in academia and/or high-paying jobs upon graduation. University B, on the other

hand, focuses more on skill-based courses with emphasis on practical applications in students' local communities.

Although University A and University B are both fully accredited by the Thai government's Commission on Higher Education of the Ministry of Education, these two universities contrast most clearly in terms of institutional profile and mission. While admission to both universities is open to public, admission policies at autonomous universities like University A are much more competitive than those of Rajabhat university system. Based on the Thai University Central Admission System ("Thai university," n.d.), a new university admission procedure recently launched in 2018, the minimum accumulated grade point average (GPAX) in students' secondary education required by University A (and most autonomous universities) is 3.0 (B) whereas Rajabhat universities only require a GPAX of 2.0 (C) or for some faculties no test scores are required at all. It could therefore be assumed that students who do not perform well in school would likely to apply for a placement at Rajabhat universities while high-achieving students with higher overall test scores would go to autonomous universities (Grubbs, Chaengploy, & Worawong, 2009). This difference in student demographics and aptitude has led to a common perception among Thai people in which autonomous universities are considered of higher standard and more prestigious than Rajabhat universities. It must be noted that although the students' academic background was not included in the study's research site selection criteria, these institutional similarities and differences may influence the teachers' cognition of English in relation to their

teaching practices, and are as such acknowledged as a potential limitation to the interpretation of results.

3.4.2 Rationale for site selection

The two universities are chosen based on course offering, data accessibility, and commitment to internationalisation. Both offer taught degrees in the English subject (bachelors and masters) to undergraduate as well as graduate students. In terms of data accessibility, my former position as a university lecturer in Thailand had allowed me to build up a network of contacts, enabling me to obtain permission to conduct the research and gain access to potential teacher participants. This insider position also facilitated data collection procedures which involved methods such as interviews and classroom observations conducted over an extended period of time and therefore required frequent site visits. The resulting rich data made it possible to investigate the situation in depth.

Further, to identify trends and patterns in the participants' perceptions, gathering data from more than one type of institution allows for cross-case comparison (Eisenhardt, 1989, as cited in Dörnyei, 2007) in which the teachers' wider social context can be better understood than if only one institution is used. Lastly, both universities were selected on the basis of their commitment to internationalising their educational mission as stated in their strategy plans. The development of new strategic plans in which the universities actively pursued

contacts with overseas universities and promoted collaborative activities including student and faculty exchange, joint training programs, academic conferences and seminars, plus other types of academic cooperation, seemed to be an encouraging indication of the adoption of English as a working language within this higher education context. To turn these plans into a reality, concrete steps were expected to be taken and greater exposure to English at all institutional levels was more likely, allowing for rich data on the EFL teachers' cognition of English to emerge.

3.5 Data collection methods

In keeping with typical characteristics of an ethnographic multiple case study project, data were collected and triangulated from multiple sources to enable conclusions about the study's research questions to be formed. The key data collection methods include: (1) focus groups, (2) individual in-depth interviews, and (3) field notes obtained from classroom observation. Instructional materials (e.g., textbooks, PowerPoint presentations, lesson plans, syllabi, class handouts, and other multimedia) were also reviewed to provide complementary data sources. The following sections describe in detail the participants, instruments, and procedures undertaken at each phase of the study.

3.5.1 Participants

Participants in the main study phase were recruited using a combination of criterion sampling, convenience sampling, and snowball sampling. First, a

'criterion sampling strategy' (Dörnyei, 2007), in which the selection of the participants is made on the basis of certain shared characteristics, was opted for focus group recruitment as it allowed me to create a permissive, non-threatening environment that encourages participants to share their thoughts on a certain topic. The rationale behind my decision was to target a group of Thai teachers of English as a foreign language, teaching in an undergraduate EFL program for English majors and non-majors at universities in Thailand.

In keeping with the research purpose of obtaining a broader range of perspectives as well as accessibility to the research sites, this study sought participants who are Thai lecturers teaching EFL undergraduate courses either at University A or University B. These participants were drawn from a total population of teachers within each university. One focus group was conducted at each university, with each group consisting of five to six teachers, following Krueger and Casey's (2015) recommendation that the group should be "small enough for everyone to share insights and yet large enough to provide diversity of perceptions" (p. 6). They also note that small groups of four to five afford participants more opportunity to share ideas. In the end, a total number of five teachers participated in the focus group at University A and six teachers took part in the focus group conducted at University B.

Regarding the convenience consideration, the participants for the individual interviews and classroom observations in the main study were selected

from those taking part in the focus groups. In addition, the teachers had to be willing to have their classes observed as well as to participate in the interviews that would take place afterward. Note also that participants took part on a voluntary basis. In other words, the teachers who participated in the focus group were asked to provide their contact details only if they would be willing to take part in the main study. At the end of focus groups, contact details were obtained from a total of four teachers (two from each university) with whom I started making contact to provide more information regarding the main study. After having been approached, these four teachers confirmed their participation in the main study through consent forms.

In accordance with Dörnyei's (2007) suggested number of cases for an interview study, I originally planned to identify approximately six to eight research participants, all of whom were selected from the focus groups. However, given the difficulty in organising more focus groups arising during the exploratory phase² and the desire to obtain a range of perspectives as wide as possible without transgressing the research time frame (by the end of September 2017, see table 3.3 for details), I decided to adopt a snowball sampling approach by asking the focus group participants with whom I had already become acquainted if they knew any

² Data collection coincided with the funeral cremation ceremony for Thailand's late King Bhumibol Adulyadej at the end of October 2017 when schools and universities shut due to several ad hoc public holidays. This resulted in several cancelled classes and rescheduling.

teacher who would be interested in the topic or could potentially participate in the main study. Following up these leads, I approached the potential participants individually (through both email and in person), explained the research topic and methodology, and asked if they would like to take part in the main study involving multiple individual interviews and classroom observations. In the end, two teachers from University A and one teacher from University B decided to participate in the main study.

The following table summarises the final number of participants for the main study:

Site	Focus group	Individual contact	Total
University A	2	2	4
University B	2	1	3
Total			7

Table 3-1: Summary of the final number of participants

When the number of participants were finalised, demographic information was obtained. These include names (pseudonyms were adopted for the protection of their identities when writing up a study report), teaching experiences (the number of years in service), levels and courses taught, and English language learning experience. Table 3.2 below summarises the demographic details of the seven teachers participating in the study.

	University A				University B		
	Nat	Tammy	Devin	Jane	Prim	Mandy	Owen
First formal English education	Kindergarten; private school	1st grade; private school	5th grade; public school	Kindergarten; private school	5th grade; public school	5th grade; public opportunity expansion school	1st grade; private school
Education abroad	No	No	UK (PhD)	UK (2-month summer course during undergrad, 8 years for Master and PhD)	No	One-year exchange in Malaysia during her PhD	No
Years of teaching experience (at the time of the interview)	5 years in total	3 years in total (including TA) volunteer teaching since 2002 (15 years)	10 years in total 6 years at University A (10 if including 4 years of academic leave); 4 years in school settings	~7 years in total 4 years at University A (10 if including 6 years of academic leave); 2 years prior to obtaining a TESOL degree 6 months prior to University A	26 years in total 17 years at University B 9 years in school settings	3 years in total at University B	7 years in total 6 years at University B 1 year in school settings
High-school Academic track	English-Japanese	English-Math	Science-Math	English-German	English-Math	English-French	English-Social studies
Bachelor's degree	English major, Drama minor	Business English, Business Chinese (minor)	Education (English)	International Relations	Teaching English (Teacher college) Note: her current workplace	Teaching English (teacher college)	Teaching English (teacher College) Note: his current workplace
Master's degree	English	Applied Linguistics (specialised in teaching)	English (part-time while working as a full-time high school teacher)	International Relations, TESOL	Applied Linguistics	Comparative Literatures	Master of Arts (English) under University B scholarship
PhD	Children Literature*	Curriculum Development*	English Literature	English language and Applied Linguistics	English Language Studies**	Comparative Literatures	Not yet

Notes: * At the time of the study, the teachers were applying for a doctoral programme abroad.

** The teacher was studying toward the qualification.

Table 3-2: Summary of the teachers' demographic information

3.5.2 Instruments

Focus group prompts

Developing the prompts

To answer research questions and achieve the optimal understanding of topics under study, questions used in the focus groups were developed based on review of past literature in the academic field of Global Englishes (Galloway & Rose, 2015) and language teacher cognition (Borg, 2015). For more detailed and useful data to be obtained, these questions were open-ended (Moore et al., 2012) yet carefully predetermined (Krueger & Casey, 2015), allowing the participants to express freely on aspects they see are of importance to them with the researcher's interference kept at minimum (Anderson, 1990; Fowler, 1995; Ho, 2006; Krueger & Casey, 2015). According to Grotjahn (1987), interview questions in focus group methodology function as an "exploratory-interpretative" tool that facilitates the emergence of data. The initial list comprised 21 questions in total (including one opening question and one closing question), exploring constructs such as general experience learning English, awareness of English varieties, English language teaching experience, goals of English language learning/teaching, and ideal English learning/teaching environment.

These questions were piloted and field-tested with two in-service EFL teachers currently on leave (not teaching at the moment of the study being

conducted) through separate Skype calls. These individuals were selected because they were not only already familiar with the context (undergraduate English language programmes) but also able to best identify with the content and structure of the questions. Where the participants struggled, wording was modified and questions added or deleted. The final focus group protocol (see Appendix A) was a set of 18 questions that were logically grouped together under six themes, moving from general to more focused questions to help the natural flow. These include: 1) English language learning experience (3 question items); 2) Awareness of English varieties (5 questions items); 3) Defining Standard English (1 question item); 4) Defining English as a global language (3 question items); 5) English language teaching practices (5 question items); and 6) Ideal English Language Learning/Teaching Environment (1 question item). The beginning questions were aimed at encouraging the teachers talking and thinking about the topic while subsequent questions sought to tap into specific information in terms of their own local pedagogical contexts. For this present study, I assumed the roles of both moderator and designer of the questioning route (Krueger & Casey, 2015) for the focus group discussions. The pilot was conducted in Thai.

Piloting focus group prompts in a group environment

Once the interview items were carefully adjusted taking into account the feedback received during the first pilot interview sessions, I contacted one of my colleagues who currently teaches in an English Language department in a Thai university to ask if I could conduct a pilot focus group at his/her institution.

Arrangement was made and four participants agreed to take part. Meeting dates and times were decided by the participants. During the pilot, the open-ended approach of a focus group enabled respondents to take on a directive role to share experience and attitudes without being limited in any way to the predetermined interview items. In this way, insightful responses were disclosed, and I was able to not only practice moderating a group discussion but also identify my own preconceived ideas as a researcher embodied through my reactions to the teachers' responses. This helped me become aware of my presupposition and adjust some of the interview items so that they are less likely to be inadvertently influenced by the interviewer's oversight or omission. For example, adjustments were made to the original phrasing of the question item that asked for a definition of the term 'English as a global language', on which the teachers commented as too abstract/technical and therefore might not work well for some teachers who may not be familiar with academic research. Instead of asking the teachers to define the term (Original question: "*What do you think is the definition of the term English as a Global Language?*"), I decided to rephrase and reframe the question in terms of the teachers' experiences for greater clarity ("*What is your perception of the English language today? Do you think it is the same or different from the English language you learned when you were younger?*").

Individual interview questions

While collective cognitions are the goals for the focus groups, what I attempted to elicit during individual interviews was each teacher's detailed individual beliefs about the issues already addressed in the focus groups and relevant topics that come up during their classroom sessions. While the information obtained from pre-observational interviews helped me build a general understanding about the participants before the observations, the questions in post-observational interviews were designed as a follow-up to expand on data from classroom observations during which a list of questions was produced real-time. After the first interview with individual teachers, I noticed that each teacher had his/her individual style in responding to questions and thus required a more personalised approach to interviewing. This had led me to adopt an interview guide in the form of a mind map to acquire new dimensions about each teacher, which were followed up as they emerged (Kubanyiova, 2012). Instead of a list of scripted interview questions, the mind map contains topics based on past literature or issues emerging from the focus group I would like to address (Appendix B). The mind map also served as a reminder of important issues that needed to be followed up in subsequent interviews with the teachers.

All the interview items were worded in Thai, the first language of both interlocutors, and audio-recorded to be transcribed afterwards. The information from the interview provided a profile of each participant's background in as well as beliefs about English and its pedagogy, perceptions of their own professional

identities, and the role these identities play in informing what they do in the classroom.

3.6 Research procedures

Table 3.3 below provides a brief overview of the data collection timeframe:

Preliminary Phase (August 2017)	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Get in touch with the gatekeepers • Pilot-test interview questions 	
Focus groups - Identifying Research Participants for the main study (September 2017)	
Week 1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pilot-test interview questions in a focus group setting • Arrange a meeting in person with the gatekeepers at the targeted institutions
Week 2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focus group interview at University A and B <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ University A: five teachers attended (three agreed to take part in the main study) ○ University B: six teachers attended (three agreed to take part in the main study)
Week 3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Familiarise myself in the field (visiting each university where I spent a day observing and talking to teachers who happened to be there on the day)
Week 4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Individual contact with potential participants • Total participants in the main study (7): <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ University A: 5 (3 from FG; 2 from individual contact) ○ University B: 4 (3 from FG; 1 from individual contact)
Fieldwork - Main Study Phase (October-November 2017) - 9 weeks	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • With participants: individual interviews (recordings) and classroom observations (field notes, researcher journal, audio recordings in some sessions) • With non- participant teachers and staff: informal interview/conversation (field notes and researcher journal) 	
Follow-up interview (March 2018) - through skype calls	

Table 3-3: Data collection timeframe (August 2017 – March 2018)

3.6.1 Preliminary phase: Getting in touch

After the research plan had been ethically reviewed and approved by the Central University Research Ethics Committee (CUREC) (see Appendix C), I wrote an email to get in touch with the gatekeepers (Heads of the English language Department) at the two research sites. In the email, I briefly introduced myself and expressed my intention to conduct a study at their institutions. The topic and purpose of my research were also broadly mentioned.

After the first introductory email, I sent out another email to the gatekeepers at the targeted institutions to arrange a meeting with them in person in order to explain the purpose, nature of the research, and the procedures I would be undertaking in greater detail. At the meeting, I asked the gatekeepers if they could organise a group meeting in which I could conduct a focus group interview. In the case of University B where I had not had any prior exposure, I asked the Department head if she could introduce me to teachers in the department to establish first contact with potential participants. Research information sheets and sample interview questions were also attached in the email to the gatekeepers. The week before the two focus groups (one at each university) took place, I visited each university where I spent a day talking to teachers who happened to be there on the day to familiarise myself in the field.

3.6.2 Exploratory phase: Focus Groups

Rationales for using focus groups

To enrich understanding of Thai EFL teachers' perceptions of English in relation to their pedagogical practices, focus group interviewing was chosen as the study's first tool to identify participants for the main study phase and gather initial data, setting the stage for the subsequent data collection phases (Gladman, 2009). According to Krueger and Casey (2015), a focus group is "a special type of group in terms of purpose, size, composition, and procedures ... a carefully planned series of discussions designed to obtain perceptions on a defined area of interest" (p. 2). Focus group methodology, as Ho (2006) observes, has become an increasingly common method of collecting qualitative data in the social sciences given its effectiveness in gathering from people a wide range of relevant thoughts, feelings, and observations with respect to a research question. Given that "the synergistic effect of the focus group can help to produce data or ideas less forthcoming from a one-on-one interview (Ho, 2006, p. 52), participants are interviewed in groups led by a skilled moderator, as opposed to individually. As such, the objective of using focus group methodology is not to seek a consensus but to identify and define a wide variety of pertinent data concerning the ideology of English directly from the teachers, providing directions for follow-up data collection stages.

Focus groups were selected as a data collection method because they provide me with qualitative data of interest, that is, a range of opinions of people across groups. Focus groups have a distinct advantage in that they, unlike individual interviews, expose participants to a more natural environment in which they are "influencing and influenced by others - just as they are in life" (Krueger & Casey, 2015, p. 7). Krueger and Casey (2015) also suggest that focus groups work particularly well when the aim of the research is "to explore perceptions, feelings, and thinking about issues, ideas" (p. 7), allowing respondents to play a more active role in commenting on the areas they think are most important and therefore helping us "to get a sense of the diversity of experience and perception" (Fowler, 1995, p. 107). Providing also an interactive environment, focus groups enable people to ponder, reflect, and listen to experiences and opinions of others. This interaction helps participants compare their own personal realities to those of others, fostering new and valuable insights that lead to an interesting pattern not available with traditional strategies (Krueger & Casey, 2015). As Rose, McKinley and Briggs Baffoe-Djan (2019) note:

Focus groups aim to leverage the group dynamics by taking advantage of the fact that participants exist as part of a larger social community. Rather than treating them as silos of individual knowledge or experience, they try to understand how people cocreate knowledge and share their experiences with one another" (p. 176).

It also helps to "bring to light positions and contradictions that may not be detected in individual interviews, while it allows the researchers to delve into

insights that could otherwise remain hidden” (Doiz et al., 2013). Insights gained from the focus groups would be used for laying the groundwork for the subsequent individual interviews and classroom observations, allowing for a more in-depth analysis of the topics under investigation.

Focus Group Procedures

At the start of the interview the teachers were asked to sign a consent form and fill out a short registration sheet which includes a section asking for contact details and whether they would like to be invited for further in-depth interviews and class observations. Once the registration process was over and sufficient participants were present, I then opened the floor asking them to share their thoughts on the questions in the interview protocol. Considering that people are more likely to self-disclose when they feel comfortable and perceive commonalities in those they are with, I sought to make the focus group's environment comfortable and permissive as much as possible. This was accomplished on the basis that participants were recruited based on what they have in common. That is, participants resemble one another in that they are all Thai and university teachers who teach English as a foreign language. This commonality/homogeneity was underscored and communicated with the participants at the start of each focus group.

The focus group discussions took place in meeting rooms at the research site to suit the teachers' convenience. The focus group was attended by five teachers (n=5) at University A and six teachers (n=6) at University B. During the discussion, comments of all types, positive or negative, were encouraged. I acted as a moderator whose role is "to ask questions, listen, keep the conversation on track, make sure everyone has a chance to share" (Krueger & Casey, 2015, p. 6). Judgements about the responses that might imply approval or disapproval, be it verbal or non-verbal, were avoided at all costs. All the discussions were audio-recorded. At the end of the focus group, three teachers at University A and three at University B informally expressed interest to take part in the main study phase.

After the focus group interview, the recording was transferred and electronically filed in a password-protected computer. Then I listened to the recording and transcribed the content along with other notes taken during the discussion for the purpose of analysis.

3.6.3 Main study phase: Individual Interviews & Classroom observation

Interview

In this phase of the study, I interviewed all the seven teacher participants at the two selected research sites in person, except for the final follow-up interviews which were carried out through Skype calls. The study adopted a semi-structured

interview, which, as explained by Dörnyei (2007), is guided by the topics the interviewer prepared, yet the order and wording of the questions are adjusted according to how the conversation progresses. Like informal conversations, semi-structured interviews leave ample room for flexibility and exploration. Moreover, impromptu topics that emerge from the conversation were pursued, particularly the topics related to specific information about the participant and research questions. The first interview with each in-service teacher was conducted before the observations started and characterised as using a 'life history' interview approach which enables me to gain insights about the 'thick description' (Geertz, 1973) of the participants' general background, their English learning experience, their opportunity in using English, and their beliefs about English language learning and teaching. It also sought to build rapport between the researcher and the teachers and, when situations presented themselves, to tap into some issues that emerge during the focus groups. During the interview, teachers' reported cognitions regarding the English language and aspects related to English language teaching as well as teacher identities were elicited. Each interview lasted between 45-90 minutes.

Post-observation interviews were carried out immediately after the class to follow up with the issues that may have arisen during the observed lessons. These follow-up interviews were typically conducted in person. When same-day follow-up interviews were difficult to manage, I would arrange with the teacher the

earliest interview dates on which both the teachers and I were available. When this was not possible due to participants' conflicting schedules, interviews were done through a Skype call, which was arranged, on average, within two to three days of the observed lesson. The duration of each session was shorter (approximately 20-30 minutes) and was more casual than the pre-observation interview, but remained semi-structured. Three broad areas were covered in this type of interview: the teachers' language learning and teaching experiences; the teachers' beliefs about different aspects of the English language; and the teachers' general feeling about observed lessons. Each teacher was asked questions related to these three areas of focus. Several times I used the interview to clarify contextual information that was not apparent from the observation alone. During the interview, I either referred to my field notes or presented them lesson snippets (e.g., class handouts, a screenshot of the PowerPoint slides used in class) and asked for their opinions/clarifications on the issues. All the interviews were conducted in Thai and were audio-recorded and transcribed by the researcher for the purpose of the final analysis. The transcripts were transcribed in Thai and analysis was conducted in Thai so as to work with the participants' original voices. Translation of the teachers' quotations from Thai to English was only conducted on the quotes that would appear in the write-up of the study's findings chapters.

Observations

The study made use of classroom observation as a method for generating detailed objective descriptions of each teacher's actual classroom practice.

List of class observed
General English I (for first-year English major students)
General English (for first-year non-English major students)
English Phonetics and Phonology
Business English I, II
Public speaking
Business English Reading and Writing Skills I
American literature
Selected topics in British Literature
Listening and Speaking for Communication
English for Career Preparation

Table 3-4: List of observed classes

Following methodology employed by Kubanyiova (2009), classroom observations were conducted in attempt to generate wide-ranging descriptive data of the EFL teachers' instructional behaviours, the classroom discourse, and student engagement patterns. This allows me to examine in greater detail the teachers' mental processes taking into account the contexts which could also provide an interpretive lens for analysis of other data sources.

Observation dates and times were scheduled after the first pre-observational individual interview. Each teacher taking part in this stage (n=7) was observed at least twice over the data collection period (15 weeks/semester). Prior to each class observation, arrangements were collaboratively made with the teachers regarding the suitable course session's dates and times. Types of classes observed spanned from general English for first-year English major students and

non-English major students from other disciplines across the university, to English for specific purposes such as literature or English public speaking (see Table 3.4 for a list of observed classes).

With regard to my positionality, my role in class was, in most cases,³ a non-participant observer where I was present in the classroom but did not actively participate or only occasionally interacted with people in it. In order to minimise the effects of my presence on both the students and the teacher, for the first class observation I accompanied the teacher to class and the teacher would introduce me as a visiting teacher for the day. In subsequent classes, I was usually there early before class time, which allowed me opportunities to observe students and sometimes have a short conversation with them about their learning to create rapport. During class, I sat at the very back of the class, in the row with no students if possible, as a non-participant observer. I neither participated in any class activities nor had a discussion with the teachers before the observations about the activities or materials to be used in the classroom. The only information exchanged prior to each class was the class date and time. Any form of interaction, either verbal or non-verbal, with the students or the teachers during the observations was kept at minimum. Prior to each observed class, I also made clear to the teachers

³ There was one instance when a teacher participant asked me for some clarifications on certain concepts in the course of the lesson and the other when the same teacher requested that I do an impromptu mini lesson on some class content discussed earlier during class break.

that the purpose of my observation was not in any way related to their professional practice and thus no ramifications would occur. As the goal was to record typical classroom activities and teachers' and students' behaviours, and not to impose my views on the teachers' classroom practices, I also emphasised that they went about running their class the way they typically would without having to make any special modifications to their lessons and that under no circumstances would any form of judgment or criticism be made. During all classroom observations, notes were carefully and rigorously taken.

Classroom events and the spoken discourse of the teachers were of main focus during the observation. The accounts of the observations were collected via descriptive field notes of what the teacher did or said, all of which began with the time, location, class, teacher, estimated number of the students present, and a record of documents presented in class. When possible, I tried to capture exactly what the participants said using direct speech. Other forms of data were also gathered, including copies of the teachers' lesson plans, PowerPoint slides of the lesson (if any), handouts given to students, and other multimedia (e.g., websites, videos, social media posts) presented in class. The following table (Table 3.5) delineates a brief overview of the sources of data obtained from each participant:

	Teacher	Recruited via	Visits	Interviews	Observations
Site A	Nat	Focus group	11	4	3
	Tammy	Focus group	11	4	2
	Devin	Individually	11	4	2
	Jane	Individually	11	5	3
	Teacher A5*	Focus group	11	1	1
	Teacher A6*	Individually	11	1	0
Site B	Prim	Focus group	9	5	4
	Mandy	Focus group	9	4	2
	Owen	Individually	9	4	2
	Teacher B4*	Focus group	9	1	1
Total			20	28	18

Note: * Due to personal circumstances, further classroom observations of these teachers were not possible and therefore they were excluded from the main study.

Table 3-5: Summary of research participants' data gained during the fieldwork

3.7 Data coding and analysis

To offer in-depth insights into teachers' views and interpretations of their own experiences learning and teaching English as a global language, the present study approaches analysis of the data as an inductive and irritative process

(Lincoln and Guba, 1985). In this section, the analytical procedures adopted are explained in greater detail.

3.7.1 Data storage and transcription

Both interviews and observations were digitally recorded and stored electronically as audio files in separate document folders allocated to each data source (focus groups, individual interviews, class observation field notes). Focus groups and individual interviews were transcribed in Word documents using the same formatting (Arial 10-point face-font; one inch all margins; left justified). Labelling information, which included interview location, date and time, number of participants, was typed up at the top of each document. Comments or questions by the Interviewer were labelled with the letter I: at the left margin. Any comments or responses from participants were labelled with the initial of their pseudonym (e.g., P for Prim; N for Nat; D for Devin). Audiotapes were transcribed exactly as said, including any nonverbal sounds (e.g., laughter, sighs) typed in parentheses. Mispronounced words were transcribed as the teacher said them. When portions of the recording were inaudible or difficult to decipher, the phrase 'inaudible' was typed in square brackets, which would allow easy retrieval of data for follow-ups with the teachers. Ellipses (...) were used to indicate a brief pause (two to five second break in speech) while the phrase 'long pause' in parentheses was used for a substantial delay. When a statement made by the teachers was unclear, a question

mark (?) was placed after the statement. All transcriptions were checked against the audiotape for accuracy and revised accordingly. Field notes made during the classroom observations were also word-processed and, in some instances, integrated with the transcripts of the audio-recorded lessons into a single document describing a particular class.

3.7.2 Initial analysis: manual coding of qualitative data

Focus group and individual interview data

The “pre-coding” stage of qualitative analysis Dörnyei (2007) began as I was transcribing the recordings in the Microsoft Word. Adopting a pen-and-paper approach, I first printed out the transcripts on A4 paper for the initial reading where I re-familiarised myself with the data. Here, I coded the interview data by circling and highlighting the important segments I found relating to emerging topics that recurred. On the second reading, I engaged in a process called ‘code mapping’, where data were identified and labelled for subsequent retrieval and more intensive analysis (Seidel, Kjoiseth, and Seymour, 1988). These tagged categories can also point to similarities across settings and allow me to efficiently manage the complexities presented in the data. Initial ideas for coding either directly emerged from the data (inductive) or derived from research questions, theoretical models, literature or from an interview guideline (deductive). For example, I tagged several topics often mentioned in the literature such as ‘native speakers,’ ‘accents,’ or ‘proficiency’ as expressed in the interview transcripts. I also

Codes	Descriptions	Example quotes
Awareness of English varieties	Teachers' expressions that indicate a degree of awareness of varieties of English (e.g., AmE or BrE) and that English is not perceived as a monolithic construct.	<p><i>"Back then all I knew was that it was enough to know that such thing [English varieties] exist"</i></p> <p><i>"The next semester we still used the same word, 'garbage', but the teacher looked at us and said, 'rubbish' almost like swearing at us at the same time (laugh), so I was like why can't we use garbage since it was ok last semester"</i></p>
Sources of awareness	The means by which the teachers became aware of the English varieties (e.g., spellings and audios in listening exercises in textbooks; studying with foreign teachers; media, overseas experience, etc.)	<p><i>"It was the teachers who opened my eyes for the first time that the English I had been taught was just one of several others and that in this country mine was not the kind of English that is accepted"</i></p> <p><i>"Back then all I knew was that English is English and it was not until I started doing a PhD that I heard terms like 'World Englishes'"</i></p>

Table 3-6: Sample codebook

identified several latent codes (when the meaning was not explicit and requires interpretation beyond the stated words to the contextual meaning), which was only possible after I had gone through the transcripts for a few times and got

to think about them more deeply. Codes were applied to the data as I went through the transcripts and revisions were made as necessary.

At the same time, I was also engaged in a reflective and analytical process by jotting down my own commentaries as annotations on the sides of the printed transcripts or in my research journal which I kept throughout the fieldwork and afterward. The journal served as an analytical tool aiding the analysis in the later stages as it was where emerging thoughts and reflections on the data or the research process were recorded.

By the time I finished the second reading of the data on paper, a long list of codes was created, which I typed up in a separate Word file to generate the first draft of a codebook. Table 3.6 displays the sample of the study's codebook in which definitions/descriptions of each code with example quotes by the teachers to illustrate how it is expressed in the data.

Meanwhile, a list of emerging themes and their possible relationships slowly started to develop, providing me with a guiding framework for a more systematic coding procedure conducted in ATLAS.ti software (version 8), onto which this first set of manually 'pre-coded' data was then uploaded.

Classroom observation data

After each observation, field notes generated during each lesson were reviewed and the recordings listened to. Based on the review of literature as well as the analysis framework of language teacher cognition (Borg, 2015) and possible

Language Teacher Selves (Kubanyiova, 2009, 2012), data were analysed for key episodes (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Here I purposefully identified the excerpts that show the teachers' cognition of different ideological orientations in English language teaching, with particular attention being on instances of Global Englishes-related practices. Examples of the key episodes included (but were not limited to): (1) the use of a particular kind of instructional material or activity, (2) the explanation of grammar or vocabulary, (3) the use of L1, (4) the response and reaction to students' questions or errors, (5) the topics of conversation that emerged in the classroom, and (6) the interaction patterns between speakers in the classroom. All of these would be used as evidence of teachers' cognition for the purpose of theme construction.

The data were collected and analysed throughout the period of fieldwork as a "cyclical" process (Phipps & Borg, 2009). That is, the data analysis in each phase provides bases for the data collection in the next successive phase. The resulting focus group interview data were, for example, used to frame the focus points for the subsequent individual interviews and observations. Similarly, the observation field notes acted as a launching point of discussion for the post-observation interview. Initial analysis was thus not restricted to the post-fieldwork phase, but also occurred during the fieldwork. This involved listening to and loosely transcribing the previously record interviews (focus group and individual) or going through the field notes and writing a short summary when full transcriptions

were not possible due to time constraints. In my research journal, I took notes on what I felt might be potentially emerging themes and followed up in the next sessions. However, for the subtle nuances of meaning to be uncovered and for the often hidden or disguised perspectives on the teaching and learning of English to be brought to light during the coding process, I also followed Dörnyei's suggestion that codes are "not determined a priori" and that researchers remain open and flexible as long as possible (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 26).

3.7.3 Computer-assisted analysis: focused coding and linking ideas

The initial analysis of the qualitative data was conducted manually in Word files before the transcribed documents (e.g., interview transcripts, field notes, instructional materials) and all the manual codes created earlier in the pen-and-paper analysis were imported into ATLAS.ti (version 8), a computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software (CAQDAS), which came into play during the second phase of focused analysis. Transitioning from manual coding to computer-assisted coding offers many advantages; for instance, it provides a single repository to store multiple files in a variety of formats, which allows easy access for and instant retrieval of the coded data now and in the future. Moreover, for findings to be categorised and patterns identified, a computer software can assist with the technique of constant comparative analysis in which data are simultaneously compared within categories and between categories.

To begin the focused coding process, I opened the files in the software and re-read the transcripts, highlighting text (e.g., a word, phrase, sentence, or paragraph) while recording the thoughts that occurred to me using the quotation comments. Each data segment was assigned names or 'codes' using already existing codes identified in the initial analysis. When new meanings or aspects were discovered and did not fit with the existing codes, additional codes were generated using the 'open-coding' function. Through several re-readings of the transcribed data with an eye for recurring themes, new analytical codes (Miles & Huberman, 1994) were continuously added to the existing list. Sometimes codes were renamed to reflect more refined definitions. Additionally, I grouped related codes into a code family using the code manager where a list of all codes and how many times each has been used in the data were displayed for easy access.

Then I moved on from the descriptive to the conceptual level of analysis in which the goals were to systematically examine for emerging themes and recurring patterns of the central phenomenon under investigation (Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2013; Miles & Huberman, 1994), to develop a clearer picture of the data, and to purposefully explore the relationships among the codes generated. To present the larger, consolidated picture of the findings emerging from the analytical process, Table 3.7 outlines how a theme was developed in the present study.

RQ1 EFL teachers' cognition of English		
3rd iteration: Themes		
Awareness of English varieties		
2nd iteration: sub-themes/topics		
first awareness	direct/teachers	direct/specialised courses
indirect/class materials	indirect/experience abroad	indirect/colleagues
1st iteration: initial codes/labels		
textbooks	audio in listening exercises	foreign singers
spelling	Master studies	magazines
studying with foreign teachers	movies	sports program
School (middle school, high school, university)	standardised test	teaching experiences
ASEAN	teacher education	Intercultural communication course

Table 3-7: Sample of how a theme is developed through iterative processes

Apart from providing a tool whereby a list of codes with the attached verbatim content can be created, another useful feature of CAQDAS is that it allows

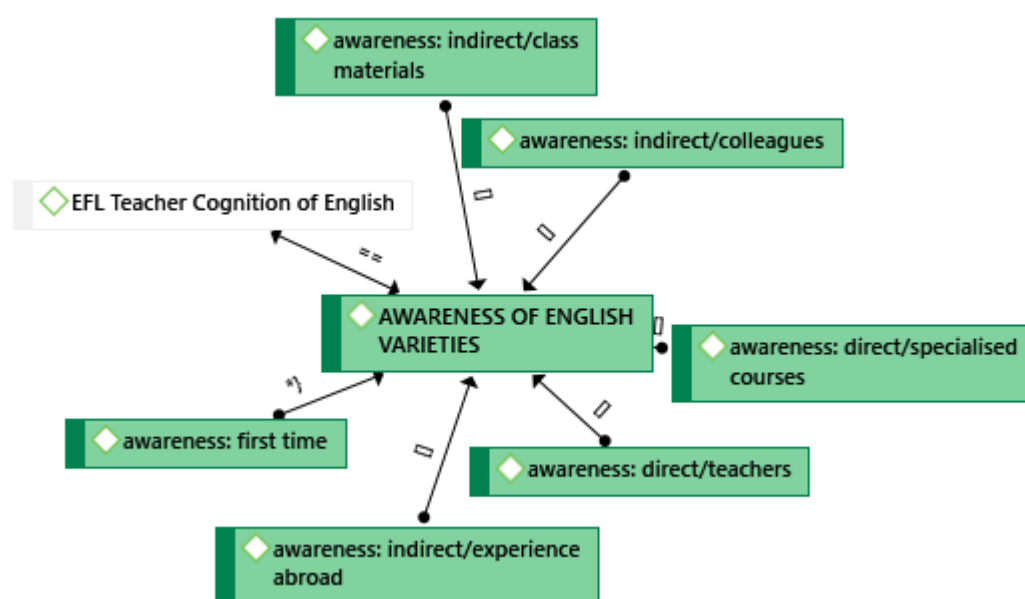


Figure 3.2: Network diagram of the theme 'Awareness of English Varieties'

me to link codes to one another and visualise them into a network diagram. To begin the analytical process of understanding the relationship among codes, I built a 'network diagram' where links between data segments were created to specify how they relate to one another. That is, codes were linked to each other as relations emerged. This facilitated the process of synthesising and grouping codes into themes. Over time the original list of codes then developed into a category system where concepts were qualified in terms of their properties and dimensions (Corbin & Strauss, 2015). Figure 3.2 shows the network diagram of the theme 'Awareness of English varieties' where selected codes appeared in connection to one another.

ATLAS.ti also offers a range of analytical tools that facilitate data analysis. For instance, brief descriptions/reflections and possible theoretical meanings of

emerging themes from the data were noted in analytical memos. This is also where notes taken in the research journal were transferred.

While reported statements and descriptions of actual behaviours observed in situ can be used to inform the researcher's interpretation, I believe that much more insight can be reaped when combined with a deep reading of the collected data. Put differently, the meanings we seek do not reside in the responses themselves but in those "significant analytical moments" (Kubanyiova, 2016, p. 104) we allow our working mind to immerse in. These moments were realised through iterative interrogation of the data (e.g., active annotating, cross-referencing via hyperlinks, or visualising the emerging ideas using the network diagram). Computer-assisted analysis enabled me to explore new ideas while maintaining the data records' original forms and contexts.

By virtue of this recursive analysis of data, the resulting findings derived from the individual interview and classroom observation data, which, together with the preliminary focus group interview would help build an understanding of the teachers' cognition of English and the extent to which it is reflected in their teaching practices.

3.8 Strategies for establishing credibility and trustworthiness to the findings

For a qualitative research to attain a high level of reliability and validity, researchers are obliged to give a clear explanation of the process, from data

collection to analysis (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Dörnyei, 2007). This is to allow the reader to form their own interpretation of the findings and decide if it is sufficiently supported by the presented data. In response to the criticism of subjectivity to which qualitative data analysis often falls vulnerable, 'parallel' quality criteria (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) as an alternative to the ones adopted in quantitative research were adopted in this study.

A number of strategies were adopted to establish quality and rigour to the findings. First, I engaged in a long-term basis with the teachers through repeated encounters and immersion in the community's rituals and everyday interactions. This allows for contradictions or misinformation injected either by the teachers or by me as the researcher to be properly and sufficiently clarified. Member checks were also utilised as a means of requesting the teachers to validate my interpretations in order to avoid misrepresenting and losing in translation the meaning of important concepts critical to the study's purpose. This was achieved both simultaneously with data collection where I, for example, repeated words back to the teachers or clarified unclear terms or statements in the teachers' own words, and after data collection when interview transcripts were sent to the teachers to seek validation of the accuracy of the transcripts. All of the teachers confirmed the accuracy of the responses, and no correction has been made.

Miles and Huberman (1994) suggested that triangulation of multiple data

Research questions	Source of data			
	FG	I	O	D
RQ1 What are the teachers' ideological views on English and the extent to which these views are realised in their practices?	X	X	X	X
RQ2 How do the teachers develop and enact their L2 teacher selves/identities from a Global Englishes perspective?	X	X	X	
RQ3 How do the teachers interpret globally-oriented initiatives in light of their teaching contexts?	X	X		

Note: FG = Focus group interview, I = In-depth individual interview, O = Observation, D = Document

Table 3-8: Matrix of research questions and sources for data triangulation

types should be undertaken to “[put] the researcher in a frame of mind to regard his or her own material critically, to test it, to identify its weaknesses, to identify where to test further doing something different” (Fielding and Fielding, 1986, p. 24). Triangulation is, as Creswell (2003) put it, “the process of corroborating evidence from different individuals, types of data, or methods of data collection...[to] ensure that the study will be accurate because the information is not drawn from a single source, individual, or process of data collection” (p. 280). Multiple sources of data collection were used to triangulate the data for this study, including focus groups, in-depth individual interviews with the main teacher participants, observations, and examination of a wide array of relevant documents. Table 3.8 demonstrates the research questions of this study and the four sources of data collection, each of which is substantiated by at least one type of evidence

obtained via other methods. Using triangulation thus counterbalances any inherent bias when a single data collection method is exclusively employed.

Multiple coding was recommended as another way of improving rigour and countering the accusation of subjectivity. While conducting multiple coding of entire data sets may not be practical, it is useful to review parts of the data and coding frameworks. In the present study it was implausible to have someone with no experience or association with the study site perform an inter-coding agreement data check. I therefore resorted to an alternative approach to achieve the same end. About two weeks after the second iteration of focused coding in the software, I revisited and recoded the data segments to assess differences between earlier and later codings. To ensure consistency, the sections to be re-coded were retrieved from the first five pages (approximately 1,800-2,000 words) of the transcripts of the follow-up interview I conducted with each teacher in March 2018. After I printed out the first five pages of each teacher's interview transcript (35 pages in total), I coded the data and compared it with the existing coding. While identical results were not reached due to the evolving nature of the codes, the procedure enabled me to clarify and adjust definitions and descriptions of earlier codes in light of the newly refined ones. The use of thick descriptions of narratives and a variety of examples from interactions between me and the teachers were also adopted in writing up the final report to demonstrate transferability. Lastly, I practised reflexivity via bracketing (see 3.10 'role of the researcher'),

acknowledging the biases that may exist due to the type of intimate engagement between the researcher and the community.

Table 3.9 below summarises the strategies employed in the current study to meet the criteria for assessing qualitative research quality and rigour (Adapted from Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Dörnyei, 2007; Eisenhart & Howe, 1992; Creswell & Miller, 2000):

Quantitative term	Qualitative term	Strategy employed	
Internal validity	Credibility	Prolonged engagement in the field	X
		Use of peer debriefing	
		Member checks	X
		Triangulation	X
		Time sampling	
External validity	Transferability	Provide thick description	X
		Purposive sampling	X
Reliability	Dependability	Create an audit trail	X
		Multiple coding/Intra-coder reliability	X
		Triangulation	X
		Peer examination	
Objectivity	Confirmability	Triangulation	X
		Practice reflexivity	X

Table 3-9: Quantitative and qualitative criteria for assessing research quality

On offering a detailed description of research methodology in this chapter thus far, I believe I have established the reliability of the analytical process and the validity of the claims made in this thesis.

3.9 Ethical considerations

Ethics of care, advocated by Hobbs & Kubanyiova (2008) for situated research, were also applied during the interviews. This includes protecting the well-being of the research participants, doing no harm to the participants, and ensuring research benefits for the participants. Prior to my departure for fieldwork when I began collecting data, I obtained research ethics approval from the Central University Research Ethics Committee (CUREC) of the University of Oxford, which was provided to the gatekeepers to properly gain access and permission to conduct the study at the research sites.

At the start of the focus group interview, the teachers were asked to sign a consent form (see Appendix D) which includes a section asking for contact details if they would like to be invited for further in-depth interviews and class observations. In the main study each participant was given a project information sheet (see Appendix F) and asked for permission to conduct individual interviews and observe their classrooms through a separate consent form (see Appendix E). The contents of the consent form were coupled with verbal explanations in Thai. I verbally reminded the participants that all the answers they gave would be kept completely anonymous and ensured the participants of their rights to refrain from

discussing certain topics and to withdraw from the study any time they wished and that no harm in any form would occur. In addition, the teachers were given my e-mail address and Line ID⁴, so that they would be able to contact me and easily ask should any questions or concerns arise during the course of the study. I also emphasised the advantages of participating in the study, including the opportunity for professional development and/or future research collaboration.

Similar in many ways to all qualitative research, data obtained from focus groups, individual interviews, and observations raise some ethical concerns that require the researcher's attention (Punch, 1986; Smith, 1995). One such concern regards the participants' privacy/anonymity. As both individual and group discussions were audio-recorded, it is especially important that I decide up front who would get access to the data. The teachers also facilitated the collection of documents associated with their class by either providing me with the photocopied version or forwarding me the digital version of the documents. In the present study, all the recordings, audio and visual, were accessible only to me as the researcher. These electronic files were and would not be presented to the public and be securely stored in a password-protected folder in my personal computer. In any

⁴ Social media application platform similar to Whatsapp or Facebook Messenger widely used in the study's context

publication or dissemination of my work, pseudonyms were used instead of the real name to maintain anonymity. These pseudonyms would be exclusive only to me, and all attempts were made to the extent possible to ensure that no connection would be made to their actual identity.

With regard to focus group discussions, another issue is the fact that what the participants say in the group discussion is inherently shared with other group participants. To minimise any possibility of potential conflicts, at the beginning of each discussion announcement was made asking participants to respect the confidentiality of other group participants. In the event that any specific situation must be mentioned due to its relevance to the topic of discussion, the participants may refrain from identifying specific individuals. In this way, it was hoped that participants would not pursue any discussion that could have been a source of distraction from the interview questions. Since the topics of the interview involved sensitive issues related to one's personal and professional identities, which can be face-threatening for teachers and sometime undermine their self-esteem, no further questions were asked if the teachers displayed any sign of embarrassment or unease with the topic.

I also strove to return the participants the favour as I was able to. In many cases I did my best to share what I know regarding certain course contents or offer some feedback whenever asked. At the conclusion of the fieldwork, I made a separate trip to the universities and gave individual teachers a thank you note with a small gift as a memento. At the end of the project, I plan to share research findings

with participants to ensure what Christians (2000) called a fair distribution of research benefits in the hopes that these would serve as resources for them as they make their way through their professional paths.

3.10 Role of the researcher

Reflexivity is, as explained by Creswell (2013), important as it emphasises the researcher's sensitivity to his/her personal characteristics, predispositions, prior experience, and the researcher-participant relationship. My position as a researcher and instructor in the Thai higher educational context allows me to view the issue of language teachers' cognition from both an emic (insider) and etic (outsider) perspective (Hornberger, 1994). To achieve a balance of insider and outsider roles, I assumed a 'moderate participation' stance (Musante & DeWalt, 2010), whereby I was present in the class principally as an observer and did not actively participate or only occasionally interact with the teachers and/or students in the classroom, which allowed a well-balanced combination of involvement and necessary amount of detachment. On the one hand, I am aware of the context of Thai higher education institutions as an insider due to my former role as a lecturer. On the other hand, my current role as a doctoral student conducting research in another university context enables me to take an outsider's perspective. Like my participants, I was and am a language teacher. My experience as a lecturer facilitates my contact with teachers via colleagues and gaining their trust. As a

member of the teachers' community (by virtue of my past teaching experience in university), it is clear that I share with the teachers a common ground of knowledge and experience. This puts me in the position to connect with the participants in an informal manner where participants feel comfortable to talk without feeling judged by an outsider. Well aware of the issues of uncomfortable power dynamics, I capitalised on my 'juniority' (age and experience⁵), humbly positioning myself as a younger mentee genuinely interested in their experience and seeking to learn from them anything they were keen to share. Whenever it was a case, I was honest and sincere about my relative lack of experience especially when it came to the institutional policies and practices. As a result, the teachers seem comfortable and relaxed in the presence of a participant observer. From my observation, there was little to no attempt at self-promotion or 'saving face', as evident in their overt response to some of my questions: when they did not know the answer, they would say 'I don't know.' Throughout my data collection period, I have established rapport and maintained trusting relationships characterised by empathy as well as respect.

I also made every effort to respond/react in ways that would establish a cordial atmosphere in which the participants felt comfortable expressing their

⁵ At both universities, I addressed myself as 'nong' (younger sister) and went by my nickname. In most cases, I also used 'phi' (elder brother or sister) to address all the teachers to show respect.

thoughts frankly without feeling obligated to give responses in line with what they perceived to be what I 'looked for.' To offset this tendency, I shared aspects of my own background and stories when relevant, thereby presenting myself as a real person and not just an invisible entity exuding an air of unquestionable power. In addition, I tried my best to answer the teachers' questions on course-related matters and the like when asked. For example, one teacher participant who was at the time of the study writing up her doctoral thesis was asking for my thoughts on some aspects of her work and two teachers were preparing to apply for a doctoral study, so I gave them advice as well as I could.

I am also aware that my insider position would influence the study to a certain degree. To minimise my personal biases as a researcher, attempts were made to document my pre-study dispositions through bracketed interview (Tufford & Newman, 2012). Methods of bracketing include writing memos throughout data collection and analysis as a way to reflect on the researcher's engagement with the data, having a conversation with an external source (e.g., a colleague with no conflict of interest in the research study) to bring to surface preconceptions and biases, and keeping a reflexive journal in which preconceptions are identified throughout the research process. By comparing the anticipated and actual findings, I was able to test the strength of the obtained data during analysis, ensuring that the results were not simply due to my own disposition. Throughout the data analysis process, I also made sure to keep in close

contact with my participants through consultation (asking clarifying questions) and sending drafts of my analysis for them to read and offer their own interpretations. Hence, I positioned the teachers as authorities in their own professional teacher lives who could contribute expertise to a larger community.

3.11 Chapter summary

In this chapter, detailed descriptions of the overall research methodology were provided including the study's objectives, the research design, and the reasons why an ethnographic multiple case study approach was selected as the preferred approach. Various aspects of the data collection process and data analysis were also described. This study first adopted the focus group interview method to learn what the teachers think, understand, and believe about English and its relationship to the teachers' identity development reflecting through their practices in and outside the classroom. These findings, coupled with in-depth results from individual interviews, classroom observation, and reviews of documents, were then analysed to yield insights into the teachers' perspectives on their perceptions of English, language teaching orientations, and multiple identity goals they adopt. Lastly, issues of ethics and methodological limitations were also discussed.

4

Findings RQ-1

What are the teachers' ideological views on English and the extent to which these views are realised (or observable) in their practices?

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter discussed the methodology of the study, addressing research procedures, data collection methods, data analysis, and ethical considerations. This chapter will look into the findings concerning the teachers' cognition of the status of English, exploring how the global spread of English has impacted the way Thai university lecturers of English perceive the language they teach.

The findings in this chapter are drawn from analysis of data obtained from interviews, focus group discussions, classroom observations, and document analysis. In this chapter, I explore themes related to the teachers' current views on issues surrounding the English language and, where applicable, the extent these

views are realised (or observable) in each teacher’s practices. These themes will be discussed in relation to the literature later in Chapter 7.

The main themes related to these EFL teachers' cognition of English that emerged across the participant data include: 1) Notions of ownership and standard language ideology; 2) Notion of ‘non-standard’ English; 3) Monolingual-Multilingual Orientation; 4) Notion of English as a Lingua Franca; 5) Awareness of English varieties; 6) Communicative competence as a key buzzword; 7) Consistency in language use: ‘choose your side’ or ‘stay in touch with both’; and 8) Selecting instructional materials. Figure 4.1 represents a finalised coding structure of the emerging themes associated with the research question#1.

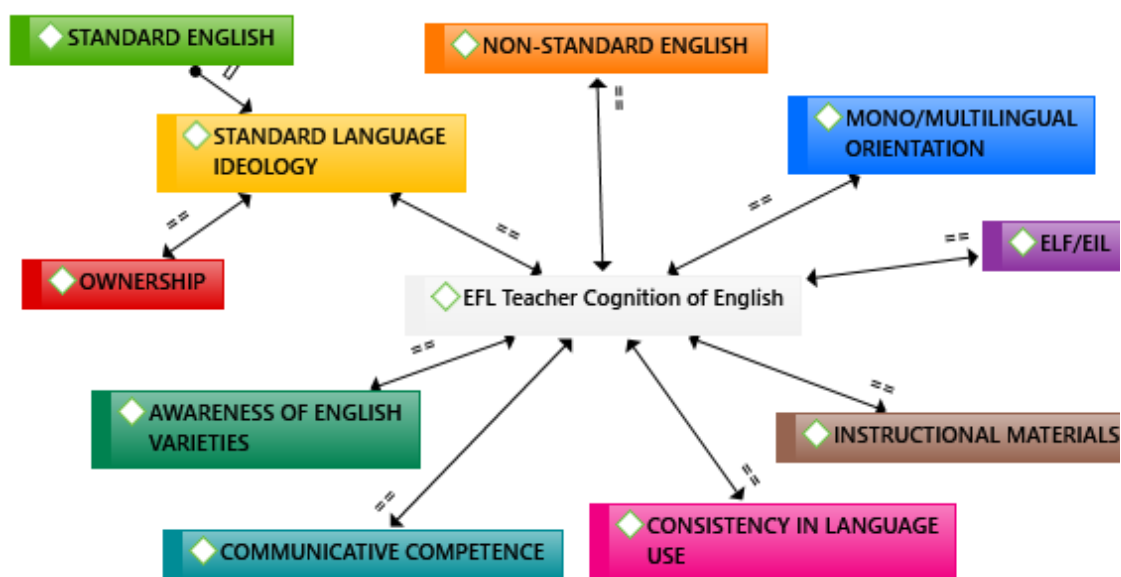


Figure 4.1: *Atlas.ti* output of themes to RQ1: EFL Teacher Cognition of English

4.2 Notions of ownership and standard language ideology

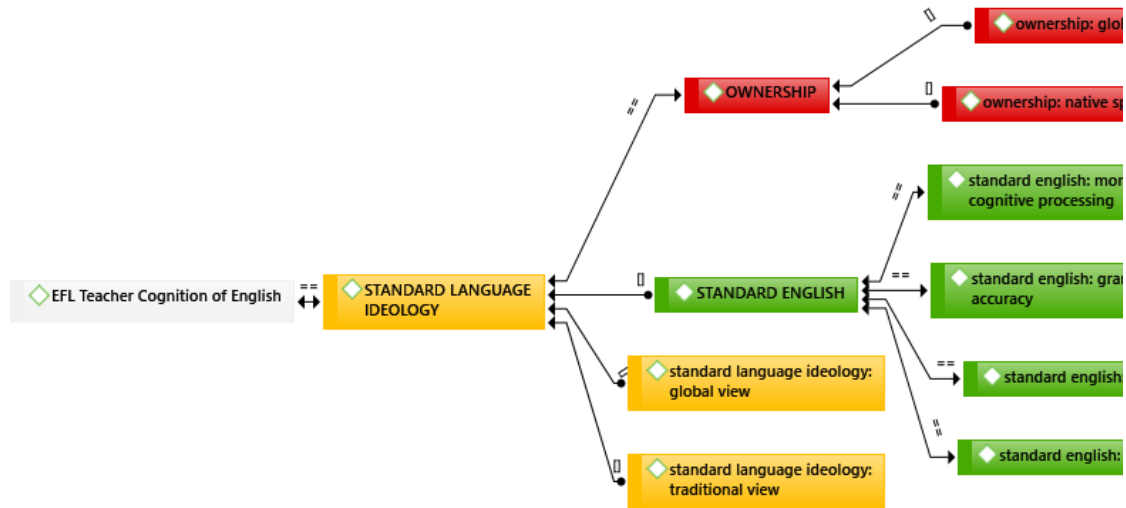


Figure 4.2: Ownership and standard language ideology

A recurrent theme in the data, as shown in Figure 4.2 above, is the common belief held by all teacher participants that legitimate ownership of the English language is inherited only to Kachru's (1985) Inner-circle native speakers. The notion of language as an inherited, ownable property was inherent in the Thai language itself where the notion of 'a native speaker' in English is literally translated in Thai as 'jaokong pasa' (THAI: เจ้าของภาษา) – 'an owner of a language'. This inseparable association between the concept of ownership and language was reinforced when these two terms were used interchangeably throughout the dataset by all the teachers. For example, **Devin** juxtaposed the two terms when explaining how the course titled 'Literature in English' is a separate course subject

different from American or British Literature courses, as illustrated in the following excerpt:

Literature in English is different from English literature or American literature. The latter two terms are commonly understood as literary work written by jaokong pasa (the owner of the language), that is, the native speakers.

(Interview 2, 24 October 2017)

The ideology in which English is the native speakers' inherited, ownable property was made explicit in **Prim**'s comment. Based on what she referred to as a "colonial discourse" which, according to **Prim**, has been governing everyone's cognitive abilities, **Prim** argued that rightful owners of the English language are those for whom English is their mother tongue:

Thai people have never been socialised in English since the very beginning. Our mother tongue is Thai, not English. Therefore, we cannot be the owner of the language. It does not belong to us.

(Interview 1, 2 October 2017)

In addition to 'who' the teacher participants think rightfully owns the English language, emerging is also the view that the English used by this group of owners is considered 'correct' and the most legitimate. In their discussions of what constitutes 'standard' English, overall data point to teacher-participants' static view of English with overwhelming orientation toward the native-speaker varieties. The clearest and most distinct definitions are in the interview data from

Jane and **Prim**, citing leading World Englishes and English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) research (Three-Circle Model) and scholars, as evidenced in the following excerpts:

Jane: *Standard English is defined as the English used by native speakers, according to the theory proposed by Kachru or what Jennifer Jenkins has advocated...The five nations which can be defined as native (English-speaking) include the United States of America, England (the UK), Canada, Australia, and New Zealand.*

(Interview 1, 6 October 2017)

Prim: *These former (British) colonies, now nation-states, had been categorised into the 'outer circle' and 'expanding circle' because they are not the original users of the language. English was not their mother tongue and therefore cannot be considered as standard... It is not recognised as legitimate now, and will never be.*

(Interview 2, 16 October 2017)

These excerpts seem to indicate that issues surrounding the English language and its many diversities are fairly visible in the teacher participants' cognition. However, it is also worth noting that while an awareness of world Englishes research was displayed, their views of ownership of the English language remain firmly rooted in standard language ideology.

As shown in Figure 2, while most teachers expressed themselves as more traditionally-oriented with regards to their cognition about standard English, others like **Mandy** and **Owen** appeared more communicatively inclined. When asked what standard English meant for her personally, **Mandy** honestly admitted she did not quite know, observing that it would be almost impossible to draw a clear line between what standard English is and what is not. Based on what she

referred to as a “*globalisation perspective*” in which “*nothing is clear-cut against the backdrop of tumbling nation-state borders*” (Focus group, 19 September 2017), **Mandy** doubted that kids (“*Generation Zyouth*”) would be interested even in asking that question in the first place. **Owen** for whom the concept of standard English seemed vague, replied to a question on standard language with a question (“*Pardon me? I’m not sure what that is*”). In the following excerpt, we also see how **Owen** demonstrated his perception of English as a communicative tool:

I mean, personally I don’t care because I think it is World Englishes now. What I’m trying to say is everyone, anyone, can use English to communicate, regardless of your nationalities or races. You don’t even have to consider whether you should use British English or American English. You use it as a medium, a tool for communication and this is good enough.

(Interview 3, 17 November 2017)

Apart from the notion of native speakers, standard English is also linked to several key elements such as American and British English, grammatical accuracy, or monolingual cognitive processing (see Figure 2). First, inclination towards British and American varieties of English surfaced in in all the teacher participants’ cognitions in various aspects of learning and teaching. Standard accents were equated with British and American English, perceived by **Tammy** as “*the English that sounds perfectly perfect*” (Interview 1, 25 October 2017). For **Nat**, standard English “*should look like the kind used by native speakers*”. As shown in the following

interview excerpt, **Nat**'s assumption was that having American citizenship could afford a 'native speaker' status to one's English:

Nat: *I went on a holiday trip with my father to Geneva where people speak French and also Italy where I rarely found anyone who could speak English except for this one museum curator who was an American working a part-time job there.*

Interviewer: *Seems like you did get to talk to him for a bit. How was it [the conversation]?*

Nat: *Well, he [the curator] is an American who has moved to Italy for work. So, basically his English is 'native speaker' [her own words] English.*

(Interview 1, 3 October 2017)

For some teachers, like **Jane**, standard English is "*officially documented*" and regulated by a set of "*citable grammatical rules*" (Interview 2, 9 November 2017). Learning English therefore meant mastering these rules, and "*grammatical accuracy*" was prized as a key measurement (Focus group, 14 September 2017). It is worth noting here that while standard English can be used in reference to both written and spoken command of a language, most teacher participants seemed to interpret the term as mainly applying to one's oral ability. For example, **Jane** recounted how she always checks her grammar to make sure that "*it's perfect*" and self-correct every time she catches herself making a mistake while speaking. Nat also described standard English as "*American or British English with correct stress placement and pronunciation*" (Interview 1, 3 October 2017).

Standard English is also characterised by a monolingual cognitive processing. Some teacher participants tie standard English not only to its visible,

interpersonal outcomes but also to an intrapersonal, less tangible aspect like human thoughts. **Nat**, for instance, described standard English as including “*idiomatic expressions that can be readily understood and commonly used by the owner of the language*” and void of “*any Thai expressions or the thought systems that govern the Thai ways of writing or any mother tongue mixed up*” (Focus group, 14 September 2017). Likewise, interview data from **Mandy** show that desirable, ‘up-to-standard’ linguistic proficiency would be difficult to achieve for Thai people who are “*so used to pedantically following the books that our thinking process is not in any way similar to that of the owner of the language*”. This is evident in her wish to improve her writing skill:

First thing first, Mandy⁶ needs to improve her writing. The thing is, I feel like my poor writing skill has to do with the fact that I still process my thoughts based on Thai writing norms, so the outcome is not right, not the kind of writing the native speakers would want.

(Interview 3, 30 October 2017)

This quote suggests that for one’s usage of English to be described as ‘good’ and ‘right’ one must begin from ‘within’: the process starts cognitively and develops to other more observable realms. In other words, it is less likely our

⁶ Mandy addressed herself with her first name.

language use and/or expression would be perceived as standard unless we ‘think’ in that language *and* articulated in ways expected by native speakers.

All teacher participants have demonstrated clear propensities for the native speaker standards, especially British and American English. As mentioned earlier, American and British English are the two varieties all the teacher participants associate with the so-called native speakers deemed by the majority as the owner of the language. When asked to express their personal opinion on each of those ‘standard’ varieties, teacher participants had, to varying extents and with varying emphases, different things to say. Comparing American and British English, the former was recognised for its orthodoxy, easy-to-use quality (as speaker, writer), comprehensibility (as listener, reader), flexibility, and colloquiality while the latter was credited for its charm, erudition, and elite outlook.

All teacher participants found American English “*common, a form known, familiar, and accepted by many*”, portraying “*English by default*” as **Devin** called it. It is also preferred by some of the teacher participants, like **Prim**, who found it straightforward and uncomplicated as it is “*based on few rules and criteria*” (Interview 1, 2 October 2017). On the contrary, all teacher participants, except for **Nat** and **Jane**, are in harmony with respect to the difficulty associated with British English. **Tammy** recounted how students once voiced a complaint about the British variety being used in exam papers as, according to them, it was “*more difficult to listen to, and make sense of*” (Focus group, 14 September 2017). **Owen** saw British spelling system as complicated, although he admitted that this might be due to his

lack of familiarity. In this regard, American English's perceived simplicity and apparent lack of effort required for usage is seen as more appropriate for undergraduate-level classes than its British counterpart which seems to entail a higher degree of expertise, as illustrated in **Prim**'s comment: *"In my view, those able to speak English with a British pronunciation need to be a linguist – someone who has an in-depth understanding or expertise in phonology"* (Interview 1, 2 October 2017).

When it comes to which specific variety is most appropriate in the classroom context, the data seemed to indicate general preferences for American English among the teachers. **Devin** explained that he chose American English out of his desire to maintain consistency and its popular appeal:

I chose American English because it's commonly used. And when we speak, I think it's important to be consistent, so we need to select one accent and American English was my choice. But it doesn't mean I hate other accents or anything.

(Interview 2, 24 October 2017).

When asked if she had any preferences for a variety for classroom use, **Prim** said it was American English because of its straightforwardness and spelling-sound consistency which supposedly makes it easier and more context-appropriate: *"Since I only teach undergraduate classes, American seems more appropriate"* (Interview 2, 16 October 2017). **Mandy** shares with **Prim** her tendency toward American English which is in her opinion more accessible to everyone. Provided

that a choice must be made, **Owen** reported he would go with the English as heard in the CNN and not the one in the BBC where those “throaty voices” could become a bit problematic.

However, once outside the learning and teaching contexts, ambivalent attitudes seem to emerge. On a personal note, **Owen** reported he did not care so much whether it was American or British English “*as long as we know what each of us want to say*” (Interview 2, 30 October 2017). One of the teachers participating in a focus group discussion said these prestigious varieties are “*nice to have but certainly not something we need to strive for*” (Focus group, 19 September 2017). While varying in degree and explanation, and often disguised in what they made it appear as impartial neutrality, it was not uncommon to hear comments like “*I feel no particular feeling for any of these varieties. They are just the way they are*” (**Devin**, Interview 3, 7 November 2017) or “*I have no problem whatsoever with American English. It can be used*” (**Jane**, Interview 1, 16 October 2017), thus indicating the teachers’ detachment from the native norms.

In sum, the teachers show varying degrees of cognition regarding the notion of ownership of the English language and the definition of standard English, which seems to be linked to many key concepts. The native speaker standards, especially British and American English, are favoured with American English preferred for classroom uses. Outside of classroom, however, the teachers’ attitudes seem ambivalent. Some teachers are oriented more toward a traditional, territorialised view where English is perceived as a hegemonic entity belonging to certain groups

of people inhabiting certain spaces. Some teachers, however, demonstrate a tendency toward a dynamic, global stance conceiving English as tool subject to reinterpretation and adaptation for the purpose of communicative comprehensibility.

4.3 Notion of non-standard English

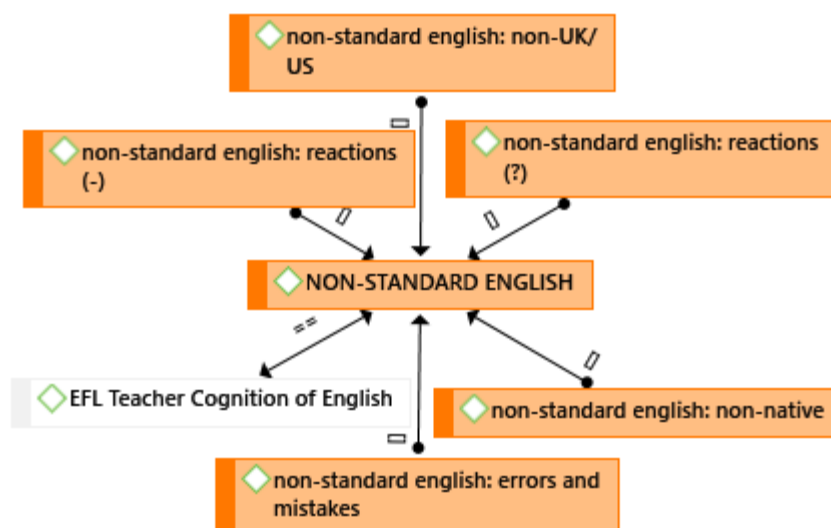


Figure 4.3: Notion of non-standard English

While the teachers attached several definitions to the notion of non-standard English, as illustrated in Figure 4.3, the term is commonly interpreted as any variation of English apart from the versions used in the UK, USA, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand. **Jane** and **Prim** agreed that the English used by speakers of English living outside Europe or the USA is perceived as non-standard. Some teachers highlighted the deviation in terms of language features. For

example, **Tammy** regarded non-standard variety as linguistic elements with which the ‘American English’ or ‘British English’ labels cannot be tagged, saying:

Non-standard accents are other varieties. Personally, the attention is not on the accents but maybe more on the many vocabularies or grammar points that are used differently. Difference here means not similar to British or American English, which for me also means ‘non-standard’

(Interview 1, 25 October 2017)

For some teachers, the native/non-native status of its speakers plays a more prominent role in determining if the language is standard or not. When asked to define the term ‘non-standard’, **Nat** said it reminded her of “*non-native speakers with a heavily forced accent and misplaced word stresses*” (interview 3, 14 November 2017). Recounting as an example of a non-standard accent her experience watching a YouTube program, in which the producer had “*European farang of different nationalities whose first language is not Thai*” listen to Thai people reading English words in a Thai accent⁷ and guess what these words might be in standard English, **Nat** observed that “*most of the time they couldn’t...they just crashed and burned*⁸ when accents were involved,” coming to the conclusion that

⁷ Nat described Thai-accented English using the word ‘shopkeeper,’ as an example, where the word was read as [shop-keep-ER] with the stress falling on the final syllable instead of on the first syllable [keep].

⁸ In the original transcript, Nat used a Thai idiom which literally means ‘to fall off a horse and drop dead’.

“*non-standard means whatever [English] is spoken by the non-native,*” emphasising nativeness as the marker of standard.

Non-standard English is conflated with ‘mistakes’ by some teachers. As indicated in the above example, **Nat**’s negatively-connoted dictions such as “heavily forced” or “misplaced” also suggest that non-standard language was connected to incorrect usage by non-native speakers. Another instance in which non-standard is associated with mistakes took place in a post-observation interview with **Owen** when I asked him about observed instances of students’ awkward uses of language in the class, to which he answered:

Even when they were using non-standard language, I won’t scold⁹ them but let them continue with their presentation. I always emphasise [to the students] that let’s not blame one another whether what we say is right or wrong, but I beg you to be confident to speak and communicate your thoughts. When you make a mistake, I will help correct it

(Interview 4, 5 March 2018)

The excerpt reveals how **Owen** would react to what in his opinion could be regarded as ‘non-standard language,’ which for him meant linguistic items communicated in ways that are difficult or almost impossible to understand. **Owen** also added unless the students’ pronunciation was “catastrophically incorrect” he

⁹ Owen originally said ‘complain them’.

would never correct his students, especially during the students' presentation in which scolding or correcting them mid-sentence was never allowed. His words are well aligned with my observation in the Business English II class during which the students, all of whom were non-Business English major, presented a merchandised product they created to interested audiences. From my observation field notes, the teacher almost never interrupted the students during the presentation. On occasion, he would ask questions but refrain from giving any comment. When he did, which was always at the end of each presentation, he did not bring up any language-related issues. "*As for language use, I think you all did well,*" the teacher said before moving on to what seemed to me general presentation-related skills such as creativity, media use, or body language. It is interesting to note that, while there seemed to be opportunities for the teacher to pick up on pronunciation issues, he instead chose to ignore them. The fact that he did not correct any of those 'mistakes' may imply that they did not appear to be so from his perspective as a teacher, for whom the first priority should be placed on building communicative confidence in students.

The notion of non-standard English evoke different reactions from the teachers. The term was unfamiliar for some teachers like **Mandy** and **Owen**, both of whom expressed uncertainty when asked to explain their understanding of the term. Others, like **Devin**, were neutral in their definition of what constitutes 'non-standard' English, saying it was just "*another kind of English.*" Some teachers displayed negative emotions but cautioned how the definition of what is standard

may vary, depending on who defines it. **Jane** mentioned, for example, how she was not particularly fond of certain “non-standard accents” like Indian and French but at the same time acknowledged the possibility in which speakers of these accents might find them legitimate: *“When speaking of non-standard accent, what I feel deep down is that there is no way I would adopt an Indian accent, which, you know, may be perceived as standard for them (those speaking it)”* (Interview 1, 16 October 2017). **Prim** made a similar comment using an example of African-American Vernacular English (AAVE) which may generally be perceived as non-standard by those who do not identify with the group of individuals who speak it. AAVE used within their own context, **Prim** explained, may be perceived as standard by those who see the variety as belonging to them. By offering an alternative stance (*“which, you know, may be perceived as standard for them”*), even when it seems to be different from their own stance, **Jane** and **Prim** acknowledged that the notion of whether a variety should be categorised as standard or not is a matter of perspective and that every accent is entitled to its own rights through use by a community of speakers.

In short, teachers have different interpretations of the notion ‘non-standard’ English. A majority of teacher participants interpreted the term as other varieties/deviants from the norms, i.e., American or British English. Some teachers highlighted the deviation in terms of language features (**Tammy**) while others put more focus the native/non-native status of its speakers (**Nat**). Deviations may also

mean mistakes – linguistic items considered as incorrect or incomprehensible. In addition, the notion seems to evoke different reactions from the teachers. While in most cases the teachers demonstrated familiarity with the term, for some teachers (**Mandy, Owen**) the notion struck them as unfamiliar.

4.4 Monolingual vs multilingual orientation

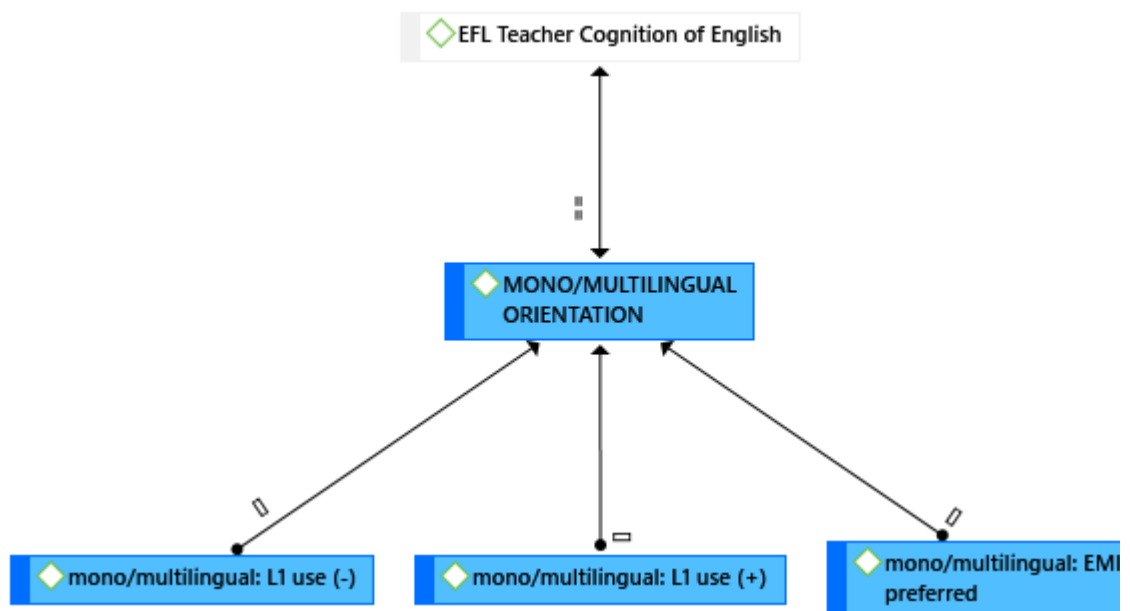


Figure 4.4: Monolingual vs multilingual orientation

Despite the teachers' stated monolingual norms, observations at both universities found teachers used English and Thai during class instructions and teacher-student interactions. The summary of codes shown in Figure 4.4 suggests that the realities of L1 usage seemed in contrast to teachers' stated beliefs in monolingual norms, as evidenced in the comment made by one of the focus group participants:

Before my practicum, I was so determined to apply all the theories I had learnt in class. I would never ever use Thai in my teaching. But it didn't turn out the way I'd imagine. I'm quite upset not being able to practice what I have been taught, but this is reality

(Focus group, 14 September 2017)

Considering the limiting classroom contexts in which she found herself, the teacher admitted she '*regretted*' not being able to adhere to the philosophy she associated with communicative approaches to second language teaching.

All the teachers in the current study believe English-only pedagogy is the most appropriate approach to the teaching and learning of English. While there is no explicit regulation stating that English be the one and only medium of instruction and Thai is still permitted in English language classroom, especially in courses with grammar or literacy (reading and writing) focus, most teachers feel compelled to run the class only in English. All of the teachers strive to reduce uses of Thai in their English class as use of the L1 is seen to be problematic. For example, **Nat** reported her attempt to use English as the main medium of instruction with Thai being used '*as little as possible*' because she believed it would allow her students to acquire both the language and the content. For **Nat**, fostering English-only environment was thought to optimise the learning experience for her students and that failing to do so, despite having every reason to, left her in doubt whether she had jeopardised her practice (and ultimately her students' learning). One of the teacher participants also recounted during the focus group what teacher education had taught her: "*They told us to never translate. Never speak Thai in class. This is*

what I have learned in my language teaching theories class" (Focus group, 14 September 2017).

Although these teachers hold different rationales for using Thai in their practices, emerging from the data is how the common goal of accommodating their students' learning plays the biggest part in their decision. Depending on their observation of the students' actual uses of the language, the teachers did not always 'stay the course' in terms of their selected medium of instruction but shuttle in varying degrees and frequencies between the students' L1 (which they also share) and English. For one thing, some teachers believe it is reasonable that Thai be used to provide low proficiency students with opportunities to, at the minimum, '*think in English*' or '*listen to their friends speaking English*,' all of which should help boost and sustain learning motivation. **Tammy**, for example, regarded L1 use as specifically beneficial for students with low proficiency. Parts of the 'Listening and Speaking for Communication' course of which **Tammy** was in charge were designated for the students' final project, where students in small groups worked in consultation with the teachers. "*I just wanted to encourage them. I know fully well that it's impossible for them to speak only English during consultation. Plus, the topics they chose are not easy ones. If they are allowed to use Thai, then at least I know they have some ideas what they are doing and not just improvising,*" **Tammy** explained, acknowledging the challenge associated with English-only lessons.

Owen also justified his mixed use of Thai and English as necessary due to the students' weak English knowledge foundation, as illustrated in the following excerpt:

It's true that I'm a teacher of the English language but it's not like I have to speak English throughout the class... It's not like I refuse to speak. I have been trying to speak given there is opportunity for me to do so.... They still need basic English knowledge, and I try to use questions to keep them motivated.

(Interview 4, 5 March 2018)

In light of his local classroom environment, **Owen** deemed it impossible to conduct his class *all* in English. However, he was aware and thus took advantage of the 'opportunity', which includes giving simple instructions in English like 'work in groups' or 'look at the picture' or 'what do you think about this?' or asking questions to raise the students' motivation. He added, "*You know these students almost always use Thai. Few of them would be able to speak English... But I would try to ask them questions in English so they get to practice and think...If you are not that fluent, at least show your ideas*" (ibid). Likewise, **Mandy**, seemed to think it was 'good enough' that her students nodded in response or answered in Thai to her questions asked in English, but wished for more. "*All I'm asking for is that they could ask me questions in English, only for just a minute and that would make me feel grateful already,*" (Interview 3, 30 October 2017) **Mandy** laughed in conclusion.

The students' demographics are also taken into the consideration when teachers decide which language to use as a medium of instruction for a particular

class. In keeping with the above comment, **Owen's** attempt to punctuate his classroom practices with basic English phrases was accentuated in foundational courses for non-English major students, who, referring to my classroom observation field notes, "*appeared to be interacting with the teacher and among their peers in Thai*" and only used English only on the occasion that the teacher asked them to answer in English which involved mostly reading aloud some reading passages in the textbook. In the following excerpt, **Jane** reported on the rationale behind her choice of language of instruction:

...in the foundation English course for non-English major ... I speak Thai for about 10-40% of the time. As for English for career preparation course, the proportion of English or Thai usages vary by sections. For the Thursday class where the majority of the students are Thai major, I speak English for 70% of the total class time and Thai for the remaining 30%. For the Friday class, where Japanese students are also present, I speak English 90% of the time. I don't run the class a hundred percent in English because I also have Thai major students. I also use Thai when it's not related to the lesson, like when was telling them about my experience related to the course content

(Interview 3, 14 November 2017)

Some teachers used the students' L1 in their class to facilitate understanding of difficult and complex concepts. **Nat**, for instance, codeswitched to Thai when she saw the need for the students to achieve 'deep' or 'complete' understanding of certain issues such as complex English grammar lessons (e.g., Present or Past participle) or overarching themes or symbols in classic literary pieces written in English (e.g., figure of speech used in Shakespeare's *Midsummer's night's dream*). Recorded in the field notes was how **Nat** reverted to Thai when giving explanations to students who approached her individually but only when it

was outside class time because, as revealed later during the post-observation interview, she was afraid that the students might not grasp the lesson completely should it be discussed only in English. **Prim** concurred, reasoning her extensive use of Thai in an English Phonetics class by referring to a comment she received some time ago from a visiting lecturer:

Back then the Practical English Phonetics course used to be assigned to farang teachers. A visiting lecturer from another university asked me why we let a foreign teacher teach this course, and not a Thai ajarn¹⁰ who is knowledgeable in both languages and can use Thai to explain, which should facilitate the students' understanding much better.

(Interview 5, 8 March 2018)

The teachers seem to be aware of the students' reliance on their L1 as a multilingual affordance, especially in integrated content and language courses. **Devin**, for example, noted how he normally let the students respond in Thai to questions elicited in English because it was their 'ideas' he cared more about as illustrated in the following quote:

The assigned texts were quite deep and complex beyond the students' current competency. When they expressed their ideas, they realised in frustration they couldn't express as they wished. And it was also my fault to go soft on them. But I know they are capable of complex thoughts but still lacking in how to express these thoughts in an equally sophisticated manner.

¹⁰ A Thai word used to address a teacher, especially in a higher education context.

(Interview 2, 24 October 2017)

When students use Thai to explain complicated concepts too complicated for their English proficiency, **Owen** 'let it pass', reminding himself his original intention to focus on the quality of the ideas and not just the language. "*The issue is what we can do as a teacher. It doesn't matter if it is in Thai or English as long as you [the students] speak. Our job is to facilitate: they speak Thai to us, we speak English back to them,*" (Interview 2, 30 October 2017) said **Owen**, highlighting that it is the responsibility of the teachers to ensure that use of L1 does not become a learning barrier for their students.

Although uses of Thai and English were observed at both research sites, a difference between the two universities could be seen in terms of the extent to which each language was used. Based on the observation field notes, all of the observed classes at University A were conducted mainly in English, and only under certain circumstances such as explaining complex grammar points or discussing abstract themes in literature was the Thai language used. The situation was the opposite at University B where all the teacher participants (**Prim, Mandy, Owen**) were observed to run their class using Thai in a greater proportion than English.

In sum, the idea of English-only pedagogy as the most appropriate approach to teaching English seems a common part of all teachers' cognition. However, all the teacher participants are found to share a 'lenient' attitude toward the students' alternation between English and Thai (with the latter being more heavily used). In addition, their uses of the students' first language (which they also share) remained

prevalent during classroom interactions, a practice which was rationalised to encourage communication of ideas and to stimulate interaction.

4.5 Notion of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF)

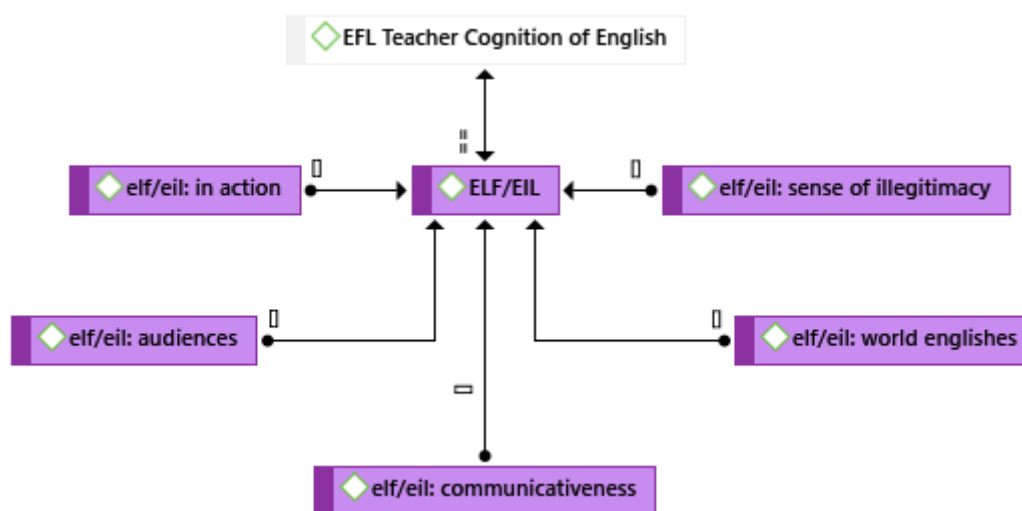


Figure 4.5: Notion of English as a lingua franca (ELF)

Findings indicate that the notion of English as a lingua franca (ELF) seems largely absent from the teacher participants' cognition. In fact, the term never came up in our interactions about the current standing of English unless incorporated as prompt for discussion as part of the study. Most teacher participants reported having heard the term, either through a formal education or conversations in local seminars, but had little to no further knowledge of its theoretical underpinnings or pedagogical relevance to their working context.

When the term was introduced, teacher participants' reactions varied as they seemed to entertain different interpretations of and attitudes toward the concept, as illustrated in Figure 4.5. Of all the participants, **Jane** appeared the most well-informed having claimed that her doctoral thesis was on the topic (and even in the title of the thesis itself). However, despite her stated high degree of familiarity and knowledge of the concept, **Jane** was less explicit in her definition of ELF, saying that that it belongs to a different category from standard English. **Nat** admitted feeling slightly put off by the thought of having to use the term in actual conversation, saying that it sounded rather 'snobbish' and that she would prefer '*English as a global language*,' which she thought was more common.

Other teachers' grasp of the term is relatively vague and far from comprehensive. When prompted to define ELF, both **Nat** and **Tammy** saw communicativeness as the most essential element of it. In **Nat's** words, "*If it is to be a global language, then it must allow possibilities for worldwide communication*" (Focus group, 14 September 2017). While remaining sceptical about how well the English language does the job at the moment, **Nat** regarded ELF as the language "with the most potential" to connect people of different linguistic backgrounds. **Tammy** also perceived communicative capacity as an important aspect of ELF, and something which depends on the intended audiences of the message. During the focus group, she pointed out: "*In writing your grammar needs to be on point for your message to get across. But it [the grammar] probably does not need to be perfect if this piece of writing is for your friends, in which case it will make sense anyway,*"

(Focus group, 14 September 2017). **Tammy** also stated that ELF usage could extend to linguistic circumstances in which the interlocutors share the same first language but choose English as a medium of communication.

The concept of ELF is interpreted by some teachers as world Englishes. Using Singlish as an example, **Nat** defined ELF as *“a new set of vocabulary that emerges at a certain point in time with the English spoken as a mother tongue as a reference point”* (Focus group, 14 September 2017). In other words, English words that depart from such reference point or are not readily understood by those using another variety of English were believed to be instances of ELF. **Prim**’s understanding of the term bore similar resemblance to **Nat**’s, where the only difference being that ELF was believed to be merely a terminological variation of the same concept that goes by different labels from ‘EIL’ to ‘World Englishes.’ As **Prim** recounted from her postgraduate studies, these different names were initially thought to signify the same things: *“Each field was just trying to differentiate by coming up with their own terminology only to explain the same thing,”* (Focus group, 19 September 2017). **Prim** observed it as, “a new trend” in which anyone can always “come up with a new English variety” and that it “should always be accepted”. Drawing from what was perhaps ‘translingual practice’ **Prim** further explained that it was “Canagarajah’s attempt to replace the native speaker model” and the fact that it was proposed by him had led to higher likelihood of it

being accepted: “*everyone listens whenever he has anything to say since he is a big name,*” (Focus group, 19 September 2017).

Findings also suggest despite the increasing awareness of the notion of English as a lingua franca the teachers still experience a sense of illegitimacy. While **Prim** spoke all of this in a nonchalant manner, there was an air of inevitable inadequacy to it. Likewise, **Mandy** admitted feeling ‘worried’ whenever she was engaged in international communication: “*I was anxious if they would understand what I said, or vice versa. I would say to myself, ‘let’s do this. If you don’t understand, just ask.’ Basically, I had no choice but speak. In my head I was like, ‘Well, this is the best I can manage. And you’re supposed to try making sense of it at least,’*” (Interview 3, 30 October 2017). This points to a shift in perception toward responsibility sharing in international communication. In **Mandy**’s view, it is not solely her job to make herself understood but a shared responsibility of both parties to put in effort in bringing about mutual intelligibility and this successful communication.

Along with conceptual absence of ELF was the relative lack of ELF in action. The only time instances of ELF are manifested in the data was during a single conversation with **Owen**, who reported having observed students’ increased confidence in using English a result of a one-month internship in Vietnam. In his opinion, having students experience the ‘*real thing*’ abroad has a clear impact on the students’ attitude toward using English: “*They looked more confident. You can definitely see it. Their English was still not sophisticated but much better,*” (Interview 3, 17 November 2017). While **Owen** did not directly associate this positive change

with the context of use (Vietnam) and the role of English as a lingua franca, he was aware there were benefits to exposing students to situations where English is used authentically.

In conclusion, the notion of ELF seems largely absent from the teacher participants' cognition. When definitions of the term were introduced in focus groups and interviews, the teacher participants varied in their understandings of (communicativeness, intended audiences, world Englishes) and a range of reactions toward the term.

4.6 Awareness of English varieties

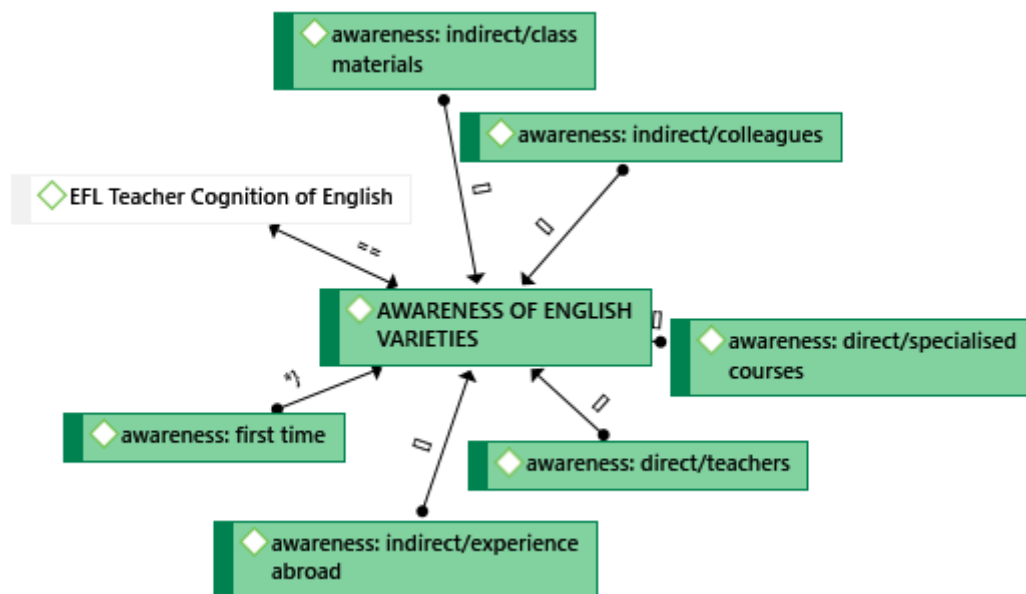


Figure 4.6: Awareness of English varieties

While the findings presented thus far have seemed to hint at the teacher participants' view of English as a singular entity (e.g., standard English as the only recognised variety), it does not mean that the 'plural' aspect of English had gone entirely unnoticed. Figure 4.6 presents the codes related to awareness of English varieties obtained from the analysis of data. The earliest teachers first became aware of variations in the English language was during their time in primary school and the latest was in their graduate studies. The most common backdrop against which such realisation played out appeared to be in educational settings, both local and abroad, where the information was made available by their English teachers. **Tammy**, for example, remembered it was her first-grade teacher who first pointed out different words people in different places use for a truck/lorry and it was when she first learned it was possible for English to come in more than one form. "*But that was it,*" **Tammy** concluded (Focus group, 14 September 2017). For **Devin**, the awareness came in a formal English class in high school where his teacher taught multiple uses of vocabulary, grammar, and accents. It occurred to **Nat** in an informal context, when she was talking to an Indian English teacher at her high school who told her how people find it hard to understand him because of his accent.

Of note here is that, compared to University A's teachers, awareness arrived relatively late for all the teachers from University B. **Prim**, **Mandy**, and **Owen** all reported having learned about the English diversity only when they had started post-secondary education. **Prim**, while intuitively aware that English varieties

existed, couldn't theoretically conceptualise it until she started her doctoral studies. "*Back then all I knew was that English is English and it was not until I started doing a PhD that I heard terms like 'World Englishes',*" said **Prim** (Interview 3, 6 November 2017). During the focus group discussion at University B, **Prim** and **Mandy** along with other teacher participants all agreed that they did not remember feeling concerned so much about the fact that English is diverse as the fact that American English and British English existed. **Mandy** said it wasn't until her graduate studies where the foundational importance of communication and culture was emphasised when she realised that "*there was more to it than a few idiosyncrasies,*" she had been able to perceive (Focus group, 19 September 2017). For **Owen**, it was in his third undergraduate year in a course called "Linguistics for Language Teachers" where he first learned "*there is more to a language than just what we think there is,*" (Interview 3, 17 November 2017). **Owen** also noted that the teacher simply told them it was "*enough to know that such a thing [English varieties] exists*" (ibid.) but did not go into further detail.

Increased awareness of English varieties was realised in a variety of ways. First, awareness was explicitly raised in classrooms where the teachers pointed out variation in English directly to the students. **Tammy** reported her perspective on English changed in her Master studies during which the teachers directly taught them that ownership of the English language no longer belonged to the UK or the US but the world. **Tammy** said, "*So just speak, whatever accent it is. It's ok as long*

as it conveys the message and you say it correctly,” (Interview 1, 25 October 2017), adding as a side note, however, that she still knew very little about English varieties and was merely aware of its existence since the concepts were occasionally mentioned to raise the students' awareness but not extensively reinforced through other activities. **Jane's** awareness was brought about via the teacher's feedback on her vocabulary choice. During her undergraduate years after coming back from the UK, **Jane** reported having remembered in the first semester of her second year debating on the topic of garbage problems. Of particular attention here is the word 'garbage' which sparked some curious awareness: *“The next semester we still used the same word, 'garbage', but the teacher looked at us and said, "rubbish" almost like swearing at us at the same time (laugh), so I was like why can't we use garbage since it was ok last semester,”* (Interview 1, 16 October 2017). **Prim** was introduced to the theoretical aspects of 'World Englishes' and 'Varieties of Englishes' via a formal course available for selection at her PhD programme where *“every year these 'big names' are invited to be our guest speakers in hope that they will inspire and lead us to our potential,”* **Prim** recounted (Focus group, 19 September 2017).

More specifically, and perhaps more powerfully, was the impact specialised courses on English sound systems in shaping teacher's awareness of different English accents. **Nat** and **Devin** both agreed that their awareness of English accents was most heightened in their phonetics-phonology-related courses required in their undergraduate education where English sound systems were of particular focus. Another noteworthy point is that for both of them such awareness was likely

already there but only brought into focus when it was explicitly addressed first hand. Educated in an EMI programme in high school where most, if not all, her teachers were American, it was in a phonetics class when **Nat** realised that her pronunciation had already been skewed towards an American one. **Devin** remembered phonological dialectal variations being mentioned briefly during his high school years. However, as evident in the following excerpt, those issues remained dormant until they got stirred up later through formal studies in which English sounds were not only academically discussed but also observed in 'live action' through foreign teachers:

Generally, it was the Thai teachers who introduced us to the theories. It was however when we had classes with foreign teachers that I began to observe the differences. I studied with three different foreign teachers, each coming from different countries and having different accents. That was the time I thought to myself, 'So here it is, what the [Thai] teachers used to mention'

(Interview 3, 7 November 2017)

In both instances, heightened awareness was also embodied through both academic discussions and first-hand experience with foreign teachers.

Awareness might also occur in a less explicit fashion such as in places linguistically and culturally different from home. **Nat** was surprised by the hotel receptionist's Singlish accent whom she met in Singapore, only to find out later there was a term dedicated to it. **Jane** reported on a burgeoning realisation of differences when she went to the United Kingdom early in her undergraduate

years. **Mandy** stated that it was only when she did her exchange year as part of the PhD programme in Malaysia when she found out the English she was taught was British “*because Malaysia was once one of the colonies*” (Interview 4, 9 March 2018), but that there were variations in terms of vocabulary and styles despite it looking the same on the surface. **Mandy** attributed the source of this realisation to the Malaysian teachers she had:

It was the teachers who opened my eyes for the first time that the English I had been taught was just one of several others and that in this country mine was not the kind of English that is accepted...But for me it was no big deal because ultimately, when we were back, I would be teaching Thai students in my own style anyway.

(Interview 3, 30 October 2017)

Also worth noting from the above comment is **Mandy's** nonchalant response (“no big deal”) to the incident. While eye-opening, the experience seems to have little effect on her practices in the professional context in which she would be (and is now) working.

To a lesser extent, course texts were reported to play a role in raising awareness of the diversity of English. Especially in literature studies, **Mandy** remembered being taught by teachers in her Master's in Comparative Literature to differentiate British and American literature as being able to do so would help equip them for literary text analysis:

These teachers belong to different schools of thoughts depending on where they did their studies...and these schools are based in geographically different locations like the UK, the US, France, or other European countries. So we need to be able to tell the differences because the theories they use are also different.

(Interview 4, 9 March 2018)

Mandy observed in the course of her postgraduate studies that a set of beliefs (certain ideologies) appeared to be associated with teachers of certain nationalities. For example, since **Mandy** believed that modernism and feminism were linked with teachers from Michigan, USA, where the ideas had been widely discussed, the language pattern **Mandy** encountered were mostly American in character. Meanwhile, writing a thesis on postcolonial literature exposed her to the language pattern used by the British. *“It did strike me sometime how I couldn’t make sense of it. The sentences seemed very complicated and difficult to interpret,”* **Mandy** reported.

Findings from the data analysis suggest that interactions with colleagues may also serve to raise the teachers’ awareness of the issue. Overhearing the term ‘World Englishes’ from **Prim, Owen** went on to find out on his own what it meant. *“It has been some time since I last had my formal education. So when a new concept is introduced, I got intrigued, like ‘hey what is that?’, and I would do more research. I refuse to become a frog under a coconut shell,”* said **Owen** in a very determined voice (Interview 4, 5 March 2018). To be “a frog under a coconut shell” is a Thai expression used to imply that s/he is out of touch with latest thinking, recent events, and current practices in general. By saying this, **Owen** positions himself in line with one of the most praiseworthy values in Thai culture expected of a good teacher, which is to stay knowledgeable and resourceful on the subject-matter one

is trained to be an expert in. **Owen** reported that, as a result of his self-study, the students should not be limited to only British or American English but instead given the opportunities to explore and become better informed of 'all the Englishes available worldwide'. *"They need to be able to 'train their ears' and what I'm trying to do is to find a variety of new sources of knowledge to use in my class,"* **Owen** said. It is important to bear in mind that **Owen's** attempt (to supply new sources of knowledge in class) was not readily obvious in the classroom events I observed, and thus may reflect only **Owen's** belief in 'ideal' instructional practices (how things should be). While this may pose limitations to claims that can be made about the teacher's cognition in relation to actual practice, **Owen's** case does provide insight into the workings of the teacher's minds in terms of what he holds up as ideals, and is an example that it is possible to raise awareness through personally driven interest indirectly invoked by the teaching community by which a teacher is surrounded.

All in all, most teacher participants in the study are, in varying degrees, attuned to the experience of when they were first aware of English diversities and the contexts in which it happened. Heightened awareness of English varieties was realised in a variety of ways: explicitly through the introduction of the relevant concepts by the teachers in the classroom, especially in specialised courses on English sound systems, or incidentally via contact with foreigners at home. Other sources include first-hand experience in the communities of practice, classroom materials, and self-study.

4.7 Communicative competence as a key buzzword

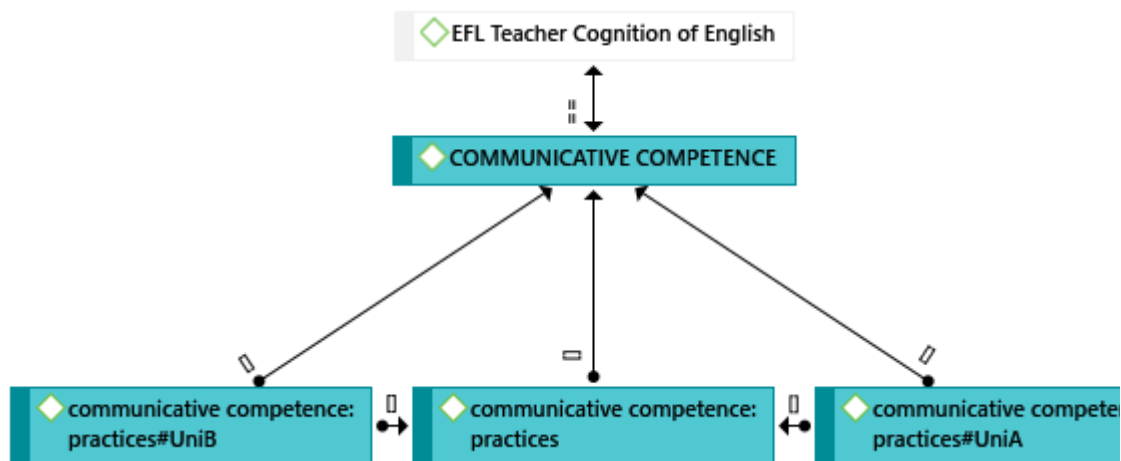


Figure 4.7: Communicative competence as key buzzword

While nowhere in the English curriculum of both universities mandates what teaching approaches/methods are adopted and implemented in their respected classrooms, it can be seen from the codes in Figure 4.7 that there is a significant presence of principles surrounding Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). All of the teacher participants emphasised communicative competence as paramount in language learning where learning the language means learning to communicate using the target language. For instance, **Owen** described his teaching as “*anything but a grammar instruction*,” (Interview 3, 17 November 2017), seeing grammar as a means but not an end. **Jane**, using the term ‘communicative competence’, said that a key goal of learning is to ensure messages are clear and understood by all parties involved. “*If you are able to communicate, you don't need*

to care about whether or not your accent sounds Thai or if anyone can just tell it is a Thai person speaking,” (Interview 1, 16 November 2017). **Nat**’s comments echoed **Jane**’s proposition, saying that any accent was fine provided that it sounded ‘natural’ and ‘got the message across.’ **Tammy** was also in agreement with both **Jane** and **Nat**: *“I don’t care what accent they have as long as they are confident to communicate and whatever they say makes sense to their listeners,”* (Focus group, 14 September 2017). What these teachers suggest was that mutual intelligibility achieved through clear pronunciation should assume more significance than accent variations in how words are pronounced.

Although these teachers share the same beliefs in the desired goal of language teaching, they differ in the way they translated such principles in their own practice. For example, based on observations of Jane’s classes, communicative competence for **Jane** meant that the students were given both opportunities to know about a range of existing English varieties and freedom to adopt a particular accent that matches their personal liking: *“Want a British accent? Go ahead. Want the American accent? Go for it if you can,”* (Interview 1, 16 October 2017). **Jane** reported that this was something she had been directly and openly communicating to her students. This claim is supported by my field notes in which **Jane** was observed on many occasions pointing out to her students how certain vocabularies differed between American English and British English. Links to external resources on relevant topics were also included in the PowerPoint slides. **Nat**, on the other hand, put more focus on communication strategies, which she embodied via her

instructional practices. Depending on the person with whom she speaks, **Nat** adjusted her speech accordingly. Afraid that speaking fast (her natural speech) would pose listening difficulty for her lower proficiency students, **Nat** reported she would automatically slow her speech to make sure its meaning was fully grasped. With native English speakers, however, **Nat** said she tended to speak faster than with her students. With those whose first language is not English, she spoke as fast as when she did with native speakers or a bit slower but using simpler sentence structures.

Some teachers displayed their beliefs about communicative approaches in their evaluation of students' linguistic performances. For example, during an in-class presentation **Tammy** reported she would mainly look at whether the students were able to communicate their ideas in a confident manner and whether or not what their presentation seemed to make sense for their peer audiences. As for potential grammatical issues that might jeopardise the students' speech comprehensibility, **Tammy** reported asking the students to send her their presentation scripts beforehand for her to check. In the same vein, **Owen** reported he would only interrupt and correct the student's pronunciation on the spot if the mistake was serious (*'horrendously unintelligible'*). When it comes to grading tests, **Owen** considered a scoring rubric used as assessment criteria, which was argued was a necessity in any teacher's toolkit. While he admitted obtaining the scoring rubrics online, his selection approach was highly discriminate. That is, the choice

of the scoring rubric should be in keeping with the needs analysis of the students. According to **Owen**, needs analysis would be carried to out to check if it was possible for his students to achieve or close to achieve the highest achievement set by the criteria. If that was not the case, **Owen** saw it necessary to adjust it.

The findings also indicate that communicative competence might mean different things depending on which groups of students are evaluated. For example, **Prim** reported that curriculum must be, by regulations, revised every five academic years. To carry out this revision, the required information is obtained from surveys conducted with current and prospective career destinations of the graduates such as industries or schools. Some of the information also comes from the teachers' own observation of the students doing a practicum in school or working an internship with a local business. For students aspiring to pursue a language teaching career path, the teachers get the feedback from the students' mentors who report how well they teach. For those doing internship with some local businesses, the teachers assess how well they are able to communicate with clients. While it was not explicitly stated that different sets of criteria on evaluating the students' language performance might apply to each group, what **Prim** said was that while students studying to become a language teacher may need a higher level of knowledge of linguistics, pronunciation, and phonetics, this is not expected of those pursuing other non-teaching career paths since it might be less relevant.

While teachers working at University A and University B embrace a communicative approach to language teaching, unique to the latter context

(University B) is the special attention exerted upon practical applications and local communities. **Owen**, for example, asserted that his teaching objective is fulfilled when the students can realistically apply what he taught them in their daily life as much as possible. The teacher's role, as he saw it, is that of a facilitator whose responsibilities include providing theoretical content (e.g., vocabulary related to their future career path) and opportunities to practice through communicative activities from speaking to role-playing to giving presentation. This is evident in a Business English class where the teacher had the students form a company of three people with each person playing a designated role (e.g., sales manager, product manager, marketing officer). Using a group discussion format, the company had to come up with a product marketing campaign and give a presentation to the class. The teacher played a member of the audience, listening and asking questions at the end of the talk. When asked about his rationale behind the activity, **Owen** responded:

The most important goal of this course is for the students to develop confidence in communication. Their language might not be grammatically correct, but I'm fine with that as long as they can make themselves understood. I need to make sure each and everyone of them gets to say something by shooting questions at some students who don't speak as much. They all know in advance that I'll be asking them questions, so they are always on their toes and together tried to predict my questions and how to answer.

(Interview 4, 5 March 2018)

I observed in my field notes the students seemed to be putting great effort in using as many words they had learnt as possible. Although most of the

vocabulary they used were easy and of rather high frequency, **Owen** said this was a non-issue since what he wanted them to achieve was to be able to use these words in context: *“What I’m interested in is how well they apply what they know in real communication and not how many difficult words they can use,”* **Owen** explained (Interview 4, 5 March 2018).

Another recurring pattern in the University B context is that real-life application also takes a top priority in the teachers’ assessment of the students’ performances. For instance, in an attempt to encourage the students to use English more within and outside the classroom, **Mandy** reported having organised a one-hour extracurricular session where the students learn grammar based on communicative English: *“We expect them to be able to hold a conversation with us, especially English-major students. We can see that students start speaking English with us more despite being forced to. I was like, ‘you have to speak...this practice is compulsory,”* (Interview 4, 9 March 2018). The project was perceived as successful because, according to what **Mandy** reported, it had fulfilled its objective when the former students who used to be involved in the project and now have already started working in their chosen career came back and told her that they remembered and how it positively impacted their career. This has clearly shown that the students’ real-world achievement is seen as an indicator of the learning outcomes and thus the programme’s ultimate success.

Another topic at which the two universities depart is the anticipated target interlocutors of their students. At University B, teachers predicted that few of their

students would go on in their future career to have extensive contact with foreigners. **Owen** explained “*Realistically speaking, how many of these students will actually get to have extensive contact with foreigners?*” (Interview 3, 17 November 2017). Beneath this rhetorical question lies a subtext of anticipated audiences with whom the teachers thought their students would be using English. Expanding on his answer, **Owen** predicted that most of his students at the University B would likely find work in small or medium companies although it was possible that very few students may advance to higher positions or get admitted to large corporations where considerable contact with foreigners could be expected. Citing the University’s statement of mission, which is ‘is to create a capable graduate well-equipped to serve their local communities where they are from,’ **Owen** suggested that his students’ targeted community of practice would be a local community where English usage is presumably limited to business-related tasks that require little to no face-to-face contact with foreigners.

The scope of targeted communities of practice is perceived as relatively bigger in the case of students at the University A where the teachers believed most of their students would likely be in contact with foreigners in one way or another. For example, **Tammy** remembered asking the students what they wanted to gain from the course she was teaching and the responses she received include ‘to be able to speak’; ‘to have a conversation with *farang*’; and ‘to know what’s going on in *farang* movie’. From the students’ standpoint, **Tammy** said, their target goal for

learning English would be general use (e.g., conversation, watching English movies) and that English would be used largely to communicate with a so-called 'farang' or native speaker interlocutors who are, while not fixed to a particular country, clearly oriented toward those from the Inner Circle. **Tammy** said their responses were somewhat similar to what she had anticipated. In **Tammy's** view, locally-situated foreigners (living, working, or on vacation) would most likely be Thai students' targeted interlocutors with whom encounters are most common in a professional setting. Here, the targeted community of practice is specified to geographical locations (Thailand) where English functions as a professional tool. Findings point to the importance of knowing the students' likely future interlocutors, which will determine whether or not they will need to use English as a lingua franca.

Despite the stated merit of the communicative approach, which was reported by teachers as their major teaching principles, some teachers still found its implementation to be problematic. **Mandy** identified the 'grammar block' as the major roadblock to Thai students' achievement of communicative competence. Recounting her experience abroad in Malaysia, Mandy said how she was alarmed, even 'ashamed', after students studying in 'one of Thailand's most prestigious higher education programmes in the English language' were not able to engage in conversations using English with Malay people and kept asking her to translate for them. **Mandy** expressed her concern in the following excerpt:

I just want Thai students to go forward [improve] ... you need to know that the problem is not the accent but the fact that Thai students cannot overcome the 'grammar block' and end up not being able to speak English. They have not even gone past the point of being able to hold a conversation in English.

(Interview 4, 9 March 2018)

For **Mandy**, it is important to ensure that a solid grammatical foundation was addressed first and foremost before moving to a stage of building communicative competence. To make the matter more complicated, the teachers felt extra pressure to prepare the students for tests and exams, leaving them less time to do anything else. Given the impact of socio-political changes which had led to the reality of mobile communities of speakers and transnational labour markets where learners are more than ever expected to communicate, **Mandy** continued to say that unless the teachers succeeded in overcoming this challenge, Thai students would still risk limiting their job options even with a BA degree in hands.

In summary, CLT principles are prominent in the data. Communicative competence is emphasised and shared by all the teacher participants as the ultimate goal of language learning. However, they differ in their understandings of what it means to be 'communicatively competent' and how this is translated in practice. While some teachers focus on their lesson delivery (**Nat** adjusting her language to increase comprehension), others communicate their understandings via in-class communication-focussed activities and assessment. Although both universities have adopted communicative approaches in their pedagogical

contexts, they diverge in terms of focus and scope of targeted communities of practice. Lastly, teachers identified and discussed problematic areas with regards to the current English language teaching and learning approach.

4.8 Consistency in language use

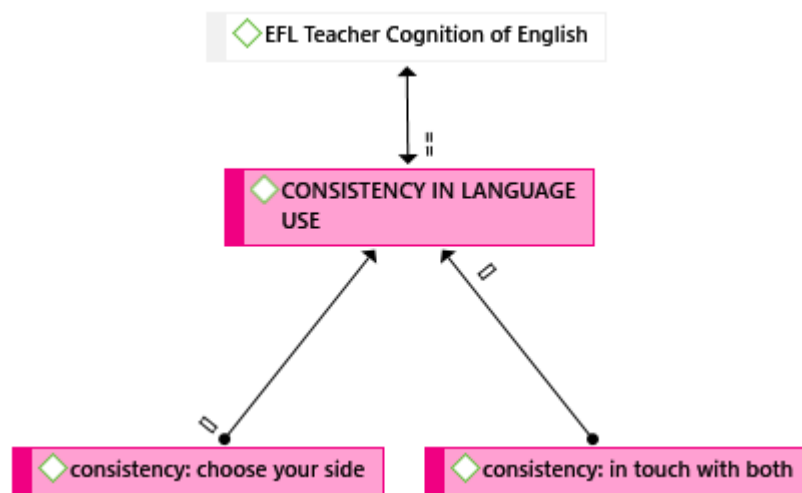


Figure 4.8: Consistency in language use

Emerging throughout the data is the teacher participants' different takes on the importance of maintaining consistency in language use. As presented in Figure 4.8, some teachers conceptualised the English language as consisting of mainly American English and British English standing at two opposite ends from which they felt obliged to pick one and stick with it, providing a range of reasons: avoiding misunderstanding; building a firm language foundation; forming clearly-defined learning steps and goals; and maintaining emotional equilibrium. Others adopted

a more flexible stance of intelligibility, seeing nothing wrong with shifting among English varieties.

Four (**Jane, Nat, Mandy, Devin**) out of seven participants agreed that the English adopted by the teachers should gravitate toward one variety, be it American or British English. For instance, **Jane** said the goal of her teaching practice was to help the students identify which “English camp” they belong to. Finding out where one’s allegiance lies was achieved through a “how do you say w & z” game in which the students were first asked to pronounce each letter the way they thought it was supposed to before the teacher later revealed which pronunciation matched with which variety. According to **Jane**, the students need to be able to observe their own preferred style in order to master the style of their own choosing, which would allow them to avoid potential misunderstandings that might occur. **Jane** also reported having told the students in various occasions that their choice of variety did not matter but ‘keeping it consistent’ did.

In very much the same vein, when a student adopted a British spelling in one word but decided to switch to American in another, the feedback **Nat** gave to the student was “*please stick to only one system to maintain the consistency*” (Focus group, 14 September 2017). While an inconsistent usage of varieties is never specified in the grading criteria, **Nat** said it was important for the teacher to ‘make them aware of the issue’, which is very likely to be important when they continue their education. “*They will have learnt it is important to choose one way or the other,*”

said **Nat** whose view was echoed by another teacher participant in her focus group. **Nat** viewed the teacher as every student's educational bedrock whose role included 'laying the knowledge foundation on English diversities,' from which one standard language pattern should be adopted. This would, she reasoned, provide a firm base on which the students can autonomously build their skills later on in their language learning journey where teachers' support may not be readily available.

Mandy concurred that the teachers' classroom practices needed to be consistent with and "*loyal to their chosen path*" on which they cannot afford to be 'elusive' about which variety to adopt, simply following along with the textbooks' linguistic style. In the following quote, **Mandy** discussed how Thailand had been 'very indecisive' on the matter and that it was time to have a clear approach to the students' learning:

'Anything will do' has for too long been our go-to approach. Knowing both varieties is of course a good thing, but we need to be more absolute on the path we take. We need to first set the destination we want to take our students. What do they want to study? Like University X where students are presented with different options. Want British English? Then register with this teacher.

(Interview 4, 9 March 2018)

Here, **Mandy** pointed to the importance of having a set goal and path on matters like curricular design or teacher hiring. For instance, the school can provide students with information on courses along with course instructors' 'language orientation' on which the students can base their decision with regards to which course they would like to register.

While **Mandy** reported having yet to decide herself which variety to take on in her classroom, she predicted that university's increased effort to internationalise might prompt the decision in the near future. Using Malaysia as a comparative example of an educational context where British English had been decided as the 'authorised' English, **Mandy** resolved that it was mandatory that students taking part in international cross-institutional collaborations like student exchange programmes receive training in the type of English used in the targeted country. Relating to her own first-hand exchange experience in the country, **Mandy** explained how she was put in a difficult situation because the kind of English she had been taught and therefore continued to use did not align with the linguistic norms of the targeted community of practice, as evidenced in the following narrative:

I would say, if we are to create a programme where we send our students to do internship in Malaysia then we need to train them in British English since that is what the professors there (Malaysia) conduct their English classes in. When I went there, I wasn't allowed to use American English because the professors disapproved of it. They weren't so happy when I turned in my work in which everything - the grammar, the vocabulary, or the spellings - was all in American English. I needed to fix everything into British English. So they have their norm, their own language use pattern. It's not like anything will do. We might say one thing in one country, but the pronunciation (of the very same thing) changes by country. It's probably not so obvious in Indonesia, but Malaysia is quite strict in terms of following an established set of rules.

(Interview 4, 9 March 2018)

For **Devin**, inconsistency was expressed as a feeling of “*odd' emotional dislocation*”, admitting he preferred staying course with one variety to switching

back and forth. *“Isn’t it weird to read the word <fast> as [fa:st] (BrE) in one sentence then read it [fæst] (AmE) in the next?” Devin* asked (Interview 1, 17 October 2017). An instructor of a course on ‘American literature,’ **Devin** recounted how he once caught himself writing ‘humour’ in British spelling before getting struck by a sense of ‘irony and awkwardness’ realising he was teaching ‘American humour’ using a British orthography. When asked in what way his speech might be affected supposing he was assigned to teach courses that centre around British English (e.g., British literature), **Devin** responded that since ‘the decision had already been made,’ it would make more sense to keep his American accent and make explicit to the students early on they would still read British English texts while interacting with an American-accented teacher.

On the other hand, **Tammy**, **Owen**, and **Prim** did not seem to find inconsistency much of an issue. **Tammy**, for instance, reported feeling ‘comfortable’ with students swinging between the two or more English spelling conventions as long as the message was clearly conveyed. **Prim** noted that to identify with one variety more than another in one’s teaching practice may be perceived as making a political statement/taking a political stance. **Prim** told me she had seen academics made an issue out of which school they graduated (e.g., in the US or the UK), which to a certain extent led to workplace polarisation in terms of teaching approach, research practice, and knowledge trends. In **Prim**’s opinion, the ‘real’ issue was not which English one sided with but the division that arose out of it.

Overall, while some teachers see it necessary that English language education in Thailand pursue one single path on which either British or American is selected as the main ‘variety of instruction,’ others believe inclusivity is more important and that the challenge remains how the balanced middle point can be reached.

4.9 Selecting instructional materials

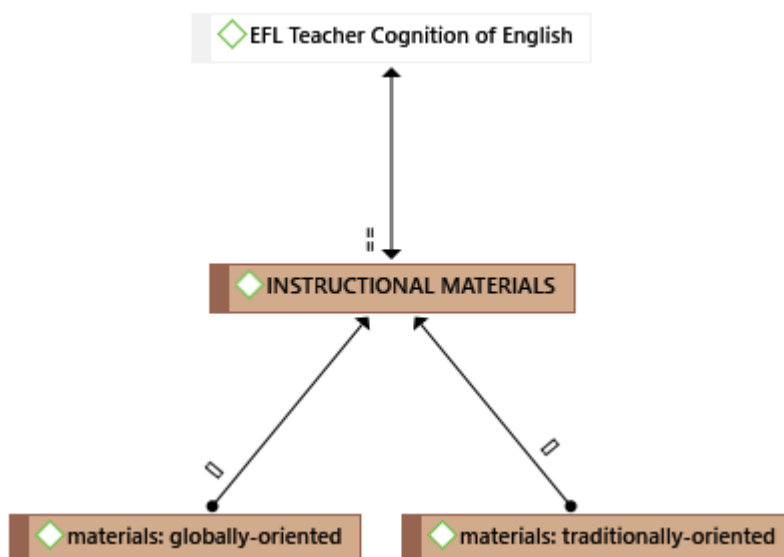


Figure 4.9: Selecting instructional materials

Instructional materials were coded as being globally oriented and traditionally oriented, as depicted in Figure 4.9. As indicated in the course syllabi, the teachers utilised a range of materials from course textbooks to supplements (e.g., handouts, PowerPoint slides, videos, websites, outside readings, E-learning

programmes, etc.). Each course featured at least one core material, which was either a commercially available textbook (six courses) or a teacher-developed material (five courses). A list of references pointing students towards more available resources was also often included. An overview of textbooks and relevant course materials collected during fieldwork for analysis shows a strong presence of standard Inner-circle English varieties, especially British English (see Table 4.1 below). To illustrate, the core textbooks used in the two courses **Jane** taught are from a British publisher (Cambridge University Press). The textbook employed in one of **Mandy's** courses is, as labelled by its publisher, written in British English. Out of nine selected materials of reference used in **Nat's** general English class for first-year English-major students, five are from British sources (one outside reading is a novel written by a British author), three from American, and one from Japan (written by a native English speaker).

Teacher	Course	students	Materials used
Jane	English for career preparation	3 rd -4 th year English major and non-major	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Core book: Downes, C. (2008). <i>Cambridge English for Job-Hunting</i>. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. (English type: British English) Heilman, M. E. & Saruwatari, L. R. (1979). When Beauty is Beastly: The Effects of Appearance and Sex on Evaluations of Job Applications for Managerial and Nonmanagerial Jobs, <i>Organizational Behavior and Human Performance</i>, Vol. 23, pp. 360-372. Myers, F. R. (2017). <i>Get the Job You Want, Even When No One's Hiring</i>. New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons, Inc. Pedula, D. S. (2014). The Positive Consequences of Negative Stereotypes: Race, Sexual Orientation, and the Job Application Process, <i>Social Psychological Quarterly</i>, Vol. 77 (1), pp. 75-94.
	English Level 3	Non-English major in other disciplines	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Core book: Doff, A., Thaine, C., Puchta, H., Lewis-Jones, P., & Stranks, J. (2015). <i>Cambridge English Empower Upper Intermediate Student's Book</i>. Cambridge University Press. Supplementary materials (videos, websites, PowerPoint Slides) Outside reading: <i>Sherlock Holmes Short Stories (Level 5)</i> (Penguin Readers) Cambridge E-learning: www.cambridgelms.org

Teacher	Course	students	Materials used
Nat	English 2	First-year English major	Teacher-developed handouts, Related websites, Power-point slides, Video clips
	Selected Topics in British Literature	3 rd -4 th year English major	Teacher-developed handouts and 4 literary texts <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Forster, E. M. <i>A Passage to India</i>, ed. by Oliver Stallybrass London: Penguin Books, 1989. Martel, Yann. <i>Life of Pi: a Novel</i>. Edinburgh: Canongate, 2003. Rushdie, Salman. <i>Midnight's Children</i>. London: Vintage, 1995. Woolf, Virginia. <i>Orlando: a Biography</i>. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1992.
Tammy	Listening and Speaking for Communication	Non-English major in other disciplines	Teacher-developed handouts
Devin	American Literature	3 rd year English major	Handouts (copies from anthologies and original books) and PowerPoint Slides
Prim	Practical English Phonetics	2 nd year compulsory for BA (English) and BA (Business English)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Core book: หนึนหนา รณเกียรดิ. 2558. <i>สัทศาสตร์เพื่อการออกเสียงภาษาอังกฤษ</i>.กรุงเทพมหานคร: สำนักพิมพ์มหาวิทยาลัยธรรมศาสตร์ ENG translation: Ronnakieat, N. (2015). <i>Phonetics for English Pronunciation</i>. Bangkok: Thammasat University Press.
Mandy	Business English 1	Non-English major from other faculties	Core book: Helliwell, M. (2014). <i>Business PLUS</i> . Cambridge University Press. ISBN978-1-107-64068-9 English type: International English
	Business English Reading and Writing Skills 1	2 nd year English major	Core book: Allison, J., & Emmerson, P. (2013). <i>The Business 2.0: B1+ Intermediate Student's Book</i> . Macmillan Education. ISBN: 9780230437883 English type: British English
Owen	Public speaking	2nd year English major	PowerPoint slides
	Business English 2	Non-English major from other faculties	Core book: Helliwell, M. (2015). <i>Business Plus 2: Preparing for the Workplace</i> . Cambridge University Press. ISBN: 9781107637641 English type: International English

Table 4-1: Overview of instructional materials used in the teachers' courses

In discussing the rationale behind the selection of classroom materials, teachers reported English varieties were rarely accounted for in the selection

process and that other factors like course content or students' proficiency were deemed more important. For instance, when asked to explicate her criteria for material selection, **Nat** said she focused on the content, level of difficulty, class types (e.g., skills training or literature), how easy it is to fit with the main lesson objective and that "*which variety it is doesn't matter*" (Focus group, 14 September 2017). This is also somewhat similar to her rationale behind choosing literary works for a literature-focused course, Selected Topics in British Literature, where priority was given to text length, themes, etymological/historical age of the work¹¹, and study aids availability (e.g., websites the students can consult).

At the time of the interview, **Prim** was compiling resources on which she could draw for the textbook she planned to write for her own course. The materials she chose must be those, as she put it, "*in which I find the content matches with the course descriptions. And the ones I picked just happened to be written in American or British English,*" (Interview 2, 16 October 2017). Seeing textbooks as an essential component of a language course, **Prim** said her goal was to ensure the content of the book was in line with the course descriptions as much as possible because the more compatible these two are, the more effective the instruction and the students' learning. **Owen** also mentioned browsing internet for teaching resources,

¹¹ Nat thinks it is important the students read the 'original' version of the work of which the language it was written in is not so 'archaic' that it becomes impossible for the students to understand.

reporting that his main concern was how well the content lined up with his lesson objectives, and therefore did not care about the extent to which those materials reflect the lingua franca needs of contemporary English learners.

There seems to be a reliance on ELT commercial textbooks, a majority of which are anglophone oriented (strong alignment with British and American varieties of English). **Prim** reported her preference for textbooks from American publishers as the pronunciation (featured in listening and speaking exercises) was easier and matched better with the spelling in her courses. **Mandy** found ideas presented in the textbooks written by American authors more contemporary and thus 'more suitable' for courses oriented toward business. In addition to the teachers' own preferences, the process of course book selection was also influenced by several major educational publishers who, as one of the teachers in focus group discussions stated, 'battle out' through various marketing strategies in order to win the textbook sales contract with the university. At University A, for example, first-year non-English major students in undergraduate degree programmes are required to take two foundational English courses per academic year (one for each semester). Given a large number of students required to register for the course (approximately 5,000 students), outsourcing a 'standardised' commercially available textbooks from the 'big players' in the ELT textbook market as the course core material is seen as the most efficient practice. Course coordinators are therefore faced with the task of surveying the textbook market

and negotiating with the publishers while considering a number of factors, from the degree of suitability with the course descriptions to level of difficulty and affordability of the book. According to **Mandy**, sometime the teachers “*can’t even afford it,*” (Interview 3, 30 October 2017) and simply had no choice but to go with a textbook by a publisher that offered a better discount. **Prim** felt less optimistic about the outcome of ‘the battle’, saying that the only certainty was that “*we will continue losing*” (Focus group, 19 September 2017) to these Western-based mainstream publishers who will inexorably keep having the upper hand.

Despite resorting heavily to Inner-circle-oriented commercial textbooks, many teachers purported pitfalls in terms of their suitability. For example, they found some lesson topics in the commercially available textbooks irrelevant and far-removed from the reality of the students’ lives. **Prim** reported she had observed ‘irrelevant’ and ‘inauthentic’ examples featured in several textbooks: “*Giving directions to places the teachers themselves have never been to, such as London Bridge, for example, has been brought up as an issue,*” (Interview 3, 30 October 2017). **Mandy**, as a course coordinator responsible for curating a list of textbooks from which all the other course instructors can collaboratively choose one as a core book for a course, reported feeling not only overwhelmed by the massive amount of ELT textbooks available in the market but also disappointed at the fact that the majority of these books feature little content that her students would find accessible. The following excerpt by **Mandy** suggests that excessive dependence on commercial textbooks can discourage critical thinking in teachers:

If someone asked me what kind of English I teach, I would probably say 'I don't know' because I was just following the textbooks we just bought from the publishers. We don't even have time to bother about who they are or which side they are on.

(Interview 3, 30 October 2017)

In other words, unless being directly questioned, the teachers would likely continue 'business as usual' without coming to realise by which principles their practices are informed. The 'side' of the commercial textbooks was a reference to the two major Inner-circle English varieties, American or British, into which the majority of mainstream ELT textbooks were categorised.

Another issue with commercial textbooks is their density. **Tammy** described how the majority of ELT textbooks were "*so packed that there is no room left for learning*," (Interview 2, 10 November 2017). Sceptical of the book's role in helping the students 'learn' the language, **Tammy** described the practice exercises featured in one textbook as 'impractical', explaining how a listening cloze exercise has 'too many' blanks that even she as a teacher found it impossible to complete. From her point of view, some, if not all, commercially available textbooks only trained the students 'the art of mastering the exercise' rather than providing them with the learning space where students actually polish and improve their language skills.

To address the issues associated with commercial textbooks, some teachers decided to make their own materials to improve the learning experience of their

students. However, these decisions remained underpinned by Inner-Circle norms. For instance, **Tammy** enlisted help from the other three co-teachers to create and compile a course textbook. These in-house materials came in two versions: one for the students' use and the other with answer keys to exercises and some notes for the teachers. An investigation of these materials reveals they are a compilation of articles, activities, and relevant YouTube video links acquired from different sources to make up a unit of study. The majority of content concentrate on standard inner-circle varieties (British English or American English), with a strong representation of Standard British English. This is likely because of the presence of two British teachers who were teaching the same course but with different groups of students from **Tammy**.

Another example is when **Mandy** resorted to a downloadable text-to-speech software to facilitate her students' comprehension. Recounting the time her students stopped paying attention in class because they could not make sense of the audios accompanying the textbook, **Mandy** reported 'going the extra mile' by creating her own materials to complement the main lesson. Although the software allowed **Mandy** to adjust the speed and play the texts aloud, a range of 'voices' through which the scripts could be played in was limited to two of the major English accents, the standard US English and standard British English. While admitting the voice options available in the free version were 'not real' and 'too robotic', **Mandy** believed the students' increased attention and understanding was

facilitated by the technology. For **Mandy**, such outcome could compensate for lack of authenticity and absence of a wider variety options.

Instances of globally-oriented English language teaching in teaching materials came up very rarely. Only one explicit mention of ELF in classroom materials was raised in an interview with **Mandy**. Citing 'Business Plus' which was used as the core book for her Business English course, **Mandy** noted that the students, when presented with a Vietnamese-accented English which was featured in one of the book's listening exercises, "*began to realise that English is now being used by someone closer to them than it was before,*" (Focus group, 19 September 2017) attributing this rising awareness to the increasing presence of ASEAN and the publishing industry's attempt to adjust in response to the change. She also agreed that while international content like visiting tourist attractions in a foreign country might be inevitable, it would be nice, if not necessary, for these textbooks to feature some local elements with which her 'inexperienced' students can at least feel identification. For example, the textbook could feature foreign characters in a Thai context (e.g., workplace, school, restaurant, etc.).

Nat reported there was time when locally produced and globally-oriented English materials were included in a foundational course for non-English major students but eventually 'replaced' with materials with standard accents which the teachers deemed more suitable for early-year undergraduate students. Some teachers still found the idea, for example, of having Thai characters conversing with

one another in English quite ‘weird’ and uncomfortable. This sense of uneasiness might be, according to **Mandy**, a result of linguistic hegemony embedded and embodied in a form of commercial instructional materials. **Prim** added: *“It is difficult for us Thai people who are not native speakers (of English) to write an ELT textbook that native speakers approve of,”* (Focus group, 19 September 2017).

When elements of ELF did appear, the decision to put them in the materials was not for the purpose of raising the awareness of the students or exposing the students to different varieties of Englishes but purely coincidental. Upon receiving a course syllabus from **Nat** during fieldwork, I flipped through and was surprised (and excited) to see an article titled “How quickly is the English language changing?” and “What’s the future of English?” listed as the main reading for one class. I asked **Nat** if I could observe this class and to which she agreed. On the day, I found out that the text was assigned as pre-class reading whereby the students practised the lesson’s targeted grammatical functions (e.g., noun clauses). In class, the activity functioned mainly as a platform on which students discussed specific, pre-selected grammar points. Neither the featured content nor the takeaway messages conveyed in the article was addressed. The inclusion of ELF content therefore seemed to be incidental to the main objective of the lesson in which it was used.

To summarise, a lack of consideration for a globally-oriented approach to the teaching and learning of English is reflected in the teachers’ choice of instructional materials. Such lack of concern may be due to other factors taking

primacy such as the course content and the level of fitness to the course descriptions. A majority of teachers seem to be relying on commercial textbooks, acknowledging the major roles a commercial textbook play in their classrooms while also recognising its problematic aspects. Some teachers also discussed how they attempted to address these problems through self-created materials. While some elements of globally-minded teaching materials are present, they are not prioritised in the teachers' course materials selection decision.

4.10 Chapter summary

This chapter reports on the EFL teachers' cognition of the ideology of English and the extent to which these views are realised in their language classroom. It has highlighted the teachers' various perceptions regarding the ownership of the English language, the notions of standard-nonstandard English, ideologies of mono- and multilingualism, and the emerging phenomenon of English as a lingua franca. Through a detailed account of experience unique to individual teachers, the findings have shown that the teachers varied in their awareness and understanding of English varieties. The concept of 'communicative competence' along with consistency in language use also emerge as salient themes in the teachers' discussions of approaches to language teaching and learning. Finally, the teachers' rationale behind the creation and selection of instructional materials to be used in class have also been addressed.

The second research question concerning the teachers' enactment of their L2 teacher selves from a global-oriented language teaching perspective will now be addressed in the following chapter.

5

Findings RQ-2

How do the teachers develop and enact their L2 teacher identities from a Global Englishes perspective?

5.1 Introduction

By providing a detailed account of the Thai EFL university teachers' perceptions of English, the previous chapter revealed that the teachers are similar as well as different in their subscription to ideological views around English, resulting in various understandings and manifestations of concepts in their pedagogical practices. This chapter will examine the teachers' self-concept as an EFL university teacher, focusing on how the teachers' sense of professional agency is formed and shaped through strategic uses of resources available within different aspects of their identity.

Based on the premise that an individual has several beliefs about him/herself, resulting in myriad roles and distinct identities which are not wholly separate but merge almost seamlessly one into the other (Omoniyi, 2006), this thesis conceptualises the notion of EFL teacher identity as the aggregate of a

person's self-beliefs as a teacher (hereinafter the 'teaching self') and as someone who has learnt and used English (hereinafter 'English-using self'). These two overlapping identity constructs, the English-using self and the teaching self, both constitute an important part of who they are as an EFL teacher.

First, I briefly outline the teachers' learning and teaching background, which includes their language learning histories, pre-service teacher education, and in-service teaching experiences, before moving on to the main findings that provide answers to the research question. These include examination of 1) the teachers' English-using self; 2) the teacher's teaching self; and 3) the interplay between the English-using self and the teaching self, which is further delineated in three stages: the onset of EFL teacher identity construction, teaching practices, and professional development.

5.2 Teachers' learning and teaching background

Of all seven teachers in the study, four started their English education early, either in kindergarten (**Jane** and **Nat**) or in their first grade of elementary school (**Tammy** and **Owen**). The schools these early-starters went to were Thai-medium private schools that normally introduce English as early as kindergarten. In contrast, public schoolers like **Devin**, **Prim**, and **Mandy** had their first English class in their fifth grade, from which point students were required to take an English language course as part of the curricular requirements. Thai was reported to be the

main language at home for all the teacher participants, none of whom comes from a family of teachers (i.e., their parents work in non-teaching professions). Only **Jane** and **Prim** reported having siblings working as a university lecturer and a schoolteacher, respectively.

The teachers had almost all of their English subject classes in school with Thai teachers, except **Nat**, whose enrolment in an English-mediated programme during high school allowed greater exposure to ‘ajarn farang’¹², or foreign teachers, than her pre-high school time in a traditional school English curriculum that typically focuses more on grammar. Among the seven teachers, the earliest exposure to foreign teachers was fourth grade (**Nat**) and the latest was in the first-year of undergraduate study (**Mandy**), with the most concentrated exposure being in high school or bachelor’s studies. The typical scenario was reported to be a weekly encounter in an English class focussed on practicing listening and speaking skills.

Most teachers noted limited exposure to foreign teachers during their time in school. For example, **Tammy** reported an English subject class with a foreign teacher in high school was scheduled once a week or not at all if the school could not find available teachers. **Devin**, who reported having had his first foreign

¹² A generic Thai word, ‘*farang*’ was commonly used to refer to ‘a foreigner of white race’ regardless of where they may come from.

teacher in middle school, said the contact he had with foreign, English-speaking teachers was *“so few I could describe it as a once in a Blue Moon’ encounter,”* attributing this lack to his being in the Science and Math programme where *“they (foreign teachers) didn’t get assigned to us anyway”* (Interview 4, 6 March 2018). **Devin’s** experience was in contrast with **Jane**, who was in an English-German programme to which priority was given when it came to the allocation of foreign teachers: *“To be fair, the school didn’t assign “this farang teacher” to every class; they were selective to which class they would assign the farang teacher”* (ibid). This highlights the role of curricular structure in shaping the experience learning English. At upper secondary level, students in the Thai educational system who have finished compulsory education (typically at the age of 15) either follow a general academic pathway or a vocational one. All the teachers in the present study pursued the general academic pathway in which they have to choose among three most common academic tracks. These include science-mathematics (THAI: สายวิทย์-คณิต /Sai Wit-Kanit), arts-mathematics (THAI: สายศิลป์คำนวณ/Sai Sin-kam-nuan), and arts-(foreign) languages (THAI: สายศิลป์ภาษา/Sai Sin-pasa). The purpose is to adhere to a tradition in the Thai school system in which high school students are prepared for admission into their respective undergraduate programmes. For example, to be eligible for admission into science and technology programmes in the universities, such as medicine, engineering, or chemistry, students are required to be in a science-mathematics track, while those wanting to study in humanities or social

sciences (like history or foreign languages) select an arts-based track. Except **Devin**, all of the teachers pursued some form of arts-based track where English features as one of the core components. This means the students in “arts” tracks supposedly get more English classes per week than those in the sciences track where minimal emphasis was placed on language-related subjects.

A Bachelor of Arts (BA) was awarded to three teachers (**Jane, Tammy**, and **Jane**) who spent four years to complete the programme. The other four received a Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.), which took them five years, the last year of which was typically designated for a practicum. In terms of subject areas, six out of seven teachers had an English-related undergraduate degree, of which four (**Devin, Prim, Mandy, Owen**) were in teaching English. **Nat**'s bachelor's degree major was English whereas **Tammy**'s was Business English. **Jane** was the only teacher who had a non-English-related undergraduate degree (i.e., International Relations). Note that all University B teachers graduated from Rajabhat universities (**Prim, Mandy, Owen**). Three teachers (**Tammy, Prim, Owen**) are currently working at their alma mater.

All the teachers have earned at least a Master's degree, which is a minimum requirement of a university teacher. The subject areas include English (**Nat, Devin, Owen**), Applied Linguistics (**Tammy** and **Prim**), Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) (**Jane**), and Comparative Literature (**Mandy**). None of the teachers with an undergraduate teaching degree continued their Master's education in teaching (English-related or not). Two teachers (**Prim, Devin**) did

their Master's on a part-time basis while maintaining their full-time teaching job in school. All of the teachers conducted their Master's studies in Thailand, except **Jane** who earned two Master's degrees in the UK (Master's of Education as her first and Master's degree in TESOL as her second). The time it took them to complete the Master's study ranged from one to five years.

Upon applying to teach at the university, all the teachers held at least one Master's degree but varied in their teaching experience in higher education settings. At the start of the project, the working experience at their current institution ranged from three to 17 years with **Mandy** and **Tammy** having the least experience (three years) and **Prim** as the most experienced. All of the teachers except **Mandy** had taught English either formally or informally in non-higher education settings before becoming a university teacher. The teachers usually first gained their teaching experience during or immediately after finishing their undergraduate studies, and quit when they became a university lecturer. **Nat**, for example, started her tutoring career in her third undergraduate year and continued for three years until she got the lecturer job. **Devin** reported having his first formal teaching experience at one of the government's non-formal education programmes in his first year of university while **Tammy** said it was after she graduated from her bachelor's degree when she gave a one-time grammar lesson for a friend's younger brother. Upon receiving their first degrees, **Owen**, **Devin**, and **Prim** began teaching as full-time schoolteachers. Of all the teachers, they were

the only three who had taught in a school setting (one year for **Owen**, four years for **Devin**, and nine years for **Prim**). Five out of seven teachers (all except **Prim** and **Mandy**) used to offer private tutoring sessions before their current teaching job in the university, with **Jane** and **Nat** being the only teachers with teaching experience in a tutor house, usually a cram school (where high school students take intensive lessons to prepare for tests and exams).

At the start of the study, three teachers (**Jane, Devin, Mandy**) had a doctoral degree. Additionally, one teacher (**Prim**) was writing up her thesis; one (**Nat**) had started applying for universities for doctoral studies, and two (**Tammy** and **Owen**) were considering doing a PhD. Two doctoral degree holders (**Jane** and **Devin**) obtained their degrees from a British university whereas **Mandy** continued her doctoral studies in the same department in which she did her Master's studies in Thailand. While **Prim** and **Mandy** had chosen to carry out their doctoral studies in Thailand, the rest of the participants who had not yet been awarded a PhD all expressed their preference to obtain their doctoral degree abroad. **Nat** expressed interest to do her studies in the UK with a focus on children's literature; **Tammy** hoped to study curriculum development in English-speaking (inner-circle) countries, and **Owen**, while currently focussing on applying for an assistant professorship, said he was already looking into TESOL-related programmes in Australia.

Two teachers (**Jane** and **Devin**) reported having had a formal English education in the UK. While **Jane** decided to go to the UK because studying abroad

had always been her dream (she did a two-month summer course during undergraduate studies and later spent eight years for a Master's and a PhD), **Devin** claimed he selected to go to the UK because it was where he got accepted into a doctoral programme. For **Nat** and **Tammy**, their experience abroad was limited to a conference presentation during their Master's studies and occasional vacation trips. **Prim** did only a short intensive course as part of her school's professional development programme in Wales, Australia and Singapore when she was teaching in a private school. **Mandy** went to Malaysia for a one-year exchange course as part of her doctoral studies. **Owen** was the only teacher participant who had never been abroad for educational purposes.

5.3 Teachers' English-using self

In a broad sense, the teachers' English-using selves evolve organically within the context of individual self-interpretation of language learning histories. The following sections presented the findings which indicated that the construction of the Thai EFL teachers' English-using self, while most flexible in the early years, emerged throughout their learning lifespans, encompassing multiple dimensions from English self-image to English self-efficacy to attitudes toward English.

5.3.1 English-using self-image

The teachers developed the idea of their English-using self in terms of linguistic self-image as reflected in their different positions on the traditional-global ideology continuum. Findings indicated three sources on which the teachers' English-using identity may be constructed: their past language learning histories, their self-observations, and other people's comments. First, some teachers drew on prior English learning histories to define their current English use. For example, when asked if they considered their use of English 'standard,' there was no hesitation in **Devin's** and **Jane's** reply. Referencing her number of years spent in the UK, **Jane** confidently said that her overall English was "grammatically perfect" (which she associated with standard) as well as "*90% British English*," (Interview 1, 16 October 2017) and that she would give her writing skill a full score on Britishness. While acknowledging that he was "trained" in a variety of accents having had teachers from different language backgrounds, **Devin** admitted having committed to "*walk the American path*," (Interview 1, 12 October 2017) since his undergraduate times when he decided that its 'mass appeal' would take him far on his journey as an English language teacher. Both credited their standard English-using selves to past educational histories on which their self-evaluations were made.

In addition to past language learning histories, the teachers also recognised how self-observed behaviours had come to bear on this aspect of their English-

using self. **Nat** believed her English was a 'mix of British and American' but with a stronger British flavour, observing herself pronouncing the word <better> with the British /t/ sound and not with the American flap /t/. **Mandy** reported her use of English as gravitating more toward informal American English with a personal tendency to avoid its British counterpart as evidenced through various reported examples, including setting the language default on her computer as American English, teaching students the American ways of ending a formal letter, and adopting American spelling norms and pronunciation.

Apart from self-evaluations, the teachers' English-using selves seem to be socially situated and determined by how their use of English may be perceived by others. First, teachers often referred to, and sometime relied on, other people's views to help them form ideas and beliefs about who they are. For instance, **Devin** reported himself being more accustomed to American English, reasoning that this was due to him being in contact with more American teachers: "*There were many American teachers at the university where I did my Master's. They said something like 'Devin, you are American. Your accent and stuff' [in a content voice, smiling]*" (Interview 1, 12 October 2017). **Jane** also reported she used to think of her English as American, referring to the time in the United Kingdom during her Master's studies where on several occasions people would comment on her speech as having an American characteristic: "*You've got an American accent! they would say. Every time I speak, people will pick up on it*" (Interview 1, 16 October 2017). In these

examples, both teachers' sense of English-using selves was reinforced by comments received from other people but in a different way. On one hand, **Devin's** English-using self was bolstered by what he perceived as complimentary remarks from his American teachers. For **Jane**, however, the comment was disparaging. According to **Jane**, although such comment used to be regarded as a compliment back in the days when she was doing her undergraduate degree in Thailand, **Jane** said it was less appreciated this time around.

Some teachers constructed their linguistic self-image based on a combination of resources, which sometimes resulted in an ambivalent English-using self-image. Although **Tammy** attributed her tendency to use American English vocabulary to past frequent contact (and thus familiarity) with the American-authored media or books her mother always gave her when she was a child, she hesitated to characterise her English as standard, observing herself as still 'making grammatical mistakes' and 'having Thai accent' in her speech. **Prim** also felt reluctant to identify her English-using self as reflecting a native-speaker standard, claiming she was abided by the standard rules but this did not always align with others' definitions of standard: "*I just use it following the 'native-speaker' general rules, but to other people my use of English may not look similar to the native speakers' standard,*" (Interview 3, 6 November 2017).

Teachers exploited external views not only to reflect on who they are but also to display a certain dimension, often a positive one, of their English-using self-image. While **Prim** found American English 'chil-chil' or relaxing (TH: สบาย สบาย), 'less

restrictive' and giving her 'a peace of mind' where she did not need to be overly-concerned about grammatical correctness, she also emphasised a need for precaution as this 'user-friendly' connotation can easily result in an 'anything goes' usage of the language and consequently create a negative impression on other people: "*It doesn't mean you can make so disastrously incorrect a mistake that people will think of you as uneducated. That's not right,*" (Interview 3, 6 November 2017). Attempts to use British Received Pronunciation (RP), **Prim** remarked, may backfire when used incorrectly and result in becoming a target of contemptuous remarks: "*We try to use it, but we use it wrong. And people will look down on us even more. There are so many things to consider if we want to use it [RP],*" (ibid). Elaborating on this point, **Prim** highlighted the importance of "user's awareness" as it can help prevent one from being perceived in a negative fashion. Having such awareness means having sufficient amount of knowledge of the language to allow for correct usage of it.

While teachers recognised social interactions played an important role in the formation of their English-using selves, they differed in their interpretations of and responses to what others thought of them and their English language skills. The most illustrative example was in the following focus group discussion episode where the teachers addressed the fluency-accent issue:

T1 *Fluency and accents are two different topics. You can be fluent without having to have a native-like accent.*

- T2 *Fluency and accent are not the same thing. Actually, I was thinking whether I should take it as a compliment or some form of domination/colonisation when someone said, "You have an American accent!" to someone like me who has never studied abroad.*
- T3 *An insult, maybe.*
- T1 *It's like we are competent only when we have American accent. For me, when I got told that I had American accent I would just snap back saying "Well, I'm comfortable with my Thai accent". But I also used to wonder like you did.*
- T2 *Is it a compliment, or a discriminatory act in which the implication is that we are equal with them?*
- T1 *Well, I would take "you are fluent" as a compliment, but don't tell me I force myself to have an accent.*
- T4 *Or they probably didn't mean anything. You know, an empty comment.*
- T1 *That could be the case, but this is a Third-world inferior complex.*
- T3 *But such attitude has already taken deep root¹³ in us...*
- T2 *It's an attitude in which you are not a native speaker, yet you have achieved what is only possible for the natives.*
- T1 *I think this applies to those studying English as a foreign language. No matter your nationality, and you don't even have to be a Thai, as soon as you can speak fluently, suddenly people will be like 'wow, hi-so'¹⁴. They focus more on your accent, but not what you have to say.*

(Focus group, 14 September 2017)

¹³ In Thai, when something takes root, it becomes implicated and ingrained in one's consciousness or character.

¹⁴ The term 'hi-so' was used colloquially to mean someone from a high-status society commonly associated with wealth and well-educated background.

In the discussion above, teachers pondered about the implications of statements such as ‘you sound like a native speaker!’ or ‘your English is really good!’ when they were brought up. One teacher (T1) saw ‘you are fluent’ as a compliment, noting the privilege attached to the appearance of sounding native-like, which was perceived as an attribute belonging to someone from ‘high society.’ However, being told that her speech has the characteristics of an American evoked just the opposite reaction, pointing out that while speaking with an American accent was often mistakenly equated with high competency, she would rather stick with her Thai accent. Another teacher (T2) suggested that such feedback, especially made by people who supposedly identify themselves as (native) speakers of such accent, appeared derogatory and “*a discriminatory act in which the implication is that we are unequal with them*” when framed in the fact that she as a receiver of the feedback had not studied in the country where the variety is commonly spoken. One teacher’s use of the term ‘third-world complex’ also demonstrated how teachers may adopt others’ views of themselves into their self-concept. The negative connotation of the term may suggest that being labelled as ‘having an American accent’, while likely to be well-received by EFL learners, can be detrimental to the teachers’ English-using self-image and self-esteem.

5.3.2 English language self-efficacy

The present study finds that the teachers' self-efficacy in English contributed to their English-using self in several respects. Despite following uniquely different learning paths, it was found that the teachers' English-using self was commonly characterised by their self-efficacy in English that changed in response to various experiences with English as they passed through different stages of learning. In this study, English self-efficacy was found to be domain-specific and linked with many factors, including 1) scores in English subject, 2) past English teachers, 3) peers, 4) increased exposure to English-mediated environments, and 5) English as a personal passion project.

Although all the seven teachers demonstrated a positive overall outlook on English, their self-efficacy in English seemed to be domain-specific (i.e., take effect only in a specified sphere of activity or skill). Findings suggested that such specificity may be due to several reasons, some of which involve attributions to one's character (to avoid possible damage to one's esteem). For instance, both **Prim** and **Mandy** reported they liked the interactive parts of English such as conversation, short dialogues, or role play, but tended to avoid reading or grammar because of their limited attention span or memory. **Prim** claimed she preferred *“something that I can immediately apply. No time wasted on memorising tiny details. Reading passages to answer some questions, no I don't like that. My attention span*

was pretty low when reading,” (Interview 4, 13 November 2017). Likewise, the following was **Mandy**’s response when asked to self-evaluate her English abilities:

I can speak. I like speaking more than memorising. I’m terrible at memorisation. But if you ask me to speak or do anything that involves communication with foreigners, I believe I can get on just fine. When it comes to contests or exams that require [other] English skills, I wasn’t quite up to the task

(Interview 4, 9 March 2018)

In another instance, the teachers’ language self-efficacy was specified to certain domains due to the quality of experience with teachers in charge of such domain, as evidenced in the following except in which **Jane** narrated her course selection decision:

When we had to choose either the advanced writing course or advanced reading one, I first went for the writing course where I had an amazing Thai teacher. I was happy. Then I took the reading one and met this super tough American teacher. I couldn’t make out what he explained. I didn’t get him at all, so I withdrew right away and registered for some other courses instead. I never touched the reading-related courses again as I was afraid that I might end up having this American teacher as the course instructor.

(Interview 5, 6 March 2018)

As a result of her negative experience with an English reading teacher, **Jane** opted for non-reading courses and lost opportunities to improve her English reading skill.

English subject scores

The scores the teachers received for English subject tests were found to contribute to their English self-efficacy. The teachers perceived getting a good score in an English subject as an indicator of improved language competence. For instance, **Prim** perceived her English-using self as academically lacking because “*my grade was about 2.6*” (Interview 1, 2 October 2017). One of the most illuminating examples came from **Jane**, whose self-efficacy in using English depended on what scores she received in an English subject class. In the following excerpt, **Jane** recounted how her scores suffered because she could not understand the lesson given by her middle school English teacher due to her accented English:

When I was in Mathayom two¹⁵, my teacher came from the southern part of Thailand. Not only was what she said incomprehensible to me but also characterised by a ‘Thong dang’ accent. I understood nothing, and I hated English. The lowest point for me was when I got a C for my English test.

(Interview 5, 6 March 2018)

The example above suggests how scores might be perceived in relation to the teacher’s beliefs about their English proficiency. **Jane**’s initial dislike of English seems to have been rooted in her frustration at what appeared to her the teacher’s

¹⁵ The second year of a six-year secondary school in Thailand (students aged about 14)

unintelligible speech, which resulted in Jane feeling less able to understand class content and then led to poor performances on tests.

Past English teachers

The teachers reported that a greater sense of English self-efficacy may be related to the quality of relationship they had with past English teachers. For example, **Owen** claimed he felt thankful for his English teachers in a private elementary school where he was given solid foundation in English skills before he moved to a public school. While at the public school, he indignantly admitted that his English deteriorated because he was placed in the lowest-performing class and thus gravely neglected by the teachers who *“just showed up, gave us some work to finish by the end of the class and that was it. No explanation. No practice. My grades grazed D and F throughout my middle school years,”* (Interview 1, 12 October 2017). In 10th grade, however, his English self-efficacy significantly improved when he met Peter, a New Zealander, a volunteer teaching assistant, and **Owen**'s first-ever foreign English teacher. This encounter was described as 'life-changing':

I remember it very clearly. I felt like I could understand what the teacher said, and that made me want to learn English. He taught I know he came from New Zealand, so I went on learning words relevant to the country. Oh there are many sheep there. What's the English word for sheep? I kept doing this so that I could interact with him in class...I was so happy. Even my friends were surprised, 'how did you do that?' they said. I was proud and motivated to improve myself.

(Interview 1, 12 October 2017)

In a similar vein, both **Prim** and **Mandy** mentioned how they felt a greater sense of confidence and acceptance when their utterances articulated in English, no matter how ungrammatical they might have sounded, seemed to make sense to the interlocutors, whoever they were. This change in the teachers' self-efficacy, and thus English-using self, may be attributed not only to being able to understand what the teachers said but also to feeling understood and acknowledged.

Their past English teachers' teaching style and focus were also found to influence the participants' English self-efficacy. For instance, while her first impression of English was 'painted with inspiration', **Mandy** reported this inspiring sensation disappeared once she started her middle school where "*they taught grammatical forms then had us do practice exercises, and I just went blank ... we learned to ace the test and this made me feel disengaged from the language*" (Interview 2, 20 October 2017), attributing her demotivation to the newly-assigned teachers who 'focused on grammar' and 'taught for exams'

Peer groups

The present study finds that the teachers' past learning peers also contributed to their English self-efficacy. For example, peer pressure proved an important turning point for **Mandy**, who said, "*I could only manage to get the hang of it when reality hit me hard in my undergraduate years where everyone was good and smart. I had to work hard to keep up with them,*" (Interview 4, 9 March 2018). Realising that her peers were all better than her, **Mandy** reported her motivation

to study English returned in university where competitions were intense and desire for self-improvement materialised. However, **Mandy** also found her confidence dropped when she realised she was “*at the bottom of this academic pool*” in her Master’s studies, especially when she took her grammar skill into account. This suggests that viewing oneself in relation to one’s peers can boost as well as hinder motivation and self-efficacy.

In another example, upon returning from a two-month study abroad in the UK, **Jane** deliberately attended mostly speaking-related classes because she believed she would be able to do well relative to her course mates. However, she was also self-conscious about some of her peers with study abroad experience:

I often went to speaking-related classes. Here (at the university), many of my classmates were my seniors and juniors from high school. Many of them were also former AFS students with experience abroad, so I wasn’t so confident (at first). But I started getting good grades (A) and my classmates began to recognise me. I ended up having a lot of friends... My classmates ’d be wowing at me when I did my presentation in front of class and that made me super happy. I could see 2 easy A’s in plain sight.

(Interview 2, 9 November 2017)

While **Jane’s** sense of self-efficacy in English initially seemed to be determined by how she would be perceived by other students, especially those with study abroad experience, she managed to reclaim her confidence by drawing on her scores, thereby regaining recognition from peers.

Increased exposure to English-mediated environments

Another component prominently affecting the teachers' English self-efficacy was increased exposure to English-mediated environments. This typically involved an extensive period in which the teachers learnt or used English with people of different sociolinguistic backgrounds, such as study abroad experience, becoming an English major, or enrolment in an English-as-a-medium-of-instruction programme. For instance, **Jane** explained in the excerpt below how a language summer course abroad constituted a significant transformative experience:

My English improved a lot. English made more sense since I got back and had become a grade-raising subject. I got almost straight A's for all the 15 English courses I took, seven of which I took beyond requirements... I was confident to speak English while my friends in Thailand still shied away from doing so. I had been practising a lot and the teacher in the UK always corrected me. I had gained and learned so much from them. It was such a valuable two-month time.

(Interview 5, 6 March 2018)

When **Jane** went back to Thailand to continue with her undergraduate studies, she realised that her increased competence in English distinguished her from her peers, characterising her as elite and academically successful. She was admired and respected.

In another example, **Nat** mentioned as a child she was considerably exposed to English educational media such as Disney picture books, animated videos, and computer games, which she believed had contributed to her English aptitude. **Nat** said, "*Harry Potter, for example, was one of the English books I like. I started by*

reading the English version first then I read it again but this time in Thai,” (Interview 4, 7 March 2018) recalling the bilingual approach to learning English. **Nat** also described English as her strongest as well as her favourite subject in school, referring to several occasions where she was nominated by teachers as a class representative for competitions like English quizzes, essay writing competitions, story-telling, or Scrabbles tournaments. This sense of achievement, **Nat** explained, urged her to ask her parents if they could support her decision to attend an English Programme in high school where her English learning progress was significantly accelerated. In a similar fashion, **Devin** believed he had an aptitude for English, which he felt *“stood out”* of all the school subjects and gradually became his favourite subject in high school. His English was also, according to **Devin**, ‘outstanding’ in his undergraduate years *“as it was my major subject. I was also in teaching discipline and most of the subjects were about English. I got good scores and a top place of my class in almost every subject”* (Interview 4, 6 March 2018). **Owen** also reported he is where he is today due to his changing self-efficacy in English brought about by an English major programme which, **Owen** claimed, *“changed my life dramatically. I was so crazy back then, trying to speak English as much as I can”* (Interview 1, 12 October 2017).

Personal ‘passion project’

Teachers were also found to derive a sense of English self-efficacy from their pastimes. For example, **Mandy** stated her English was ‘shining brilliantly’ during

her undergraduate years when she decided to participate in an English club's pen pal activity where she exchanged letters in English with international friends from overseas. For several years, **Mandy** were ardently engaged in this camaraderie pastime, which then provided her with a long-term opportunity to practice English and improve her self-efficacy in the language. In another instance, **Nat** considered herself an avid fan fiction reader and translator since childhood. Growing up she was passionate about fan fiction, most of which was written in English. **Nat** described in the excerpt below how English had become part of her English-using self:

I was about 13 when I found a very good fanfiction of my favourite video game on the internet. It was so interesting that I became interested in pursuing a translator career... In my undergrad years, I started translating English fanfictions to Thai if I found them interesting. I also offer translation service to anyone who wanted to have their Thai fanfictions translated into English. Then I began writing my own fanfiction in Thai and English, and I posted them on the website.

(Interview 4, 7 March 2018)

Even though her passion to become a translator didn't materialise professionally, **Nat** managed to gain skills and confidence from the activity. Like **Nat**, **Owen** reported he found leisure interest in independent reading to which he owed his progress in English. From novels to grammar encyclopaedias, Owen recounted how he would spend hours in his school library reading whatever he came across: *"It changed my life. It taught me everything... I wanted to improve myself. Before I really hated English because I didn't understand it, I wasn't good enough. I thought it was difficult, but reading helped a lot"* (Interview 4, 5 March

2018). Through books, **Owen**'s self-efficacy in English was boosted and at the same his attitudes toward English turned more positive.

5.3.3 Attitudes toward past English teachers

Attitude is one of the ways through which we understand ourselves and communicate our feeling of self to the world. As such, it constitutes parts of our identities. Without exception, the teachers perform their English-using self through the attitudes they develop and express toward the language. Particular to the present study are the numerous ways in which the teachers' attitudes toward English, and thus their English-using self, seemed to be shaped by their attitudes toward past English teachers prior to in-service teaching experience.

The study found that Thai EFL teachers' attitudes were closely associated with their past English teachers in various aspects. First, the teachers seemed to have developed their attitudes toward English in relation to the teachers' linguistic attributes. For example, **Jane** reported her first *farang* teacher left her with a negative attitude toward English because of his accented 'unintelligible' English:

We weren't completely impressed with this teacher whose English accent we thought was funny because he was a farang but a Filipino whose accent wasn't perfect. His Filipino accent was unintelligible to us. I had class with a real farang teacher when I went to university. They were all native speakers, either British or American and no other nationalities.

(Interview 5, 6 March 2018)

In the above example, **Jane** seemed to differentiate her Filipino teacher from a ‘real *farang*’ teacher on the basis of his/her accent when speaking English, suggesting nuances in the participants’ conceptualisation of the term. As evidenced from the following excerpt, the students’ attitudes toward the Filipino teacher was reflected through their disruptive behaviour in the classroom, which **Jane** justified by citing the students’ (hers included) high English proficiency:

But we are in a king class¹⁶, so why did they assign this teacher to us? We ended up making fun of the teacher’s accent, and it was usually by those cream-of-the-crop students whose English was already excellent. They teased him/her so much that the teacher went to tell the principal that he/she wanted to quit teaching our class.

(Interview 5, 6 March 2018)

In associating ‘real *farang*’ with British or American nationals who speak English as a native language, **Jane** and her classmates inadvertently delegitimised her Filipino teacher’s professional authority, and quite likely, self-esteem.

Teachers also expressed their attitudes toward their past English teachers in terms of teaching skills. Although **Jane** attributed her initial dislike of English to her teacher (“*I didn’t like English initially because of the teacher*”), it was also the teacher who convinced her to think otherwise. Thanks to her high school teacher in her tenth grade who “*explained grammar so well [she] understands it more,*” **Jane**

¹⁶ Some Thai schools arrange their classrooms by ability, placing the highest-achieving students in one cluster (typically referred to as a ‘king room’) and the lowest in another.

began to look at English more favourably. Similarly, despite describing his early experience learning English as ‘so-so’ and ‘nothing special’, **Devin** recalled high school as the time when he first became impressed with English and inspired to keep learning it, attributing his motivation to learn English to positive experience with one English teacher who he described as not only skilful but also confident:

It takes only one bad teacher to damage your potentials. I was fortunate to have met a great teacher, and I was hooked. The teacher was intelligent. Knowledge-wise, she is spot on. In class, she has a kind personality and always look confident and carefree when she teaches. I remember her teaching English grammar one class where she asked everyone to close the books before beginning a lecture. She wrote on the board everything we need to know about, as if every concept was firmly established in her mind.

(Interview 4x, 6 March 2018)

As shown in the excerpts, both **Devin** and **Jane** seemed to regard their past Thai teachers of English highly, mostly commending their expertise in grammar teaching.

When expressing attitudes, the data also demonstrate how the teachers came to place more value on their past teachers’ content delivery skills over their other identity categories like racial status or accent. For instance, despite her previous criticism of the local teachers’ accented English, **Jane** developed a more positive attitude after her return from a two-month summer school experience in the UK. As shown in the following comment, **Jane** came to appreciate the teachers’ expertise regardless of their nationality: *For me, I never really mind whether I got a*

Thai teacher or a Farang teacher as long as they have a sufficient knowledge to teach me and I would be happy (Interview 1, 16 October 2017). For **Nat**, she always respected her Thai teachers for their teaching competence regardless of their accent:

Some of my Thai teachers have what would typically be perceived as non-standard. Even with that, I don't mind at all because we care more about the content and that I can understand them perfectly fine.

(Interview 4, 7 March 2018)

As opposed to Thai teachers, foreign teachers were often recalled in association with hands-on learning activities. For instance, **Tammy's** experience studying English with a foreign teacher was described as *“fun”* and *“full of many games and listening exercises...as if what they wanted to achieve was that we were able to use the language. They didn't teach grammar or content. Just practice exercises”* (Interview 4, 4 March 2018). **Mandy** mentioned her American teacher during her undergraduate studies who, compared to Thai teachers, *“likes to make us speak...or set us up for some activities like participating in debates or being a local guide or tutoring elementary school students”* (Interview 4, 9 March 2018), which she also added as more fitting to her learning style (*“I wasn't so interested in academic stuff but more into extracurricular activities”*).

For some teachers, their attitudes toward English seemed to be directly linked with the quality of student-teacher relationship they had with their past teachers of English. In recounting her English learning experience, **Prim** often

mentioned “*the teacher who asked me to read aloud English passages to the whole class because she knew my potential*” or “*the teacher who saw great promise within me despite my mediocrity*” (Focus group, 19 September 2017) in conjunction with her favourable attitudes for English. Interestingly, positive attitudes towards the English language in turn did help **Prim** overcome fear of her English teacher in high school, as illustrated in the following excerpt:

Deep down I like English, but I'm not ok with the teacher... I was so afraid to ask questions. The teacher's method was students finished the pre-reading articles beforehand and competed to answer the teacher's questions. Whoever got it right would get points. Those who couldn't answer would get punished. I was stressed and needed to take paracetamol occasionally. It was so scary. But given my optimistic outlook I still like English and keep studying it.

(Interview 4, 13 November 2017)

To summarise, the teachers' English-using self was described in relation to a particular English variety based on past language learning histories, to self-observation of their own language behaviours, and to comments received from other people. As evidenced in the present data, not only was the teachers' sense of self derived from a collection of inner fragmented experiences via the internal reflection of themselves, but also a process of reconstruction of their self-image through contact with the outer world. Integrated as part of the teachers' English-using self was often their own English self-efficacy and attitudes wherein a multitude of learning experiences play a significant role.

5.4 Teachers' teaching self

Among several emerging findings was that the identity of EFL teachers synthesised large amounts of experiences and knowledge, not only about the language but also teaching. Like the English-using self, the teachers' teaching self was defined as how individual teachers manifest the aspect of self as it comes to bear on teaching. In the present study, contributing to the EFL university teachers' teaching self includes how the teachers gained pedagogical knowledge and expertise relevant in the classroom, and institutional-level teacher-course allocation.

5.4.1 Learning the art of teaching

Findings revealed that teachers not only attained pedagogical knowledge from different sources but also started learning how to teach at different points in their learning biography. Almost all the teachers in the present study reported having first learnt how to teach via formal pre-service teacher education either in their undergraduate degree or in their Master's studies. **Devin** and all University B teachers (**Prim, Mandy, Owen**) completed their pre-service teacher education that also earned them their first degree (B.Ed. in Teaching English), while **Tammy** and **Jane** only received pre-service teacher training when they furthered their higher education. **Nat**, however, was the only teacher with no formal teacher education. This suggests that pre-service teacher education was not a shared experience among the teachers since teaching at a university level in Thailand, unlike

schoolteachers, does not require any formal teaching license. That is, some teachers may begin their teaching career without ever attending a formal language teaching course or a practicum, and their first teaching experience may also be their first time in a real classroom.

Teachers, especially those without formal teaching training, seemed to rely on their prior learning experience to construct their teaching self. **Mandy**, for example, reported her current teaching style was inspired by her past teachers who took students outside to 'see the real things': "*I didn't quite get it then why they did that, but now I found myself using the same method*" (Interview 2, 20 October 2017). Another piece of evidence in this regard was the case of **Nat**, who, apart from offering private tutoring to children preparing for school exams and attending a three-credit ELT course during her Master's studies in which she remembered having only designed a sample lesson plan, reported having learnt how to teach mostly by "*sorting through my memory what my teachers did in class*" (Interview 3, 14 November 2017). Immediately after her Master's studies, **Nat** applied for a lecturer job at University A where she was invited to give a teaching demonstration, as depicted in the following excerpt:

During a teaching demo there was this one reading passage I needed to teach students. What I did was thinking back to the time when I was a student. What did my teachers do to teach a particular lesson? They would begin with a conversation leading us to the topic before they continued with other activities...I just 'refreshed' my memories of the time when I was a student and recalled how I had been taught.

(Interview 3, 14 November 2017)

Instead of seeing pre-service teacher training as the only source from which one learned how to teach, the teachers 'refreshed' their past language learning experience to perform their teaching self.

On the contrary, pre-service teacher education seemed to promote the teaching selves of those who had attended it in a number of ways. For one thing, it served as a main information source on which teachers relied in terms of teaching, as evidenced in the following excerpt where **Mandy** claimed to have drawn on her pre-service teacher education during her mock teaching demonstration:

As it happened, I studied teaching in my undergraduate years so I wasn't completely lost. I brushed up my lesson-planning skills, looked up on the internet how other people did their lessons, and then tried to adapt the content I recently learned in my Master's so it better fit the class.

(Interview 4, 9 March 2018)

Teachers also reported they learnt the teaching basics and theories from courses offered in teacher education programmes. According to **Tammy**, the experience in her pre-service teacher education seemed to shape her beliefs about teaching in general, and not exclusively about English:

They didn't teach me English but the principles of teaching. The teachers' style was to make us think. There was no right or wrong answer. The theories I learnt in my Master's studies really did change my beliefs about teaching, and the way I was taught made me more open to new ideas.

(Interview 1, 25 October 2017)

Tammy emphasised how her teacher educator's teaching style helped her to become more open-minded, an opposite experience from her time in high school where there were rights and wrongs. It is worth noting that **Tammy's** ongoing volunteer service teaching experience in what she called 'Children's Moral Development Project', which she started during high school and has continued until now, also provided her with the lens through which she experienced her teacher education and positioned herself upon entering the English language teaching industry. Additionally, discussions about teaching theories with her teacher mentor combined with more reading on her own were reported to be **Tammy's** essential resources, contributing not only to classroom practices but also to identity formation as a university teacher.

Another contributing element to the teachers' development of their teaching selves was practicum experiences. All teachers, except **Jane** and **Nat**, had undergone a practicum. Although varying in length, the practicum component was reported by the teachers to happen usually in the final semester of their last academic year. Apart from **Tammy**, whose graduate practicum course lasted only three periods (about nine hours of class time), other teachers who had their teacher education as part of their undergraduate degree were all required to complete a full-term practicum in elementary or secondary schools affiliated with their university programmes. The teachers reported diverse experiences in their practicum. On narrating his practicum experience during his teacher education,

Owen emphasised his identity as a capable and trustworthy student teacher who could run a class without a teacher mentor's presence:

The teachers went to other classes but not mine because I can control the students. They just let me teach. My language wasn't ugly, and writing a lesson plan was an easy task for me..., so the teachers trusted me, they knew I could manage because they used to teach me. They were fond of me and always encouraged me to do my best.

(Interview 3, 17 November 2017)

Practicum was a positive experience for **Owen**, whose teaching self-efficacy was lifted by his teacher mentor. In contrast, common in the teachers' descriptions of their practicum experiences was the challenges that appeared in various forms but at the same time shaped their identities as teachers in some way. For example, **Tammy** noted the challenging aspect of teaching a group of high-achieving students while also aware of her shortcomings:

I took it easy. I knew I still wasn't that good at teaching, the practice, the theories... I was assigned a level-five class (middle to upper intermediate English proficiencies). I organised a role-play activity for the students who were already really good and collaborative, so I didn't do much and graded them based on the course criteria... the class was successful because the students were already performing well and willing to communicate.

(Interview 3, 24 November 2017)

Prim also mentioned a similar experience, noting how she needed to adapt to a new environment and improve herself "because the kids at this school were really, really good. None of my friends chose to be placed at this school... it was challenging for me. I had to give it my best shot preparing the lesson" (Interview 2, 16 October 2017). In both examples, teachers decided on pedagogical actions

against the backdrop of the students' abilities, suggesting the interdependency between learner profiles and the teachers' construction of their teaching self.

Extensive teaching experiences in different learning environments was also a factor that promotes the formation of one's teaching self, particularly for those without formal classroom teaching experience. Unlike other teachers who had a teaching degree, **Jane** was the only teacher who did not have a practicum course due to the nature of her programme where, according to **Jane**, "*most students were already teachers. They were there just for the degree*" (Interview 1, 16 October 2017). Despite not having the practicum component, **Jane** had managed to gain teaching experiences in an informal tutoring setting both before and after her pre-service teacher education. Her first tutoring session was in her first undergraduate year and most of her students were school children. Upon receiving her first Master's degree in international relations from the UK and starting her first full-time job at one of the embassies' Thai-English consular services, **Jane** decided to apply for a part-time tutor position at a private franchised English teaching school. Although **Jane** believed the school was 'some sort of a diploma mill,' it was where not only was she first formally trained as a teacher but also inspired to embark on a TESOL education:

In the 60-hour training, they taught us everything they thought we needed to know about English language teaching - consonant sounds and the like. We even had assignment. I thought it was pretty systematic but, as I found out later, it actually wasn't. The approach was audiolingualism, in which everything was simply out-of-context

but I mistakenly took it as systematicity. And I saw the students could actually speak English using their method. So I went home and discussed with my family about getting my second Master's degree in Teaching English.

(Interview 2, 9 November 2017)

From the excerpt, we can see how **Jane** was drawn to teaching not only because of its methodical aspect but also its perceived effectiveness which she experienced first-hand.

The teachers' teaching selves were also influenced by their perception of the teaching profession in that it can serve as a predictor of not only job motivation (i.e., why they enter the profession) but also what they do once already in. The university teaching job was defined both in terms of its benefits and tasks/obligations. Most teachers considered a university teacher to be a 'good' and 'respectable' job, highlighting its privileged status and high professional security. **Devin** described a teacher in a moral term, depicting it as a profession "good at its core" as the act of teaching itself was perceived to be a form of merit-making: "*Being a teacher is an intrinsically virtuous occupation. It educates people*" (Interview 4, 6 March 2018). Some teachers like **Nat** and **Prim** were drawn to the teaching job, the lecturer position in particular, because it was believed to be 'in high demand', and thus provided them with a sense of security.

In addition to its perks and incentives, the teachers also defined the teaching profession in terms of roles and responsibilities they must execute within their pedagogical contexts. **Owen** said to be a university teacher, constant learning is

necessary: “*You can’t just sit still and do nothing*” (Interview 3, 17 November 2017). Given her prior role as a course coordinator for English foundational courses attended by students of diverse backgrounds and with different capabilities, **Tammy** perceived teaching as requiring a great deal of creativity, empathy, expertise, and talent in order to bring the students onto the same page.

5.4.2 Course allocation

Data analysis indicated that course allocation can shape the teachers’ teaching selves to a certain degree. All the teachers reported a shift in the type of courses assigned to them, moving from general English when they first started to more specialised topics as they gained experience in their career. Novice teachers were mostly assigned to teaching basic English courses (e.g., foundational English for first-year students) while more experienced teachers were usually more likely to teach specialised or advanced topics for English major students, as evidenced in **Owen’s** comment below:

So initially I was assigned basic course subjects that can be taught by anyone...for the first couple of years I repeatedly taught the same courses. It was only in my third or fourth year when some English major courses like English fictions fell into my hands.

(Interview 4, 5 March 2018)

Such shift was reported to be institutionally influenced. The teachers said they were given the opportunities to teach a certain course usually because the

previous course instructor was unavailable or no longer able to teach. **Prim** reported having had to take up English Practical Phonetics and other linguistics courses due to departmental lack of staff with direct specialisation in linguistics. A course called English for Service was reassigned to **Jane** due to the fact that the teacher responsible for this course just resigned and a replacement was therefore needed, suggesting that the majority of the courses were imposed upon rather than voluntarily chosen by the teachers.

While the teachers exercised a certain degree of autonomy regarding which courses they preferred to teach or whether to accept or decline the courses being assigned to them, the freedom with which the teachers could decide which course to teach seemed to vary by institution. Differences were found in how courses were assigned at each university, highlighting the interplay between individual teachers' negotiation power and the level of authority of the programme head.

At **University A**, course assignment was managed by the head of the programme, whose responsibilities include overseeing the curriculum and scheduling the programme timetable. **Devin** commented that, as the head of the programme, the criteria for delegating courses he needed to consider include expertise, the willingness of the teacher, and administrative factors (e.g., a teacher's timetable and availability). He also noted in the excerpt below the challenge of course assignment:

I used to think the teachers' lack of expertise could be disadvantageous for both the teachers and the students. However, I

started to feel that might not be the right way to think about it. You know, sometime the teacher is willing to teach then it's difficult for me to not allow him/her to teach the course, and I can't just force someone to teach when he/she does not want to. I'm not sure how this is managed at the university level but in this faculty, I could say the teachers enjoyed a considerable amount of freedom. In practice I can't really force the teachers. There are also many factors to take into account, and I can't say which criteria is more important. But personally speaking, I feel that the teacher's expertise should be prioritised.

(Interview 4, 6 March 2018)

While **Devin** considered the teacher's expertise as the most important criterion when assigning a course, there were several other factors he needed to consider.

At **University B**, on the other hand, courses are assigned in a meeting where each teacher can vote on their preferred courses to teach based on what they think they are good at. Given that teaching staff were also shared among the three undergraduate degree programmes (Bachelor of Arts in English, Bachelor of Arts in Business English, and Bachelor of Education in teaching English), the teachers were allowed to teach a wide selection of courses. However, following the new rules which established that courses within a particular curricular programme must be first assigned to the teachers affiliated with the programme, teachers were more restricted with regard to the subjects they were eligible to teach. For example, after looking at a range of course options she thought she would possibly be able to teach, **Prim** voluntarily signed up to teach an English for Tourism course following the programme meeting where, in **Prim's** words, "*we decided it was time*

each individual teacher returned to our track and started teaching courses within our programme,” (Interview 5, 8 March 2018). Given these newly introduced regulations, **Mandy** realised she must urgently adapt, believing her educational experience in Comparative Literature might not be easily transferable to the Business English programme curriculum with which she is currently affiliated: *“When I looked at the new curriculum with courses like English for Negotiation or English for Logistics, the realisation hit me. We can’t help but adapt and learn,”* (Interview 4, 9 March 2017).

Teachers also varied in their reactions and responses to change in their assigned courses. For example, **Prim** coped with the change by preparing extensively with emphasis on what she could do:

For preparation, I studied the old course syllabus and consulted with the previous instructor on his teaching approach. There are also plenty of resources from books to websites. The content itself is highly relatable, which makes some good discussion topics with the students. I’m planning to invite experts on tourism to be our guest speaker from whom both my students and I could learn...Although this will be my first time teaching the course, I find it quite alright because the content is still English, just a bit of tourism content added. I should be able to make the class less stressful given part of my identity as a novice applied linguist with limited background in pure linguistics. I also felt like it should be beneficial, so I finally decided to take it.

(Interview 4, 13 November 2017)

It was clear from the extract **Prim** also drew on her background in English to cope with the change in spite of her relative lack of teaching experience.

Another illustrative example was in the case of **Mandy**. When **Mandy** first started teaching at University B, she was assigned to teach almost every subject

available in the programme from General English for non-English major students to more specialised English courses for English majors. **Mandy's** favourite course was Children's Literature, which was described as 'the most successful course I have ever taught so far' due to high student participation. Upon her return to teaching after finishing her Ph.D., **Mandy** found herself re-located to the Business English undergraduate programme where she felt tremendous struggle. Apart from the regret she felt for the fact that she no longer got to teach the Children's Literature course, which had been reassigned to other teachers while she was doing her PhD, **Mandy** suffered considerable discrepancy between the positive experience as a result of her growing attachment to the course she used to teach (*'it was something I felt very attached to'*) and the new challenging environment where her English self-efficacy plummeted:

Now we've got more students from other disciplines like banking and finance students in our Business English I, I had to learn more about what Business English was, which was not an issue because there were commercial textbooks that we can follow. However, the real change I began to notice was that I could not afford to teach just English literature but needed to be able to teach English for Specific Purpose courses, which I find very difficult...I suffer because I'm not enjoying it. I'm no science-track person, and they still assign me to teaching English for Specific Purpose for the science track? This is not ok. How could they assign me to teaching English for Logistics? It is so not who I am.

(Interview 4, 9 March 2018)

As the teachers learned more about the curricular structure and gained more experience, they developed preferences in terms of the subjects they would

like to teach and as well as those they would rather avoid. For instance, **Owen** took into account his educational history, saying he would agree to teach any course as long as its content was aligned with his knowledge background. **Jane** also said she would be happy to teach any courses delegated: *“it doesn’t matter whether the assigned courses are easy or difficult because I feel I can pull it off. I will be like, ‘yeah, just give it to me. I’ll manage. It’s alright”* (Interview 5, 6 March 2018). Despite the freedom to choose what she would like to teach, **Tammy** would feel slightly concerned if she were to be assigned with academically strong students to whom she had less exposure compared to low-achieving students with whom she felt more familiar. However, she still preferred courses being assigned to her: *“Other teachers might be more selective, but I’ll teach anything except English for Specific Purpose courses like English for Nursing or English for Science. I’d rather avoid them if I have a choice”* (Interview 4, 4 March 2018). In the same manner, **Prim** said she did not *‘feel confident when it comes to teaching English for Specific purpose courses’* as she *‘typically go for what I know I’m good’* (Interview 4, 13 November 2017). Here it was indicated that not only were the teachers aware of their areas of expertise, but they also variously drew on their English self-efficacy in their self-assessment of which courses they were able or unable to teach.

Emerging from the data was the notion of course ownership. For some teachers, having a course of their own signalled some form of identity development as they traversed along their professional path. As **Owen** put it, *“it was only natural for instructors to hold onto the course they previously taught. The common*

understanding was that we don't have the right to choose courses already 'owned' by someone" (Interview 4, 5 March 2018). **Jane** argued that while there was little change in the course arrangements from when she first started working, she noticed differences in the degree with which she identified with a particular course: *"Today I have my own course for which I'm fully responsible. In our programme, I would say the ESP courses have come to be my style,"* (Interview 5, 6 March 2018), which suggested that increased experience or familiarity with the assigned courses may have led some teachers to brand themselves into a certain 'style' or specialisation.

Apart from level of teaching experience in higher education settings, another component that factored into course allocation was the teacher's racial status. A common practice observed among the teachers is that grammar or reading classes were normally assigned to Thai teachers whereas classes on oral communication skills (e.g., listening and speaking) were often given to foreign teachers. The most illustrative example of this is from **Mandy's** account of her exchange year in Malaysia, during which, as **Mandy** recounted, a classmate approached her and said, *"Look, with your accent how could you work as an English teacher?"*, wondering if she was 'ruining the language' given her role as a teacher. Below was **Mandy's** response: *"I replied 'No, not really' then I told that person not to be overly concerned since we don't teach listening-speaking skills anyway. We had*

foreign teachers teach these skills. Our job as a Thai teacher is to make English easier”

(Interview 4, 9 March 2018).

According to **Nat**, this skill-based assignment of courses may be due to a preconception:

On the one hand, compared to Thai ajarn, native-speaker teachers exude some natural compatibility with the [English] language, and so seem to fit better with teaching English for communication teaching, especially listening and speaking skills. On the other hand, Thai [teachers] have been forced with grammar lessons since they could remember and therefore make a better teacher of grammar and reading comprehension.

(Interview 1, 3 October 2017)

Nat noted that failing to conform to the stereotypically preconceived views of racialised course assignments (where Thai teachers were expected to teach grammar and reading/writing courses while foreign teachers were in charge of courses on oral communication) might prove to be problematic for both the teachers and students. On one hand, while believing that foreign teachers could somehow manage grammar-focussed and/or reading courses, **Nat** admitted ‘accent shyness’ was possible, predicting some degree of awkwardness on part of the Thai teachers: *“I would probably feel awkward myself because I would probably realise I have to run my class using more English or all in English. I would also expect the students to get more or all from me”* (Interview 1, 3 October 2017). On the other hand, students who got Thai teachers for a listening-speaking course might not be happy with the arrangement: *“What if they complained or felt like they were being treated unfairly? Why can’t I get to learn with the native [teacher]?”* **Nat**

hypothesised while also expressing concern for another group of students assigned to a foreign instructor, most of whom had little to no command of Thai language. Hence, these students might struggle in circumstances when explanations of complex grammar concepts in Thai were needed.

Tammy shared **Nat's** concern, recounting an incident where students assigned to a Thai teacher filed a letter of complaint to the course coordinator asking for a foreign teacher:

The course was taken by dek inter¹⁷. They were divided into three sections, two with ajarn farang and one with Thai teacher. The section who've got assigned Thai teacher sent a letter to complain and ask for ajarn farang, saying they want the accent and practice the listening skills.

(Focus group, 14 September 2017)

The above comment indicated a possibility of a perceived sense of inadequacy and unfairness that might flare up among students.

In summary, together with the English-using self, the teachers' teaching selves may be viewed as part of their overall sense of themselves as an EFL teacher. The formation of the teachers' teaching selves was promoted by several components, including the teachers' evaluations of themselves as a teacher, their

¹⁷ A colloquial term for students enrolling in an international programme

attainment of pedagogical knowledge, and the institutional assignment of teachers to courses.

5.5 The interplay between the English-using self and the teaching self

Central to the findings above were differences in the salience of the teachers' two selves. While grounded in both their teaching self and English-using self, the teachers' overall sense as an EFL university teacher was found to have emerged from the varying degrees with which they identified with each of their two selves. The interplay between these two selves to form one's professional identity was observed at three different stages: 1) onset of EFL teacher identity construction, 2) teaching practices, and 3) professional development beyond the classroom. In the following sections, findings on each of these stages will be presented respectively.

5.5.1 Onset of EFL teacher identity construction

Against the backdrop of interactions between the teachers' teaching self and English-using self, the teachers agentively and variously drew on linguistic resources available via their English-using self to form their overall EFL teacher identity. While typically perceived as a 'foreign' language and/or a school subject, English was mobilised by the teachers as resources for identity construction in three different ways: 1) to complement their teacher identity (**Tammy, Devin,**

Owen); 2) to trigger awareness and adoption of one's potential as a teacher (**Nat** and **Jane**); and 3) to reactivate their teacher's self and maintain a sense of job security (**Prim** and **Mandy**). The following sections outline these three interaction patterns in detail.

English-using self to complement one's teacher identity

Central to the first interaction pattern was the relative salience of the teachers' teaching self among three teachers (**Devin**, **Tammy**, and **Owen**), who identified more closely with the pedagogical side of their identity and thus placed the teaching self at the core of their EFL teacher identity. The findings indicated these teachers linked their core identity fundamentally to the teaching profession along with its entailing roles and responsibilities. That is, they considered themselves a teacher first, then an English language teacher. As an example, **Tammy** reported she had always wanted to be a teacher since she was in school due to a positive experience gained from volunteer teaching "*where I got to teach and learned so much. It was good both for me and for others. I had fun*" (Interview 4, 4 March 2018). To pursue her identity goal, **Tammy** had formed a plan to get a formal degree in teaching, but it was her mother who asked her to reconsider:

I was originally planning to apply for an undergraduate degree in education but my Mum intervened saying I should go with liberal arts so I have more career options just in case I changed my mind later. She said if I studied education my English might not be as good as those in the humanities. So I decided to pursue a liberal art degree first, then I could do a Master's degree later if I still wanted to be a teacher.

(Interview 4, 4 March 2018)

Following her mother's advice, **Tammy** went for a bachelor's study in Business English while sustaining her desire to teach through the volunteer work which she continues today. Although her motivation to become a teacher was clear, **Tammy** said at the time she "*wasn't sure which subject I should teach because I didn't know what I liked. When I had to choose which subject to study in university, I had a feeling that I could make it out successfully and happily if it was English*" (Interview 4, 4 March 2018). Thus, **Tammy** didn't mind which subject she would specialise in as a teacher, but ultimately chose English based on what she thought would be best for her career and emotional well-being.

While **Tammy** took a slight detour before embodying her identity as a teacher, **Devin** went straight into a bachelor's degree in teaching English and started his professional journey as an English school teacher. **Devin** stated his motivation to become a teacher was underlined not only by the memory of joy he felt 'seeing the teacher enter the classroom' and 'demonstrating what I know', referring to his childhood experience in which he showed an experiment he learned in class to other kids in the neighbourhood. **Devin** narrated in the following excerpt how he had long 'immersed' himself in teaching before he came to be one:

I realised what I wanted to do fairly quickly. As an elementary-school-age kid, I already knew I wanted to be a teacher. I initially wanted to be a social studies teacher, but it changed to math and then to English in high school. I was in a science-math programme, but at some point I realised I was less interested in science but more invested in English because I was impressed with the English teacher. In essence, the reasons why I became a teacher never changed. I always wanted to

be a teacher, but it was the subject that kept changing until I found English.

(Interview 1, 12 October 2017)

Similar to **Tammy**, **Devin** stated his goal was to fulfil his childhood dream to become a teacher, no matter what subject or what level. English was ultimately selected because **Devin** perceived his knowledge of English and teaching know-how as a value added to his teaching self. He also noted the higher social status of teaching English compared to other subjects such as PE: *“I think there’s an added chicness to it ... because we are teaching in a Thai-speaking community where people will be like, ‘oh you teach English!’ so it’s like a gimmick”* (Interview 1, 12 October 2017). This suggests **Devin** embodies two separate entities in which his teaching self was prioritised while his English-using self was regarded as an add-on to complete his EFL teacher identity.

Like **Devin**, **Owen**’s teacher identity emerged from childhood experiences. In the excerpt below **Owen** recalled role-playing a teacher as a child, an experience that constituted his idea of the teacher’s self-image:

I wanted to be a teacher, no, I must be the teacher. I would role-play as a teacher in kindergarten and imagine small bushes as my students. It was probably in my subconscious since I was a child. I wasn’t sure why but I knew I wanted to be a teacher. Looking back, I could see myself sticking pieces of paper on the wall, moving from room to room like teachers going from class to class. I had tried other jobs like acting but it didn’t feel like myself. I felt like I was faking. I believed teaching was a job most fitting for me.

(Interview 1, 12 October 2017)

While becoming a teacher was cultivated in his formative years, **Owen's** decision to teach English was fostered later. Similar to **Devin**, English was chosen as **Owen's** specialisation because of its perceived prestige and his high interest in English, stating that an English teacher "*looked pretty high-class and substantial*" (Interview 1, 12 October 2017). It was during his undergraduate studies when **Owen's** English-using self and his teaching self amalgamated. There, he was inspired by course subjects such as English short stories and novels due to the embedded cultural elements, which kept him wondering "*how these might be interpreted in different cultures, which made it fun to be incorporated into class*" (Interview 2, 30 October 2017).

To sum up, the findings revealed **Tammy, Devin, and Owen** as representing EFL university teachers who had always felt like 'teachers at heart'. The three knew early on they wanted to be teachers, but the subject matter shifted as they went about their educational journeys to realise this identity goal. English had become instrumental in achieving their identity goal because the teacher's English-using self positively identified with it, either in terms of proficiency (they can do well) or attitude (they like it) or both. Hence, English arguably came to be perceived as having self-expressive benefits, giving each of them power to express their core identity as a teacher as well as values associated with the identity. Upon pursuing the goal (becoming a teacher, no matter what subject), the teachers' English-using self (sense of self as someone using English) served to complement their teaching self, hence completing the holistic sum of who they are professionally.

English-using self to trigger awareness and adoption of a teacher identity

For some teachers, their EFL teacher identity seemed to emerge as they reflected on career aspirations and decided on who they could become professionally. As illustrated in the cases of **Nat** and **Jane**, some teachers were not fully aware of which identity goal to pursue. For example, **Nat** remembered numerous career aspirations in her childhood, including voice-over artists, writers, or translators. Her family, however, didn't consider these a full-time occupation that would provide money or stability. Given her drawing ability, **Nat** was advised by her teacher to gain admission into decorative arts undergraduate programme. **Nat** recounted how this process made her aware of the role English expertise played in her professional journey: "*During the admission interview, one of the examiners told me I only made it to this round all because of my exceptionally high English scores. They said my drawing was average,*" (Interview 4, 7 March 2018). While the artist aspect of herself was repudiated, **Nat's** English proficiency was acknowledged, which, in turn, boosted her English self-efficacy. **Nat** managed to get into her chosen course, but only stayed for half a term before she dropped out and entered a humanities faculty a year after. Meanwhile she continued attending an English language course, recognising that English was after all her most 'favourite' and 'strongest' of all subjects.

For **Nat**, her motivation to teach English was reported to be consequential: *"My dream was teaching literature. And it was English literature just because I happened to have background in English language,"* (Interview 4, 7 March 2018) suggesting how English served as a key that provided her with access to teaching literature at University A's English programme where she is currently working. According to **Nat**, she would be fine teaching literary work of *any* language, but it ended up being English due to her previous learning experience of the language. Moreover, **Nat** believed she was able to gain access into academia not because of her teaching experience but her expertise in English literature, referring to her teaching demonstration she needed to give as part of the lecturer job interview: *"My hands were shaking ... I had never done that before, and I think I got the job because they really needed someone to teach literature"* (Interview 4, 7 March 2018). This suggested that becoming an EFL university teacher was believed to be possible because her language expertise compensated her lack of classroom experience. Although being a teacher of English was not in her original plan, **Nat** reported the experience of sharing knowledge with others brought her joy and desire to stay in the profession.

In a similar manner, **Jane** discovered her passion in teaching English only after working as a freelance tutor in a private English school where she realised her skills and experience in the English language could grant her entry into the university teaching profession. In the following excerpt, **Jane** explained her

decision to get a formal degree in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) in relation to her educational histories:

Having been freelance teaching for a year, I discovered that I like to teach... So I discussed with my family about me getting another degree in teaching. I told them, at the age of 25, I think I had finally found what I wanted to do with my life. I chose to study political sciences for my undergraduate degree because it was highly competitive. The entry scores were high, and I was one of the top students. They would see me as 'smart and cool' if I could get in, so why not? That was all I cared about at the time. Once I got in, I still had no idea what I was truly passionate about. All I cared about was to do my best academically

(Interview 1, 16 October 2017)

It was clear **Jane's** motivation to become an English university teacher depended on her family support. According to **Jane**, her family didn't like her working as a freelance because it was not considered a stable job. **Jane's** vocational change of direction was also driven by her ideal self-concept as someone academically capable. **Jane** also said, *"It was only after getting the TESOL degree that I found myself wanting to pursue the lecturer career back in Thailand"* (Interview 1, 16 October 2017). Although **Jane** could have probably gone directly into the field as a teacher, her decision to obtain a formal degree abroad suggested the prospect of the exclusive privilege it offered, and thus shaped her EFL teacher identity. In other words, a degree may be seen as a pass or a permit that would allow her not only the eligibility to become a teacher, but also the sense of legitimacy to teach in higher education settings.

In summary, unlike **Devin**, **Tammy**, and **Owen** whose core identity was directly tied with their teaching self, analyses of data showed that **Nat** and **Jane** anchored their EFL teacher identity in their English-using self, which was marked by a high degree of self-efficacy upon which their vocational choice was based. Their becoming a teacher of English can be seen as driven by desire to fulfil what they perceived as their highest potential identity. In this regard, English served 'self-actualising' benefits, equipping the individual with awareness of his/her teaching self as well as motivation to achieve his/her perceived potentialities. While not originally perceived as the identity goal, and hence not primarily pursued, teaching was realised as most compatible to their ideal professional self. The teacher's English-using self together with the teaching self serves as a vehicle through which their EFL university identity was reified.

English-using self to re-activate and sustain one's teacher identity

The findings also showed that some EFL teachers' early conception of their professional identity was found to be outside the teaching arena. For **Prim** and **Mandy**, becoming an English teacher was not their original career goal but came to be one as they traversed their educational journey. For example, **Mandy** became an EFL university teacher because her primary ambition to work as a diplomat fell through. According to **Mandy**, teaching had never been her dream job but seemed the most sensible option, considering the fact that she formerly went to a teacher

college where she earned a bachelor's degree in Education with English teaching as her major, as illustrated in the excerpt below:

To be honest, I didn't like it. I didn't want to be a teacher at all. I wanted to be a diplomat but I couldn't realise that dream because I failed to get admitted to the political science. I also didn't want to work an office job. What I wanted was a job that would allow me to use the language I have been studying, and that left me with an English teacher.

(Interview 4, 9 March 2018)

Here, **Mandy** seemed to consider actually becoming a teacher as a last resort. Even with a bachelor's degree in teaching English in hand, **Mandy** reported she delayed her entry into teaching and went straight into a Master's and doctoral programme in comparative literature where she was also working as an administrative staff for a couple of years.

However, it was **Mandy's** motivation to re-engage with the English language that seemed to reactivate her latent EFL teacher identity. Seeing her friends applying for a lecturer job coupled with her growing boredom of an office job, **Mandy** described this moment as 'the turning point' in which she felt like she had not been able to use English as much, and therefore decided to revive positive English learning experiences by reconnecting with her (future) ideal teaching self which was portrayed in her past teacher's carefree and experiential teaching style:

English used to be natural and novel for me. Back then I felt like I was able to speak without having to be cautious about which word to use and where to place it. I learnt the local English like 'som-oh' (THAI:

a pomelo) is a pomelo, and tree is an English word for 'ton-mai' (THAI: a tree)... the teacher would take us outside and let us practice using the new words we studied. The teacher did not speak with any accent¹⁸ or any particular way that makes us feel worried. My life then wasn't attached to any restriction, so I was somewhat passionate about learning more...I wanted to be like this teacher, someone who tremendously inspired the students.

(Interview 4, 9 March 2018)

In her recollection of positive first-hand experience with using English as a young learner, **Mandy** was able to replace her unrealised identity goal with the existing untapped EFL teacher potential. **Mandy** then justified her becoming an EFL teaching professional through her English teaching degree, believing that the most important eligible criteria for someone to be an EFL teacher was past learning experience: *"To be an EFL university teacher, a doctoral degree is not necessary. You just need to have sufficient amount of English learning experience...We should not let anyone who has not studied English become an English teacher"* (Interview 4, 9 March 2018). For **Mandy**, anyone can qualify as an EFL teacher as long as they have background in English.

Likewise, **Prim** reported she had always aspired to become a nurse, but that aspiration didn't materialise given her family's financial status. Becoming a teacher was never her ambition. *"Even after I graduated," Prim said, "I was still trying to look for other jobs, anything apart from being a teacher. I tried my luck at publishing*

¹⁸ In Thai, to 'speak with an accent' is understood as to speak with a native-like accent.

companies and a tour guide, but it wasn't ok. It didn't feel right, so I ended up being a teacher" (Interview 5, 8 March 2018). In the excerpt below **Prim** commented the role of English in re-shaping her identity goal:

In the end I didn't get to be a nurse, the job that I had always wanted to do. But I still like English... Luckily, I was able to change my career direction, thanks to my good-enough command of English. The teacher college I went to offered an English major, so I managed to change from science to English, which I already liked to begin with.

(Interview 5, 8 March 2018)

Identifying herself as '*a kid from a countryside*,' **Prim** said she remembered feeling very excited and interested when she first encountered a new language like English. **Prim** recalled thinking to herself, "*If I knew another language in addition to my mother tongue, how cool would that be? It should be good. I would be given competitive advantage*" (Interview 5, 8 March 2018). By strategically choosing to obtain a degree in teaching English, **Prim** could afford trying her hand at different types of occupations, safe in the knowledge that she still had a fall-back career plan.

In short, data from **Prim** and **Mandy** indicated that the teachers' original identity goal may have been outside the realm of teaching, and becoming a teacher was thus perceived as a backup career option. The background knowledge of English, which characterised their English-using self, along with a formal degree and training in teaching helped the teachers revive their latent teaching self. Knowledge of English gained via past education histories, while not directly

correlated with their desire to become a teacher, was instrumental in these teachers' entering the teaching world. The teachers also drew on their English-using self's positive attitudes toward English to maintain their teaching self. English then serves functional benefits, coming in as a handy tool that satisfies the teacher's sense of professional security when other options fall through.

5.5.2 Teaching practices

Findings suggest that teachers construct and authenticate their sense of professional legitimacy as an EFL teacher in various ways, deploying a number of approaches including 1) extrospective approach; 2) introspective approach; 3) empathetic approach; 4) translingual approach; and 5) contextual awareness approach. The following sections outline each approach in detail.

Extrospective strategies: seeking help from external environment

One strategy used to reassure a sense of professional legitimacy involved the teachers seeking assistance from external sources, whether it be object or person. **Mandy**, for example, took advantage of a text-to-voice generator software to substitute her lack of confidence in English abilities: "*This audio book maker is free of charge and it offers both British and American English. When I don't feel confident about my pronunciation, I'll just rely on it doing the job for me,*" (Interview 1, 6 October 2017). This perceived lack of professional legitimacy was also

observed in her classroom interactions where she often asked the students to read aloud in a reading class but refrained from intervening when the students mispronounced or incomprehensibly mumbled something that could possibly jeopardise the meanings. When the situations require that corrective feedback must be given, she often relied on other students for help. In my observation field notes, she was observed to be asking the class to help out their classmates. Justifying her action, she said: *“I try to not correct it as it might undermine their [the students’] confidence. And I can relate because my pronunciation is not always right,”* (Interview 1, 6 October 2017). By referring to the fact that her pronunciation was not always correct, **Mandy** might perhaps be trying to avoid threats to her self-esteem triggered by her students’ failed attempt that reminded her of her own perceived inadequacy. By averting the responsibility to other students, **Mandy** managed to maintain her professionalism and authority as a teacher.

Teachers were also found to seek external reassurance, commonly noting how their sense of professional agency seemed to be affected by comments from other people such as their native-speaker colleague or students. For example, **Nat** reported viewing herself as a confident user of English, citing comments she normally received from those who she identified as native speakers. They told her, **Nat** explained, that her English was ‘much better’ than that of most Thai people in general. By incorporating their perceptions of her English into her EFL teacher identity, **Nat** positioned herself in line with the native speakers, thereby

legitimising her self-defined 'standard' usage of the language despite the inherent 'non-native speaker' status.

Much as the perceived appraisal by members of other linguistic-cultural backgrounds could influence the way the teachers see themselves, the teachers' sense of professional legitimacy can be derived from how the teachers imagine that they would be perceived by their students. For example, **Jane** talked about how students these days, from her observation, seemed to demonstrate higher appreciation for Thai teachers as long as their command of English was perceived as 'good enough': "*Before they would be like, 'I want a native English speaker for my English class.' But this is not the case nowadays. I think the students even prefer having a Thai teacher...*" (Interview 3, 14 November 2017), which **Jane** also supported using a personal real-life example in which a group of students gave her very positive end-of-term feedback due to her achievement in areas where the previous 'native-speaker' teacher failed to do such as listening to what the students had to say or informing them of their scores for each assignment or test.

Introspective strategies: cognitively reframing experiences

Findings revealed some teachers looked inward for ways to foster or restore a sense of professional legitimacy. Such introspective strategy often entailed tuning in and evaluating one's past experience. For example, **Jane** reported feeling qualified to self-position as a skilled instructor for the International English Language Testing System (IELTS) prep courses due to extensive prior English

learning experience in the UK along with a TESOL degree in hands as well as familiarity with the IELTS test format.

Introspection also involves reassessment of the inner dimensions of one's identity, whether it be innate or acquired. For acquired identity traits like accent, teachers were found to resort to a retelling-a-story approach, adding a new twist to their language learning history for the purpose of justification. For instance, **Devin** recounted his response to a British colleague teacher who noticed him saying 'schedule' with American pronunciation instead of the British one: "*I just told him it was my American trace,*" (Interview 1, 12 October 2017) **Devin** responded, describing his English as predominantly British English 'with the American trace' while acknowledging the 'hybrid' character of his English use. Rather than feeling embarrassed or threatened of having his language picked up on by someone generally considered 'the owner of the language,' **Devin** sought to maintain his self-esteem as the teacher of the language by reframing this inconsistency as something influenced by elements from his past experience. He added that for him his language can still be seen as 'standard' because it made sense to his audiences, students and colleagues alike.

In another example, although a majority of teachers chose to define their English use according to British and American English yardsticks, some teachers self-legitimised by going for their personal label. **Owen** described his English as neither American nor British but 'himself,' preferring to call it his individual style:

"I would say my English was closest to Tinglish (Thai English). It doesn't have to be sing-a-songy like the American or the British but not monotonous. You speak with a Thai character plus a bit of an accent," Owen explained, "...but it needs to send the message across to the students." (Interview 1, 12 October 2017). Here, his prioritised goal as a teacher was to communicate in the way that makes sense to his students, whose proficiencies and levels of comfort with English usage vary according to different factors.

Emerging from the data was also how the teachers reframed existing fixed identity traits to their advantage. Although many ideologies (e.g., Nativespeakerism) were predicated upon immutable identity traits like race or nativeness, some teachers were found to take initiatives by justifying the inherent aspect of their self-concept subject to prejudicial native-speaker values. It is not fair, according to one focus group participants, to assume that someone born and bred in Thailand who had studied abroad for a few years must necessarily have attained either a high level of fluency or native-like pronunciation (Focus group, 14 September 2017). **Prim** also said: *"I do understand that our pronunciation is not perfect as we are non-native, so it's perfectly fine for our pronunciation to NOT be perfect"* (Interview 2, 16 October 2017). This portrays Prim's attempt to defy Nativespeakerism by accounting for what she cannot change about herself and redefining its importance on her own terms. In this way, native speaker norms enable her to reconcile with the fact that attaining an unrealistic view of native-like perfection, while tempting, does not wholly account for who she is as a teacher.

In the following excerpt, **Nat** attempted to rethink the concept of standard/non-standard language:

Coming to think about it, is it due to the fact that we have been exposed to the language defined as standard despite our 'non-standard' background? Because of this exposure, we then learn what a correct standard pronunciation sounds like before mimicking the people who speak that standard (version of the language)? Given this assumption, I speculate that it depends more on the ways we have been taught and learnt. In other words, when it comes to pronunciation learning, I believe that, regardless of one's bloodline, one is able to develop a standard pronunciation if he/she has learnt or been exposed to a certain kind of pronunciation which is believed (by those inhabiting that speech community) to be standard. So we can't really use the term 'non-native'. Instead, we could probably say 'a person with no exposure to the standard language.

(Interview 2, 25 October 2017)

Having realised the meaning implied as a result of previously associating the two terms, **Nat** reframed in her explanation the term 'non-standard', which used to mean an inherent attribute aligned more closely with a quality of non-nativeness, but has now become something of a 'background'. To justify that the kind of English she used was standard English (which she previously associated only with a native speaker) despite her self-ascribed 'non-native' speaker status, **Nat** refashioned her past learning experiences, attributing a "correct standard pronunciation" to her previous exposure to those speaking standard English from whom she has learnt to imitate. Given such assumption, one must be provided with the opportunity to get acquainted with users of the language who may not necessarily be the traditionally defined native speakers.

While self-reflection provides opportunities to assert one's identity, overemphasis on perceived negative attributes of one's English-using self might result in loss of professional agency. For example, believing that an EFL university teacher must be someone who is 'extremely intelligent,' **Mandy** found the job 'tough', attributing personal struggle to her academic mediocrity. She also accentuated her lack of English grammatical knowledge when she first started teaching as the main challenge in developing her EFL teacher identity: "*My teaching then was so full of flaws. I didn't have enough knowledge. I was learning through the back door* and books, but I wasn't good enough. I was supposed to teach subject-verb agreement, which I never remembered what it was so I was unable to teach it*" (Interview 4, 9 March 2018), indicating how focusing on shortcomings inherent in one's English-using self (and failure to positively reframe it) could put their teaching self-efficacy in jeopardy.

Empathetic approach: reflecting on their past learner self

The teachers were found to adopt an empathetic approach in which they used their own past experience as English learners from which their EFL teachers' self-legitimacy may be derived. In the following excerpt, **Mandy** revisited the negative experience (faced by her learner self) from the perspective of her actual teaching self:

It never occurred to me at the very beginning. I thought I was just gonna teach from day to day. But the moment I looked back at my past self, it got me thinking of how and why I ended up here. I didn't

want to blame them [the teachers], so now that I'm a teacher I'm trying to give more to my students.

(Interview 4, 9 March 2018)

Although her initial resolve was to teach for the sake of getting the job done and not caring so much about the students, **Mandy** refused to 'relive' her past learner self but drew strength from her 'struggling' learner self, choosing to focus only on how she could redo it for the ultimate benefit of her students.

I tried to put myself in their shoes, recollecting that once I also was unable to read, let alone stressing the right syllable. My conviction lies more firmly in communicative functions than forms. We ditch forms first. When you can communicate, the forms will follow.

(Interview 4, 9 March 2018)

Owen and **Jane** also looked back to their past learner self and reflected on their experiences as a student to assert their professional expertise as an English language teacher. As opposed to **Mandy**, their language learning experiences were painted in a positive light of which they readily took advantage. When asked if he ever wanted to sound like Peter, his past English teacher whom he looked up to, **Owen** disagreed, saying:

Being able to make sense of what he said was good enough. I was already so proud being able to answer his questions. It made me happy. I believe that it is this sense of pride that the teachers feel when their students can have a conversation in English with them. It feels nice that they can actually communicate. It doesn't matter much they use British or American English.

(Interview 1, 12 October 2017)

Instead of evolving into his teacher role model, **Owen** capitalised on his positive experience along his language learning journey, vicariously deriving the 'sense of pride' experienced by his past learner self.

In a similar vein, **Jane** asserted her legitimate authority as an English teacher not only through contextual awareness but also by empathetically identifying with her students, in stating "*when it comes to explaining something complex I believe we can do just as well or even better since we understand what battle our students have been fighting,*" (Interview 3, 14 November 2017). Recognising her role and value in Thai educational system, **Jane** stated she never felt 'intimidated' or 'inferior' to her native English-speaking colleagues. Rather, it seemed to be the mutuality of sentiment found in her past learner self from whom her EFL teacher identity gained a sense of professional validity.

Translingual approach: drawing on identity as Thai and English users

The findings demonstrated that in developing their EFL teacher identity some teachers' practices might not be guided entirely by the monolingual norms but relying also on their L1-speaking self. For example, **Tammy** believed communication with students became "*easier if you are Thai as you share a language background*" (Interview 2, 10 November 2017). Likewise, **Jane** reported preferences for Thai English teachers because they were able to codeswitch between Thai and English, rendering complex ideas readily grasped for students:

Students might want something more from a language classroom in terms of the cultural context. In English for Tourism course, for example, culturally imbued words or expressions like “omelette soup” are presumably better explained by a Thai person than a foreigner who might have little or no idea of what it means.

(Interview 3, 14 November 2017)

Based on **Jane’s** experience, Thai English teachers made better English teachers as they can tap into their translingual competency not only when clarification of complex grammatical points was required but also when context-specific, culturally nuanced content could be elucidated in finer detail.

Tapping on L1-speaking self was also exemplified in **Mandy’s** practice in which the English speech was deliberately adapted and/or graded based on the students' proficiency:

I remember myself speaking with an American accent for a while but working with these groups of students here forced me to speak Thai more. I have to speak English the same way these students do. Then it has become a habit. I forgot what the ‘correct’ way was supposed to sound like. My pronunciation was not always correct originally. I just did it in my own style. The downside is that I wasn’t capable of standard pronunciation the way I was expected to. Then I decided to go all the way with Thai accent, saying things in the way I’m sure they will be able to understand.

(Interview 2, 20 October 2017)

To ensure the students’ understanding, **Mandy** downplayed her self-identified American accent, instead adopting a Thai-accented English with lower proficiency students and colloquial American English with high proficiency ones. Noted that **Mandy** frequently brought up all the things she was ‘supposed’ to

measure up to, from ‘the correct way’ to speak to ‘the standard pronunciation’ to follow. By adopting a complete Thai accent despite her prior experience with American English suggested that learning contexts may factor into the teacher’s pedagogical decision where students’ learning is given priority.

Contextual awareness approach: recognising the role of context

The findings indicated that context played an important role in shaping the way teachers see themselves. The teachers’ sense-making of their EFL teacher identity is usually accompanied by perceived change in their professional environment. Becoming more aware of contextual change and its impact on their sense of professional self (e.g., feeling conflicted, sense of doubt, job insecurity), teachers resorted to various coping mechanisms. Some began to question and rethink their professional purpose (**Nat**). Some justified the valid existence of the profession to ensure a sense of security (**Prim** and **Jane**). Some looked critically at the current sociolinguistic realities and found their professional legitimacy in their capability to help learners operate effectively in the real world (**Owen, Devin, Tammy**).

Data indicated that EFL teacher self seemed to change as the teachers noticed change in the English language teaching industry and began to form different opinions about their job. Although reassured in the sense of stability the teaching position provided, **Nat** reported feeling more conflicted, sensing a growing ambivalence towards the changing purpose of teaching (“*Do we teach*

them to ace the test or to communicate?”). Prim also concurred with Nat in that she used to think a university teacher was a good profession, but grew unsure if it’s still relevant and needed:

They asked who needs an English teacher these days. Everyone knows English. The learners themselves might have regarded teachers as less important since they have greater access to various alternative sources of information, against which they could compare the teachers’ teaching. Holding on to what the teachers say is no longer necessary.

(Interview 4, 7 March 2018)

Despite her growing doubt in the necessity of English teachers in light of the current omnipresent use of English, Prim was convinced that an English language teacher remained indispensable in the Thai context: *“I believe English teachers are still needed In the Thai social context. Of course the students can self-study or whatever, but teachers remain an important part in their learning”* (Interview 5, 8 March 2018). Jane also highlighted the role of context and job status, acknowledging an EFL teacher as “a good career” but perceived its status as varying by context in which it operated. She commented: *“In Thailand, having come this far (teaching English in university) is already a privilege. It might not be the case if you have this job in the UK because we can’t in any way compete with the native (speakers)”* (Interview 5, 6 March 2018), suggesting that the teachers’ sense of professional worth as an EFL teacher was perhaps believed to be context-dependent. That is, as proud as they may be of their English language expertise, they also recognised that such sense of pride was only valid because they were

teaching in a particular context like Thailand. Some teachers, like **Jane** and **Prim**, believed being a university teacher in Thailand was already a ‘good’ job but by being a university teacher of English the job status was elevated. Drawing on this contextual awareness, the teachers attained a sense of professional worth.

Some teachers were found to draw their professional legitimacy from acknowledging the current sociolinguistic climate with which they aligned their pedagogy. For instance, **Owen** argued it was time for teachers to accept “*World Englishes becoming a trend of today*,” (Interview 4, 5 March 2018) recognising the changing context and the need for teachers to anchor their practice firmly in reality. Despite describing his accent as ‘far from perfect,’ **Owen** rest assured in the knowledge that ‘correct pronunciation’ would help him getting intended meanings across in various social situations. **Devin** concurred, saying:

I try to look at the reality where the language is embedded. There will be time when these students might meet people from the suburban area of, for example, London or Bristol, where they speak with different accents. If we look at it, we can tell right away that their accent is one of those, this is in a quotation mark, ‘non-standard’ accents’. My view is, what good will it do when your ignorance puts you against it? This shouldn’t be the case, right? Since communication can only become successful (and useful) when you (try to) understand them.

(Interview 3, 7 November 2017)

Devin urged his students to take a more critical stance toward some of the more entrenched patterns of which they may have been vaguely aware and ground their perception of the English language in reality. His statement entailed not only

an urge for a perspective shift but also a more compassionate approach to how linguistic differences may be dealt with.

Similarly, **Tammy** managed to exert her own professional legitimacy by looking at the current professional context in terms of the students' ultimate real-world benefits. For **Tammy**, given her stated belief that teaching English meant teaching one to communicate, having foreign teachers teaching English in Thailand was "*good but not necessary*" in a sense that it would allow the students opportunities to put their communication skills they learn in class into actual practice: "*If the goal of teaching is communication, then it doesn't matter which race or nationality the teacher belongs to*" (Interview 4, 4 March 2018). By rethinking the goal of education with the learners' benefits at the centre, **Tammy** maintained her professional agency while identity traits like the teacher's national affiliation were rendered irrelevant.

In summary, the teachers' pedagogical practices were observed to be another site where teachers cultivated and maintained their embodied sense of professional legitimacy as an EFL teacher. While the findings suggested that most teachers were to a certain extent aware of how English is currently used outside of classroom and the corresponding skills expected of their students, they seemed to vary in their sense of professional legitimacy and thus approaches with which they used to prepare the students for real-life language uses. Especially when their sense of legitimacy was at stake, they may engage in a variety of strategies aimed

at redefining their self-concept and rebuilding self-esteem. Some teachers opted for external resources; others chose to introspect and refashion their past experience from within. Teachers also relied on different identity resources, drawing on not only their identity as past English learners but also their identity as users of both Thai and English. Lastly, they critically reflected on and become aware of their professional environment, thereby cultivating the sense of legitimacy as an EFL university teacher.

5.5.3 Professional development

The teachers' construction of their EFL teacher identity was found to be an ongoing process, extending beyond having their teaching degree and long after their entrance into the profession. Unique to the teachers working in the context of higher education, professional development was found to make a key contributing component of the EFL teacher identity development, providing the teachers with space where both their English-using self and teaching self could unfold. The study found that teachers engaged in several forms of professional development, from undertaking a doctoral degree to attending academic events (e.g., conferences, seminars, workshops and symposiums) organised within their current workplace (i.e., the university) or given by external organisations.

The findings showed that professional development activities served identity-creating purposes. That is, the teachers perceived engaging in professional development as a way to not only enhance their subject-matter knowledge base

but also improve their teaching practices. For instance, **Nat** reported an improved teaching self-efficacy was her goal when she joined a lecture on outcome-based learning organised by University A where she learned how to realign her classroom objectives with the university's goals and policies. Due to the students' negative feedback **Mandy** proactively sought out and participated in an intensive course on designing language assessments to promote her teaching self-efficacy: "*Never in my teaching career had I produced a good-quality test. I always copied the materials from the internet and had no idea what to do if I wanted to align my lessons with matching assessments*" (Interview 3, 30 October 2017). Thanks to the various learning opportunities with experts in the field during her doctoral studies, **Prim** reported she managed to find practical applications of her doctoral research in her local teaching context where she confidently signed up to teaching a new course. As evidenced in the comment below, **Owen** was motivated to enhance his English knowledge repertoire to be of better service for his students:

I invested a lot of money in books. I bought them so that I could read and increase my knowledge, which I would then impart to the kids. And I thought this is what someone who calls themselves a teacher must do. All actions bear fruit, and that fruit for me was a sense that my students have learned something.

(Interview 1, 12 October 2017)

For **Owen**, the action taken was to invest in himself. By replenishing his English knowledge, **Owen** believed he succeeded in realising the desired identity as 'someone who calls themselves a teacher'.

Participation in professional development was found to be related to a perception change in the teachers, thereby fine-tuning both their classroom practices and views of themselves. For example, **Owen** reported his perspectives on student's learning changed after he went for a professional workshop on teaching English, which then led him to adjust his approach in the classroom: *“Instead of spoon feeding them, I tried asking more questions. I had a different opinion, but it changed after I went to a workshop”* (Interview 2, 30 October 2017). Likewise, while teaching in school as a novice teacher, **Prim** reported she was given the opportunity by the school to attend a teacher professional development abroad. In the excerpt below, **Prim** commented how her first time going overseas for study had made a huge difference in her career as an EFL teacher:

I was in disbelief when the school hired me because the competition was tough, and it wasn't easy to get in. Luckily and with my ability, I finally made it but these moments of self-doubt lingered. Then this opportunity came up and it was the turning point in my career as an English teacher. I consider myself very fortunate to have been given such opportunity. I took an intensive English teaching course in Australia which lasted a month and a half. It was truly the beginning of my professional development. There were teaching demonstrations and tests for certificates. We got to learn from the world's most well-known teachers like George Jacob and Stephen Hall... When I came back to Thailand, I applied for a Master's degree programme right away because I felt more confident.

(Interview 1, 2 October 2017)

In contrast to **Owen** and **Prim** for whom professional development initiatives brought a higher level of confidence as well as a change in perspective which, in case of **Owen**, also means a direct impact on their classroom practices, not all professional development initiatives succeeded in affecting the teachers'

perception. **Tammy**, for example, was disappointed with the Communicative Language Teaching workshop she was recruited to attend:

I don't think it's gonna work because they only taught you how to make the class fun but did not give you any conceptual framework. I feel like if you only want to make your class fun, you can just google it. Why do I have to pay just to sit there for weeks?

(Interview 4, 4 March 2018)

The workshop failed **Tammy** because it didn't provide the 'conceptual framework' she was looking for, suggesting that professional development may have little effect on the teachers' cognition if it does not align with the teaching principles inherent in their identity. Teachers may look out for different things when deciding to take part in a professional development activity. That is, while some sought practical applications ('what works'), some, like **Tammy**, cared more about the philosophy behind.

Depending on where they were along their academic paths, the teachers may perform/enact their EFL teacher identity through professional development activities in different ways. At the start of the project, the seven teachers were found to be at three different junctures in their professional lives: 1) those having secured a doctoral degree (**Jane, Devin, Mandy**); 2) those currently pursuing a doctoral degree (**Prim**); and 3) those preparing to apply for a doctoral study (**Nat, Tammy, Owen**). First, the teachers who already received their PhD reported they sought out career advancement by fulfilling designated academic duties such as

teaching courses, doing research for publications, or presenting at academic conferences. For example, **Devin** drew upon his expertise in English literature as well as academic writing by actively publishing academic papers in a variety of topics, most of which to address the pressing issues on teaching English literature at a tertiary level in Thailand. His teaching self was also activated when one of these papers was presented at an international conference in Japan where he disseminated knowledge to a wider teaching community. **Devin** noted that his research work facilitated not only his fulfilling the job requirements as a university teacher but also his application for assistant professorship, suggesting that advancing along academic job ladders/ranks could facilitate his attainment of a new professional self.

For teachers currently in pursuit of an advanced degree, most of the professional development events were reported to be available through the activities inherent in their studies. The doctoral programme **Prim** was enrolled at the time of the project offered her professional development opportunities in a form of conference presentations, where she not only presented her thesis to a group of TESOL experts who provided her with useful feedback but also formed relationship with people from the same professional cycle:

I attend academic seminars regularly because I like it. I went to Thai TESOL conference every year because I see this as a perfect opportunity to meet and exchange ideas among us teachers. It's not only about the content, but the time for me to reunite with friends, meet new people, socialise... seeing where the world is up to. I think it's very useful.

(Interview 5, 8 March 2018)

Prim's comment indicated that while knowledge enhancement was usually believed to be the main reasons why teachers participated in professional development events, it was not the sole reason. For **Prim**, it also served a social function by which she could form a new network of contacts and maintain old connections.

For the teachers who had yet to earn a doctoral degree, pursuing a Ph.D. was considered not only as another professional development option but also as an important milestone in their academic career and therefore a vital vehicle through which they realised their professional self. At both University A and University B, a teacher with a Master's degree upon applying to work at the university was required to pursue a doctoral studies should they wish to renew the employment contract. Hence, while it was not a required qualification for the teachers to have a doctoral degree when they first entered the teaching career, all of them acknowledged its significance on their employability and future career advancement in a tertiary education setting. For instance, **Nat** reported the first step in her future career plan as EFL university teacher was looking for a doctoral programme abroad, after which she hoped to design her own course and publish academic papers: *"Once I'm a specialist in a certain area, I reckon it would be easier to have my own course and write a paper"* (Interview 4, 7 March 2018).

While varying to a large extent, the topics of the teachers' doctoral studies, whether it be existing or potential, were found to be shaped by the teachers'

interest formed during their Master's education and the classroom reality they currently experienced. For example, in talking about her PhD plan, **Tammy** said her interest in pursuing curriculum development research stemmed from her previous study background:

I went to the workshop (on curriculum development) and it was good because I used to study it. Then I read more about the topic, and I learnt that some approaches I knew used to work are no longer working. So that's the area I would like to do my thesis on.

(Interview 4, 4 March 2018).

On the other hand, **Jane's** doctoral thesis on Thai-English translation issues in the field of linguistic landscapes studies was born out of an incident during her TESOL education in the UK, as illustrated in the following excerpt:

It happened while we were cooking Thai food when an American friend pointed to the Lobo packaging on which it said, "suitable for Thai housewives." She was wondering if she could use the Lobo in her cooking since she was not a Thai housewife as the label suggested. It was more like a joke, but it got me thinking about the issues around Thai-English translation. I was thinking to myself that it would be a good idea if I became an expert in Thai-English translation since I would be the one of the few experts in the field.

(Interview 1, 16 October 2017)

It is worth mentioning that while English-related past experience underlined how both teachers decided their area of specialisations they differed in their motivation. **Tammy** chose curriculum development out of her desire to improve her teaching, and therefore her teaching self. **Jane's** motive, on the other hand, was based on her desire to promote English self-efficacy. The topic of **Jane's** doctoral studies therefore not only fortified her English-using self but also kept her

highly aware of the issues in the sociolinguistic arenas which later transpired in her classroom practices.

5.6 Chapter summary

This chapter has examined how Thai EFL university teachers develop and enact identities in the era of globalisation. Data analysis yields that the Thai EFL teachers' self-concept is multidimensional, incorporating their beliefs about themselves based on information gathered from self-evaluation and interactions with others. In the present study, the EFL teacher identity was conceptualised as a self-hierarchy which branches into two separate facets: the English-using self and the teaching self. Thai EFL university teachers in the study were found to exhibit a spectrum of varying identifications as a teacher of English as a foreign language, not only with the English language but also with the idea of teaching in general and of language teaching in particular. Aspects such as the teachers' linguistic self-image, English self-efficacy, and attitudes towards their past English teachers were found to contribute to the formation of the teachers' English-using self while attaining pedagogical knowledge and course assignment conducted to the teaching self.

Analyses of data have also shown that EFL teacher identity seemed to have emerged from interactions between the teachers' English-using self and the teaching self, which manifested at three different stages. These include: 1) the

onset of identity construction process where English played the multifarious instrumental roles in the ways their EFL teaching professional self was formed; 2) teaching practices where the teachers appraise their competencies by strategically drawing on identity-resources from their English-using self and teaching self; and 3) professional development where the EFL teachers derived the overall sense of who they are professionally beyond the four walls of their classroom. As these teachers embark on their professional journeys, they draw together various resources to form a grand narrative of how to see, value, think, and feel about themselves as a teacher.

6

Findings RQ-3

How do the teachers interpret globally-oriented initiatives into language teaching in light of their teaching contexts?

6.1 Introduction

In the previous two chapters, I looked at the Thai EFL university teachers' cognition of English and the various aspects of their experience with English language learning/teaching that conduced to the conceptualisation of their EFL teacher identity. This chapter will report on the teachers' 'pre-implementation' thoughts on implementing what they understand to be globally-informed English language teaching in their classrooms. It first explores the teachers' understanding of a global approach to English language teaching and how it was already operationalised in their current classroom reality, followed by the teachers' views on the possibility of adopting a global approach to inform their future practices. Perceived implementational challenges are then examined, and the chapter concludes with the teachers' suggestions on the ways Global Englishes initiatives may be translated into their local contexts.

6.2 What does globally-informed ELT in practice look like?

Although analysis of the observation data found no evidence of courses directly dedicated to teaching Global Englishes content, the teachers all agreed on the importance of raising learners' awareness of how English is used as a global language, and believed that Global Englishes elements were already present to some extent in their own local contexts. Yet, despite this shared agreement, the teachers entertained different interpretations, and thus different manifestations, of what constituted globally-informed English language teaching in their own practice. In this study, a global approach in practice was manifested in two ways: through teachers' direct instruction and via external resources.

6.2.1 Teachers' direct teaching

First, many teachers regarded 'calling attention to English varieties' as an instance of globally-informed English language teaching practice. For example, having realised the foundational importance of communication, culture, and linguistic diversity, one of the focus-group teacher participants reported how she materialised a global approach in her translation class by "*calling the students' attention to issues like language registers or varieties ... pointing out that there is no right and wrong and that what matters more is whether communication is achieved*" (Focus group, 19 September 2017). In almost the same manner, **Prim** was

observed during her classroom instruction to draw students' attention to English varieties (i.e., American and British English) the students were likely to come across in the video clips they needed to choose for class presentation:

When it [related content on English varieties] comes up, I will teach by pointing it out to them. I told them features that make them the same or different; how each of the accents sounds like – it is pronounced like this in British English and like that in American English.

(Interview 3, 6 November 2017)

Perhaps the most overt example was **Jane** who described herself as an 'advocate of communicative competence' and her teaching approach communicatively focussed. In addition to the "how do you say w & z" game (see chapter 4 for details), **Jane** elaborated on her professional mission to raise the students' awareness of English varieties by "*tell[ing] my students the different ways British and American people say things. Once you are aware of it, then you started doing this awareness-raising for your students all the time*" (Interview 1, 16 October 2017). It is interesting to note that what **Jane** considered to be her implementation of globally-informed English language teaching (i.e., providing information on the multiple ways American and British English were used in terms of spellings, vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar to the students) may in fact be another thinly disguised display of native-speaker norms with British and American English as the major points of reference.

6.2.2 External resources

Teachers often referred to external resources, especially YouTube videos, as awareness-raising methods they used to help the students get a sense of how English is used in an international setting. On a PowerPoint slide, **Jane** listed guiding resources such as books or websites for her students to explore more in their own time. **Devin** pointed to textbooks, particularly those used in listening and/or speaking courses, as reliable sources for raising students' awareness of various features characteristic of certain English varieties, adding that "*some teachers could show students scripts of the audio recordings to see how words are pronounced in a particular variety – showing them this is how Indian people say things, for instance,*" (Interview 2, 24 October 2017). Having the students watch movies that feature different varieties was, as **Tammy** put it 'a nice way' for students to gain not only awareness but also knowledge of that featured variety. Likewise, **Mandy** reported assigning students to go watch the YouTube videos where, for instance, Indian or Korean instructors teach English greetings. She also offered her personal tip on how to locate 'good and appropriate' instructional media, as evidenced in the following excerpt:

I personally don't know who [YouTube instructor] or which [instructional media on YouTube] is good, so I try listening to each of them myself and choose what I think is good and appropriate. My technique is to include "ESL" in my search queries, so I can get media specifically for teaching. I used to use this [YouTube] for students' assessment as well. I think it helps a lot.

(Interview 2, 20 October 2017)

In English for Public Relations course, **Owen** was often observed to use advertising video clips from YouTube to show the students different varieties from various countries in Asia, Europe, or Africa because, as **Owen** reasoned, “*most of these ads normally feature a range of English varieties. They are also funny, and I can find these sources on the internet*” (Interview 3, 17 November 2017). Afterward, he would have them guess based on what they just listened where the stories/interactions took place. When inquired about his rationale for assigning the students to make their own ads videos on which they subsequently needed to give a presentation, **Owen** explained how he believed the task allowed students more time to prepare and practice the language, which in turn helped boost their confidence. Another benefit he mentioned was having the students watch the video as a pre-listening exercises meant the students’ awareness of English varieties would be significantly reinforced once they re-encountered the topic during an in-class exercise. As **Owen** put it, “*they will soon realise that it doesn’t have to be English of some certain nationalities or of certain standards because in the end it’s the same English language everyone is using*” (Interview 3, 17 November 2017).

6.2.3 Unpremeditated activity

Another key finding was a shared perception among the Thai EFL university teachers about the nature of globally-informed English language teaching. Except for **Jane** who was the only teacher who explicitly stated an attempt to make her

pedagogy 'ELF-informed,' for the majority of the teachers GELT was perceived as a randomly occurred classroom event. Carrying out GELT-related classroom activities was never premeditated as raising awareness among their students of how English is realistically used nowadays had never been explicitly prioritised as a learning goal in any of the classes/courses they taught. Despite being aware of academic research on English varieties and pedagogical implications, the teachers acknowledged pedagogical effort was rarely made to draw the students' attention to the issues. For example, **Nat** reported she would inform the students only when opportunity arose, and only so that they become aware upon encountering, for example, vocabularies with a subtle difference in pronunciations. In another example, **Tammy** recollected that if Global Englishes content was to feature in any of the lessons, then either they featured as American or British English somewhere in the video clips she showed to the students or "*it was there by accident,*" adding in retrospect she *wasn't focused on any particular type of English*" (Interview 2, 10 November 2017). Incorporating any globally-related content in class, Tammy stated, had never been on her agenda.

6.2.4 Key consideration: teacher-preferred or student-focussed

Differences were found in what the teachers believed to be a key consideration when the decision on GELT implementation needed to be made. Some teachers drew attention to the important role of teachers in putting in

practice classroom strategies to promote the learners' awareness. Drawing on extensive teaching experience and insights gained from her working context, **Prim** argued that the teachers must be proactive in raising the students' awareness: *"Students need to first see the big picture, which is the fact that linguistic varieties do exist. They may have already experienced it, but they might not be aware because no one pointed it out to them"* (Focus group, 19 September 2017). While the fact that English has now become the world's most common communicative medium seemed self-evident, **Prim** believed the teachers could not afford to assume that it was being equally grasped by their learners. Likewise, **Owen** thought it was the teacher's job to highlight content related to English diversity, which *"is already in each course subject"* and that *"it all came down to whether or what the course instructors decide to bring up in class"* (Interview 4, 5 March 2018). Given that the decision was perceived as being typically left to the teacher's discretion, what **Owen** and **Prim** also seemed to suggest was that the teachers play part in the students' awareness and learning.

However, some teachers, like **Nat**, **Owen**, **Tammy**, and **Devin**, placed students at the centre of their decision on whether to include Global Englishes-related content in class. For example, in a General English course where students had to record their own speech to submit as part of the course assessment, **Nat** reported that the teachers agreed to leave the decisions on which accent to use on the students (Focus Group, 14 September 2017). For **Owen**, design and implementation of effective Global Englishes-related activities required that

teachers know about who their students are because *“if I don’t know who my students are, how can I be sure if they will be able to do my activities?”* (Interview 3, 17 November 2017). Features of other Englishes like Scottish English, **Tammy** said, *“would be nice to teach if the students expressed interest”* but *“not mandatory”* (Interview 4, 4 March 2018) if compared to the students’ knowledge of language structures and ability to convey them in a meaningful way, which **Tammy** regarded as more important. **Devin** was also observed in my field note to adapt his articulation of ‘it should be written as...’ in an American Literature class, switching from American English pronunciation to the British English counterpart as soon as he noticed the students’ confused expression. **Devin** explained in the follow-up interview how his pedagogical choice of English varieties was guided by the students’ reactions:

When I said, ‘It should be written’ – using the t flap as in American English, the students would look confused, which was not the case when I said it with a clear, aspirated [tʰ] sound as typical in British English. In most cases I would teach it right there, even though it was not the topic of focus.

(Interview 2, 24 October 2017)

When communication was jeopardised, this resulting moment of confusion was addressed and turned into a teachable moment where students’ benefits assumed a central focus. As **Devin**’s perceived pressing concern was more on the students’ shaky foundation, he limited class time spent on raising the students’ awareness to

issues of English diversity (e.g., only when he noticed the students look confused by what he said).

6.2.5 Decisions made and based on a moral ground

The teachers' oft-cited reasons for including awareness-raising activities in their own classroom were usually underpinned by moral undertones. For instance, **Tammy** believed that with heightened awareness students of all proficiencies would refrain from mistreating people who speak with different accents. Similarly, **Nat** believed that incorporating Global Englishes-related content in the classroom, such as introducing other accents apart from 'the good old American and British English,' would help the students learn the lesson of tolerance, and therefore should be made imperative despite the perceived potential challenges reported by students: "*Some students kept complaining about how difficult the Aussie accent or Singlish is... But this does not mean their accents are wrong, does it? The point is they need to accept these differences in order to have a successful communication,*" (Interview 4, 7 March 2018). Moreover, the teachers were found to include GELT in their practice not only to convey theoretical information related to the English diversities but also to provide a platform on which a sense of compassion can be cultivated among their students. Responsible for a course on English phonetics and phonology, **Prim** felt obligated to teach the students how knowledge of phonetics or speech production can help them to be more compassionate toward people who may sound different from what they were normally used to. After mimicking how

Indian people would say the sentence “I go to school”¹⁹, which was followed by a roar of laughter, **Prim** asked the whole class why they thought it was funny. There was silence. Taking advantage of the moment, **Prim** went on to discuss the differences between aspirated and unaspirated sounds, and how these differences were perhaps the cause of their laughter. **Prim** replayed what she said to her students during the class:

Why do you laugh when you hear a Filipino pronounces the (unaspirated) [t] sound for what's supposed to be an aspirated [tʰ] sound? Or when some Thai people pronounce the /z/ sound as a (voiceless) [s] instead of a (voiced) [z]? We may be talking about the same thing, but this same thing can be conveyed differently through accents, spelling, or uses based on which variety we choose to put it in.

(Interview 2, 16 October 2017)

Prim expected her students (at least those who had taken the phonetics course with her) to be not only capable of using phonetics knowledge to explain the differences, but also compassionate members of the global community: “*They will not make fun of anyone’s pronunciation*” (Interview 2, 16 October 2017).

¹⁹ Prim vocalised the sentence as [ʌɪ gəʊ tu: sku:n] with the unaspirated [t] in <to> and the word-final [n] sound in <school>

6.3 Perceived implementational challenges

For the teachers in the study, the idea of incorporating globally-informed English language teaching in their own practices evoked an ambivalent response. While demonstrating a degree of open-mindedness about embracing the opportunities globally-informed teaching practices can bring to the classroom, the teachers were upfront about their reservations. In other words, the teachers found the globally-informed English language teaching conceptually interesting, yet behaviourally constrained. The following section presents three major sources of challenges affecting teacher's willingness to adopt globally-informed English language teaching in their own classroom, including: students, teachers, and institutional demands.

6.3.1 Students

One of the most oft-cited challenges that prevent the teachers from bringing GELT to their classroom was the students' poor aptitude in English. For instance, **Devin** was observed to limit class time spent on raising the students' awareness to issues of English diversity (e.g., only when he noticed the students look confused by what he said) because he was more concerned about the students' 'shaky' foundation. In **Devin's** view, students were already suffering from 'content overload,' so the teachers thus could not afford losing time on raising awareness when that time should be spent on solidifying the students' basic knowledge instead. **Prim's** observation also resonated with **Devin's** in that grasping even the

most basic knowledge of English was already difficult as it was for her students and therefore it might not be worth the teacher's time teaching the students about the two types of English most commonly used, let alone other varieties: "Would adding this in the lesson make them even more confused? This is my take on the issue," (Interview 1, 2 October 2017) **Prim** added, saying that raising awareness about the English diversity might actually do more harm than good.

Despite acknowledging the importance of exposing their students to different variations of English, some teachers remain sceptical whether it applied to students of all abilities. Considering where her students were currently at on the English proficiency scale, **Mandy** reported her struggle of having to abandon communication-focussed teaching in order to help some of her students who either 'had zero ability to communicate in English' or 'refused to speak English altogether': "*Forget about conversations when you have to focus on the grammar...the communication aspect only disappears,*" (Interview 1, 6 October 2017). Slightly disheartened, **Mandy** attributed the 'weird-sounding' English produced by her students to language instructions in which 'communicativeness' was placed at the centre and grammar disregarded:

They said, 'speak first, correct or not, then the rest will come along' but, let me tell you, we will have to return to grammar eventually. It's probably OK at the beginning but that doesn't mean it will always be. In the end, it becomes intolerable and that's when they find themselves in trouble.

(Focus group, 19 September 2017)

Mandy explained how the prior optimism and motivation she had about the pedagogical applications offered by the communicative approach had turned into ‘concern’ about the future of her students. The trouble **Mandy** mentioned the students would likely face was the immediate realisation upon entering the world of work how poorly they fared in comparison with other, ‘more fluent’ members of the global community where grammatical accuracy and ‘native-like competency’ were still the mainstream. Reflecting on previous experience, **Mandy** reported she decided to put priority on building up their foundational English language skills over introducing them to other varieties of English, which may prove a fruitless effort: *“In fact, their being able to speak (to hold a conversation in English) would seem like a miracle to me already”* (Interview 1, 6 October 2017).

Test-prioritised teaching/Score-oriented learning, or ‘Teach for test’, was regularly cited by the teachers as another obstacle to any new ‘curricular innovation.’ **Devin** argued, for instance, that linguistic knowledge was pursued more for test-taking purposes and less for the sake of personal development. Based on observations gained from evaluating the students’ work, **Devin** noted the students’ very limited amount of sentence structures in language production tasks, which he speculated was due to the sense of insecurity about their test performances. According to **Devin**, because the students were afraid that they might not do well in the exam due to their poor level of proficiency, they resorted to a ‘play safe’ technique where they ‘only stick to what they already know’ and avoid taking risks (e.g., producing complex sentences, being creative and

experimental with expressing idea through different syntactic structures). In this way, they were less likely to make grammatical mistakes and thus their scores would not be negatively affected. The central focus, **Devin** concluded, was achieving the best possible exam scores, and not the meaning of the communication.

Devin said the problem was also exacerbated by the teachers who felt compelled to meet the students' hopes and expectations: "*We need to teach everything that will appear on the exam paper. If we don't, then the students will fail the test and we will feel sorry for them. We can't afford students failing the exam...*" (Interview 2, 24 October 2017). Similarly, **Mandy** found her teaching 'chained' by her students' obsession over test scores. Apart from having the students do 'sample test papers' and a series of mock exams, Mandy felt constant need to keep them informed in order to calm their worries: "*The reason why they were so disengaged in class today had to do with their worry about how much scores they got on the latest test, so I need to always announce the scores,*" (Interview 2, 20 October 2017). This concern to live up to the students' expectations was also manifested in test design. Even with the professional freedom in terms of test design where knowledge and/or awareness about English varieties may be assessed, the teachers remained firm in their beliefs that only standard English varieties (e.g., standard American and British English) should feature in test materials. **Nat**, for example, believed that "*if we are to assess the 'standard' knowledge, we should probably not add accents*

commonly considered as non-standard, unusual, or unfamiliar” (Focus group, 14 September 2017).

The pressure to prepare students for high-stake exams also cultivated in the teachers doubt about the usefulness of such ‘peripheral topic’ for the students, questioning the relevance of the Global Englishes content to the students’ current language proficiencies as well as their life. As **Prim** put it:

Are we aware? Yes, we are. But can we talk about the importance of (knowing about) Asian English or other varieties when they ask back what the purpose of teaching this could be? When the students still have not yet mastered the lessons they’re supposed to know? ... How can we be assured that what we teach will ever be of use to the students? Will we ever be confident enough to say that the students will see the value of those varieties and real-life application?

(Focus group, 19 September 2017)

From **Prim**’s point of view, her students were ‘not yet ready’ and thus adding the content, even for the awareness-raising purpose, was not only difficult but also futile. Similarly, when asked to share opinions on teaching strategies to promote students’ awareness of how English is diversely used nowadays, **Mandy** said, *“For business English students, spending the entire course time to study about different accents seems like a waste of time,”* hesitating about *“putting our focus on accents that much”* and not being able to see *“why it would matter for us as a third-world country”* (Interview 2, 20 October 2017). **Mandy**’s answer was characterised by apprehension as the prospect of having a course totally dedicated to learning about different varieties seems unnecessary for her students studying Business English whose main goal, as she sees it, is to ultimately achieve a business purpose

and thus have no time to care much about accents. Hence, unless one happens to teach a linguistic course, there is no need for such issue to crop up in class.

6.3.2 Teachers

Another emerging findings was that the source of resistance to GELT implementation might originate from the teachers themselves, revealing in a mismatch between their shared view of what qualities contributed to an ideal (albeit problematic) or ‘model globally-informed English language teacher and the perception of who they are now (and would like to be) as an EFL teacher.

First, it was found that the teachers seemed to associate a ‘model GELT teacher’ with someone with high language proficiency, expertise in the subject matter (i.e., World Englishes), and capability to teach the students all the codified variations in English used around the world. From **Devin’s** point of view, for example, even when the teachers decided to try experimenting with some Global Englishes ideas, they might lack confidence and *“enough expertise to teach non-standard English like Cockney English or Bristolian accent as we ourselves have little exposure to non-standard varieties”* (Interview 4, 6 March 2018). Interpreting incorporation of Global Englishes content in classroom as teaching students about *“what Singlish looks like or this is the way Filipinos speak,”* (Interview 2, 16 October 2017), **Prim** found herself poorly-equipped and thus unqualified for the job. According to **Prim**, Global Englishes content was “extremely useful and timely” and

needed to be executed by a skilful teacher who is not only proficient, both orally and written, but also well-versed (highly knowledgeable) in the subject-matter in order to understand and tolerate differences in the various ways people use English. When asked if she considered herself in a good position to carry out such task, **Prim** appeared defensive in her answer, saying that while she could describe herself as “*an English teacher who knows English and has been more or less informed about World Englishes,*” she still found the topics related to World Englishes “not easily justifiable” and therefore half-heartedly welcomed: “*I feel pretty confident, but I’m not sure if my level of knowledge is at the point where I can engage in a conceptual discussion about it,*” (Interview 5, 8 March 2018). And even when the teachers are both aware and capable, as **Prim** also pointed out, “*we are neither proficient nor qualified enough to bring up this topic and teach the students because we are neither big names nor established experts on the topic to dare bringing up those issues to teach in class*” (Focus group, 19 September 2017). Perceiving their current EFL teacher self as lacking the essential qualifications (e.g., being prominent public figures in the field as well as having extensive knowledge of and experience with the different forms and usages associated with different varieties apart from the British or American English), the teachers were therefore reluctant, even discouraged, to introduce globally-informed English lessons into their practices.

Paradoxical as it may seem, but implementational challenges can also occur when the teachers’ perceptions of themselves ‘matched’ with their perceived image

of a globally-informed English language teacher. This is most illustrative in the case of **Jane** who explicitly expressed her active championship of raising the students' awareness about English diversities, albeit exclusively American and British English: *"This is something I have tried to change with my own students...This is British English and this is not. What is right and what is not. Before I used to be like "Wait, that's not the way you say it. If you don't speak a certain way then it's wrong"* (Interview 3, 14 November 2017). Based on my field notes, regardless of the curricular content, **Jane** was usually observed teaching her students that 'both varieties' can be used and that they can use whichever variety they want as long as they use it correctly and consistently. While **Jane's** intended goal to bring about GELT-advocated instructional practices was only for the benefits of the students, the varieties of her choice seemed to be limited to either British or American varieties, suggesting that standard language ideology, which had been reinforced almost throughout her language learning journey were still relied upon in her pedagogical decision-making. Moreover, because **Jane** strongly believed that her current teaching approach and practices were already aligned with that of a model globally-informed teacher, her sense of self as an EFL teacher was not implicated by GELT-advocated ideas (albeit in different aspects), and thus less likely to be proactive toward change.

Apart from the teachers' perceptions of their *current* professional selves, the teachers' cognitive representations of themselves in *future* states (i.e., their

possible selves) were also found to shape how they responded to Global Englishes-inspired initiatives. In the present study, the teachers' hesitation to implement a global approach in their classes may be due to the fact that the teachers' visions of themselves did not align with what they believed to be the image of 'ideal GELT-informed' teachers. Becoming an expert in World Englishes or a well-recognised scholar in the English language field did not feature in the content of any teacher's identity goals. Rather, the findings revealed how the teachers defined their ideal EFL teacher selves in terms of their expectations for the students' achievements as manifested through students' feedback in and outside the classroom. This is evidenced in all the teachers' descriptions of their identity goals, which often included not only the qualities they hoped to cultivate in their students but also desired professional attributes that would contribute to their students' future success. For example, **Nat**'s ideal teacher self was a teacher who "*attends to the students' questions, delivers an entertaining lesson, and makes sure that students left the course more motivated to learn more on their own*" (Interview 4, 7 March 2018). **Tammy** and **Devin** took a similar stance, saying that they would become their 'best selves' when the students achieved what they believed were 'desirable outcomes' (e.g., autonomous learning; ability to apply the lesson in real life). **Owen** described his identity goals in relation to his students' positive learning experiences:

I'm training myself to become more effective in my teaching. I want to be remembered by the students as a teacher who teaches a fun class ... Whenever they talk about Ajarn Owen's class, they will picture fun activities, excellent teaching techniques, and useful lessons for daily life.

(Interview 4, 5 March 2018)

In addition, the teachers reported they found themselves most demotivated (i.e., teachers' feared language teacher selves were activated) when they encountered what they perceived to be negative feedback from the students (e.g., students appeared bored, discouraged, or demoralised). The teachers' identity goals (ideal or ought-to) were not implicated by their self-defined image of an ideal/model globally-informed English language teacher, thereby engendering no emotional dissonance which served as a catalyst for successful implementation of new ideas. Therefore, while acknowledging the importance of implementing Global-Englishes lessons into the teaching plan, the teachers felt less inclined to pursue the advocated change.

6.3.3 Institutional limitations

The study found that the majority of implementational challenges mentioned by the teachers were institutionally-related. According to **Devin**, most teachers, himself included, fell victim to what he called 'the system traps' that may come in several forms from 'excessive amount of content to cover' to 'jampacked classrooms': "*Teachers have so little freedom. All of us teachers are trapped and exhausted*" (Interview 4, 6 March 2018). In the present study, three institutional limitations were identified.

First, managing a limited class time while achieving course objectives in an overcrowded classroom was cited by the teachers as another institutional obstacle to the delivery of an 'engaging' and 'innovative' language lesson. Recalling one of her classes last semester where she had to spend a tremendous amount of time grading all the video presentations submitted by over 40 students, **Mandy** said, "*I know I need to have a better preparation... I dreamed about it every day, but it never happened because I was already too tired to do anything by the time I got home,*" (Interview 3, 30 October 2017). She wished the class size was smaller, which would allow more spare time and opportunities for teachers to introduce innovative practices. In the face of class time limitation, **Nat** reported she would prioritise achieving required course objectives, which, as **Nat** also realised, rarely involved raising students' awareness of the way English is used as a global means of communication. Having to cope with various institutional demands, **Devin** said most teachers were left with just enough time to 'cover' the overwhelming number of lessons required for the exams: "*We are now already struggling with having 'standard English' lessons covered in the amount of class time we have,*" (Interview 1, 12 October 2017) concluding that allocating more class time to teaching 'non-standard' English might not be practical. **Devin** also reported he often found himself in the situation where he was not able to apply his personalised, hands-on teaching style in his classes, noting the disproportion between the high number of students (usually 30-40 per class) and the limited class time as potential cause.

Another 'system trap' limiting the teachers' attempt to implement globally-informed initiatives was the pre-selected commercial textbooks assigned to be used in a large course with multiple instructors. **Nat**, for example, expressed her doubt about the appropriateness and practicality of some institutionally designated coursebooks: "*I usually find some of the steps in the book we need to follow so boring. I'm not sure either if it was designed to be used in a smaller classroom or not,*" (Focus group, 14 September 2017). **Tammy** followed suit, expressing her frustration of having to strictly follow the content of the coursebook she was assigned to use in a foundational English course. In **Tammy's** opinion, most, if not all, commercial textbooks were created under the assumption that maximum amount of content needs to be condensed in the given two-hour session, which did not reflect the students' learning pace in any way. The teachers were, as **Tammy** put it, "*guided by a 'which page do I teach until' mindset without realising if the students had achieved class objectives,*" (Focus group, 14 September 2017). **Tammy's** dislike for the institutionally assigned coursebooks seemed to be rooted in their misalignment with her teaching philosophy, as exemplified in the following excerpt:

I don't like those commercial textbooks that oversell but underdeliver. Sometimes during planning the lesson I wondered if any of these would be useful in the students' life. They can do the exercises and ace the test but that doesn't mean they will apply what they learned in real life. I want my students to get more out of my course. I guess it has to do with a vague course goal, which is why we're still attached to the need to follow the book. And I'm not happy about this.

(Interview 2, 10 November 2017)

In a similar manner, **Prim** reported how unhappy she was about the university policies on assessment format, which required that a written test be included in every course: *“But what about a course like practical communication? There are so many assessments available, and a written test is no longer appropriate. Still, we need to keep it to prove that we adhere to the rules,”* (Interview 4, 13 November 2017). According to Prim, despite several attempts to make a case for alternative, more ‘authentic’ assessments, she was never successful.

Lastly, the teachers claimed it was difficult to welcome any new initiative when they were already overwhelmed by the workload to fulfil various non-teaching responsibilities such as taking up management duties (e.g., course coordinator, programme head, deputy dean, etc.) or attaining a doctorate and academic ranks (e.g., assistant, associate, or full professorship). For example, **Prim** reported she had never thought about going back to school, especially for the purpose of obtaining a doctorate, when it later became obvious that she had no other choice but to follow the rules for fear of professional repercussion: *“I already gave up on pursuing any formal studies until ten years later when the university enforced new regulations to improve the quality of teachers”* (Interview 5, 8 March 2018). Similarly, advancing on the academic rank, as **Devin** put it, *“was not the main motivation but a commitment or rather a requirement. If we don’t do as told, then we’re fired”* (Interview 4, 6 March 2018). With an additional duty as head of the programme, **Devin** admitted he was ‘trying hard’ to manage responsibilities but

also unsure of 'how long he can keep at it.' Echoing **Devin** was **Mandy** whose motivation for wanting to become (at least) an associate professor was primarily rooted in fear of losing the job due to failure to comply with the university requirements: "*Academic rank is a guarantee that you can stay [in the job] for a long time, and I don't want to be unemployed*" (Interview 4, 9 March 2018), suggesting that academic ranking might be perceived by the teachers not only an indicator of professional credibility but also a deterrent against their feared language teacher self.

However, institutionally imposed duties were not always framed in a negative light. Hoping to create a new learning environment where lessons were re-organised (i.e., in the order by which students' learning would be optimised) and new materials supplied to support the newly revised curriculum, **Devin**, for example, took advantage of his position as head of the programme to 'speed up the change' and 'ease the process,' which in turn help him to materialise his ideal EFL teacher selves. "*We need to use this position to fix the problem, which is what I'm doing,*" Devin said, "*... and it's not an easy job*" (Interview 4, 6 March 2018).

6.4 Suggestions on implementing Global Englishes language teaching

Despite the overall apprehension, the teachers provided thoughts on the different ways GELT can be integrated into their local English language classrooms.

First of all, the teachers believed GELT should be incorporated as a complement to the main curriculum. For example, **Devin** suggested that Global Englishes content may be added into the main lesson plan but not too intensively: “*One or two chapters on the topic as a complementary lesson should be ok,*” (Interview 4, 6 March 2018), believing the content was best introduced ‘in a moderate amount’ in a form of some awareness-raising activities or a few stand-alone topics. **Nat** and **Mandy** took a similar stance, saying designing a separate course for the sole purpose of raising students’ awareness about English varieties seemed like an overkill. While acknowledging the fact that a variety of English patterns may come up in textbooks in and outside the classroom, **Prim** believed such content should be addressed ‘in passing’ and ‘only as an extra’ so that the students would be informed but not overwhelmed. There was no point, **Prim** added, in deliberately focusing the students’ attention on identifying different varieties and warned teachers the danger of ‘overdoing’ it.

Second, it was suggested that the change implemented within the curriculum must be tailored to specific types of courses. For instance, **Nat** believed that awareness-raising activities should be included (as a sub-topic) in undergraduate courses that focus on English sound systems where ‘teachable moments’ are plenty. A full course dedicated to teaching Global Englishes, however, should be offered in a graduate-level curriculum where students were likely to have passed the early stages of language learning development, and thus attained

sufficient language command to avoid getting distracted by issues considered by some teachers to be mostly ‘non-essential, fun-fact’ type of information.

Teachers also added that Global Englishes teaching implementation be customised to specific groups of students. For example, **Prim** believed that including Global Englishes content in class may be necessary but only for English-major undergraduate students, some of whom, **Prim** believed, might be interested in pursuing graduate education in languages or the likes. Apart from knowing ‘the history behind the development of English into the world’s language’, **Prim** believed that knowledge about Global Englishes can be used as a foundation on which the students can build as they encounter ‘new and unfamiliar aspects of the language’ during their post-graduate studies. Without giving the students the opportunity to equip themselves with background knowledge about different English varieties, **Prim** was concerned that they might have a hard time adjusting to a new academic environment: *“They might have felt disconcerted, wondering why this had never occurred to them, why the teachers had never taught them. So this is something we need to consider”* (Interview 5, 8 March 2018). Reflected in **Prim**’s comment was a sense of ethical responsibility where teachers must sufficiently and honestly prepare learners for the challenges ahead.

Third, explicit teaching was proposed as the teaching approach best suited to delivering the GELT content in the local classroom. While sceptical about including non-standard varieties in exam papers, **Tammy** believed that promoting

awareness of English varieties can be explicitly encouraged in class, and carried out by none other than the teachers themselves, who *“can tell the students in our class something like ‘this is the way British people say it, and that is how the American do it’ or that their only-American-English-exist mindset may not be right”* (Focus group, 14 September 2017). **Nat** suggested the students be directly exposed to "non-standard" varieties, so they begin to see them as 'normal'. This should be executed under the condition that these students had already been pre-exposed to a standard variety in order to prevent confusion. On a related note, **Nat** also proposed that more focus be put on teaching communication strategies, believing that the ELT industry could no longer work under the assumption that students should face no difficulty if we helped them familiarise with the English used by native speakers: *“But with difficult accents like Singlish, Scottish, or French English, what do we do to make sure the students can understand the interlocutors of such varieties? Which communication strategies can they make use of?”* (Interview 4, 7 March 2018). However, despite awareness of the potential role a globally-informed approach can play in promoting the teaching of communication strategies, **Nat** was less clear about what that might entail in implementation.

Fourth, **Devin** advocated for a more systematic integration of Global Englishes content which he believed was more sustainable in the Thai education context. In keeping with other teachers in that explicit teaching of the topic should be encouraged, he was specific about the manner a global approach should be carried out:

Actually, some teachers are already doing it [raising awareness], but not thoroughly or systematically. Tiny bits and pieces were introduced here and there in a not-so-holistic manner. Many students still lack generalisation skills and therefore fail to grasp the communicated meaning. For example, one time I tried varying my pronunciation of a word <Britain> using both American and British accents... turned out the students were so confused of what I was trying to say.

(Interview 2, 24 October 2017)

From **Devin's** perspective, awareness-raising lessons customised for Thai students may achieve better outcome when it is undertaken in a deliberate fashion. As illustrated in **Devin's** example, facilitating awareness among learners requires thoughtful lesson planning in which there is a better chance for teachable moments to be successfully realised when they are carefully planned out.

Lastly, teachers believed that Global Englishes should be incorporated in a way that closely parallels with the students' chosen field of study and real-life experience. Having acknowledged the reality of his classroom in which a few 'exceptionally good' students were outnumbered by 'the weak ones,' **Owen** urged that the scope and degree of difficulty of the topics introduced in class be decided based less on our perception of the students' academic competence but more on the degree of relevance to the students' real-world experiences. Referring to an English for engineering course he taught the previous semester, Owen reported he let the students make their 3D model of their chosen infrastructure and provide them with opportunities to present their design using the English vocabularies they had learnt throughout the semester. Instead of having the students do a close

reading of road constructions, Owen said he “*asked what they wanted to do...The idea simply made them happy because the assigned task is what they know about and are good at,*” (Interview 3, 17 November 2017). As an alternative to a ‘deficit’ pedagogical mindset that sees learners as lacking language proficiency, **Owen** offered them the opportunity where the teachers and students co-create a learning space, regarding the students as an individual capable of taking agency over their own learning. In such space, he focused less on the technical language of civil engineering and more on helping his students see how the implemented activities fit into a bigger picture of their daily life.

6.5 Chapter summary

The chapter has presented the teachers’ reflection on materialising globally-informed English language teaching in their local teaching environment. The findings revealed the teachers’ understanding of classroom strategies currently in use, such as calling students’ attention to English varieties or utilising external resources, to promote truthful understanding among their students of how English is realistically used today. Some teachers believed GELT implementation depended on the teacher’s agency; others insisted that students were central in the consideration. However, while all the teachers demonstrated awareness of globally-informed English language teaching and its importance in today’s ELT curricula, most remained sceptical about the necessity of adopting Global Englishes-related contents in light of their local teaching contexts. The teachers’

perceived implementational concerns have been identified, which involved students, the teachers, and institutional demands. Finally, the teachers provided pedagogical recommendations on how, if at all, globally-informed English language teaching can find its place in their local teaching scenarios.

The next chapter, therefore, moves on to discuss the study's overall findings where the key themes identified in previous chapters are discussed in relation to the literature reviewed in Chapter two.

7

Discussion

7.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the key findings of the study are discussed in reference to the relevant literature in the field under the umbrella of Global Englishes, Language teacher cognition (LTC), and Language teacher identity (LTI). The discussion is organised around the theme of ‘tension’, which underpins the interplay between the teachers’ cognition of English, their development of a language professional identity, and their pedagogical practices in the context of higher education in Thailand. In setting the scene for the discussion, I draw on the broader challenge of the theory-practice divide long observed in the field of Global Englishes. To further explore the issue, the notion of tension is adopted as a discussion framework before the potential causes of the tension are examined. Then I set out to argue that the tension is most pronounced at the crossroad when academics and teachers diverge on how the ‘ideal’ English language teacher is defined. Finally, I conclude the chapter by outlining a model of Global Englishes language teacher education that has language teacher identity at its centre. This is followed by suggestions on

practical affordances that could be helpful in the design and development of such programme.

7.2 Awareness-Action divide

The role of language teacher education (LTE) in shaping the teachers' attitudes has been well-documented, and thus acknowledged as a key avenue to instigate Global Englishes-related innovation in TESOL (Matsuda, 2017; Sifakis & Tsantila, 2018; Zein & Stroup, 2018). We have seen an increasing number of studies reporting on globally-informed English language teaching innovations with students in language classrooms (e.g., Marlina, 2013; Galloway, 2013; Galloway & Rose, 2014, 2018; Sung, 2015, 2018; Fang & Ren, 2018; Rosenhan & Galloway, 2019) and in preservice teacher education as well as in-service professional development (e.g., Cameron & Galloway, 2019; Dewey, 2015; Eslami, Moody & Pashmforoosh, 2019; Hall et al., 2013; 2017; Sifakis & Bayyurt, 2015; Vettorel & Corrizato; 2016; Zacharias, 2016). Prior studies conducted in EFL contexts also reported heightened awareness among students and teachers as a result of Global Englishes-related innovation in TESOL (e.g., Bayyurt & Sifakis, 2015a, 2015b, secondary schoolteachers in Turkey; Prabjandee, 2020, secondary schoolteachers in Thailand). The current approaches in LTE, although successful in raising the teachers' awareness of English varieties, have not yet managed to transform this heightened awareness into actual classroom practices. This gap between

awareness and action is reflected in the findings where raised awareness as a result of lessons in school did not lead Prim and Mandy to any change in their pedagogical practices. For instance, after spending a year in Malaysia, Mandy came to realise the benefits of participating in an unfamiliar community of practice whose norms and expectations were in stark contrast to one's own. However, such exposure and the realisation that ensued did not bear any effect on how Mandy planned to address her future practice. Moreover, when instances of Global Englishes-induced action did appear in practice, as reported in findings Chapter 6, such action was neither carefully planned nor systematically conducted. In fact, Global Englishes pedagogy as understood by the teachers seems to deviate from that as advocated by the Global Englishes scholarship. These findings support Borg's statement (2015):

it is clear that the distinction between cognitive change and behavioural change is important because one does not necessarily imply the other... teachers' cognitions (e.g., their belief in the value of a particular instructional technique) may also change without any obvious change in what they do (p. 326).

The underlying assumption of the proposals put forward by research communities within the Global Englishes domain – i.e., World Englishes (WE), English as a lingua franca (ELF), English as an international language (EIL), and Global Englishes (GE) – was that lack of pedagogical actions is more likely a result of lack of awareness of or attention to language ideologies rather than a commitment to specific ones, thus resulting in calls for more awareness raising and increased exposure to the diversity of English. Such an assumption is based on an

'information deficit model' which assumes that providing knowledge about the consequences of certain actions (e.g., benefits of taking up Global Englishes ideas in one's practice) would lead to a change in behaviour. However, as the findings have shown, changing awareness does not guarantee change in what the teachers see and do. The analysis of data implies that campaigns intended to raise awareness in language teacher education are perhaps not as effective as some may suppose. Several studies have indicated a clear conflict between the teachers' positive attitudes toward GE and recognition of complexities associated with implementing it in practice (Dilek & Özdemir, 2015; Hall et al., 2013; Sifakis & Bayyurt, 2015, 2018; Suzuki, 2011; Vettorel, 2016). The question worth considering is: ***why is it that Global Englishes language teaching is only 'conceptually attractive' but less likely to be taken up in action?***

In order to answer to this question, the current study draws from the teachers whose cognition (Chapter 4 and Chapter 6) and formation of language teacher identity (Chapter 5) are at the heart of discussions on curricular transformation. Research in LTI has described the process of learning English, learning how to teach English, and teaching English in a language classroom as a continuous lifelong process of becoming (Clarke, 2008). During such process, the teachers engage in what De Costa and Norton (2017) called 'identity work' (p.4), which is more or less 'a site of struggle' where teachers negotiate tensions (Varghese et al., 2016). From this perspective, tensions may be conceived as

“opportunities for learning, transformation, and growth” (Fairley, 2020, p. 5), and thus an important notion to clarify. Following Fairley’s (2020) conceptualisation, the term tension is defined as “the push and pull of dissonances or conflicts that arise as the teacher experiments with and tries to claim the identities that s/he imagines for him/herself” (p. 6). Running through the three findings chapters is the theme of tension and its roles in mediating the process of language teacher identity development (Norton, 2013; Edwards & Burns, 2016), and ultimately the uptake of curricular innovation. In the context of discussion based on the findings of the current study, I argue that the underlying issue of the mismatch between the teachers’ awareness and action lies in the tensions that emerge as the teachers negotiate multiple ideologies, both within oneself and with external realities. These two types of tensions faced by the teachers in relation to their journey to become an English teacher are framed as *internal* and *external*, which will be discussed in the following sections.

7.3 Teachers’ cognition of English: a site of internal tensions

The first type of tension happens when the teachers experience the dissonance between who they are now and who they would like to become (Kubanyiova, 2012; Xu, 2012; Kelly, 2018). In this study, such tension is manifested in the interplay of different ideological perspectives within the teachers’ cognition of English. By foregrounding the ideological stances taken by Thai EFL university

teachers in two higher education institutions in Thailand, and how it impacted on the way they conceptualised and taught the subject, the findings have shown the complexity and dynamicity of the Thai EFL teachers' cognition of English, both in terms of structures and expressions. Upon learning to become a teacher, the teachers undergo the process of developing different belief systems or what Bakhtin (1981) referred to as *ideological becoming*, which involves drawing on a repertoire of ideological resources that help them in a process of acquiring knowledge, skills, and strategies that help them become a legitimate member of the TESOL teacher community. For the teachers in the current study, the commonly shared ideological stance – i.e., what constitutes 'good' or 'preferred' English language teachers, pedagogical practices, and qualifications – is underpinned by the rhetoric of standard language ideology, an authoritative discourse which posit the existence of a correct, or 'standard', version of the language. Through sustained engagement throughout their educational histories, this dominant ideology has enabled the teachers to interpret and utilise it as resources for negotiating their professional identity as EFL university teachers.

As presented in Chapter 4, while we see multiple ideologies woven into the teachers' cognition of English, each of which varies in degree of importance and salience, the study highlights the pervasiveness of standard language ideology and how it is configured as a 'default' lens through which the teachers conceive of and approach teaching and learning English: English is perceived as a property owned

by the native speakers; speaking standard English means processing *in* English and articulating in ways expected by native speakers; the 'global' views of the language are bound to the territory of two countries (US and UK). The teachers' understandings of English are filtered through their standard language ideological repertoires the teachers brought with them, and manifested in a number of ways, such as their choice of instructional materials, the English varieties they select as a medium of instruction, or teaching/learning objectives and approaches. Indeed, the native speaker ideology can be located in every fabric of the teacher cognition, reflecting the current reality of TESOL in which attachment to native speaker norms entertained by both teacher trainers and student teachers was consistently found to be a recurring theme (Dewey, 2015; Manara, 2014; Giri & Foo, 2014, Tanghe, 2014).

While typically regarded as experts in their own contexts, pre- and in-service TESOL teacher practitioners are often positioned merely as passive adopters of the dominant English-speaking West philosophies (Kamhi-Stein, 2009; Ilieva & Waterstone, 2013; Dewey & Patsko, 2018) which currently divide English language teachers into categories based on the imagined criteria of native-nonnativeness (Varghese et al., 2005). The analysis implies that as the teachers journeyed from being learners of English to the teachers of one, they are continually negotiating to reclaim professional legitimacy as EFL teachers due to the internalised belief that native speakers are better users and teachers of English. The resulting tension was expressed as a sense of inferiority, which can be

observed in the use of 'third-world complex' by one teacher to describe a defiant/defensive reaction to seemingly 'derogatory comments' from native speakers (e.g., You've got an American accent), demonstrating how the teachers are not native or nonnative speakers per se, but rather are positioned as one through societal norms and socialised prejudices (Aneja, 2016; Hall et al., 2017).

Interestingly, to reassert one's self esteem the teachers might resort to the very same mechanism that originally undermined it. The findings reveal how racialised attitudes are not only socially-ascribed but also reproduced in the teachers' racialised preconception of course allocation (i.e., Thai teachers were expected to teach grammar and reading/writing courses while foreign teachers were in charge of courses on oral communication). These findings hinted at the teachers' preconceived ideas about the compatibility between the English skills and the native status of the teacher who teaches the skills. Instead of teaching competence or subject-matter expertise, the teachers may see nativeness as an important indicator of quality teaching. These findings, therefore, bear an interesting implication in that such preconceived notions may have not only exacerbated the profession's continued adherence to the native norms but also prevented the teachers from effectively drawing on their English-using self to feel legitimate as an EFL university teacher. It is worth pointing out that the mechanism by which these power struggles operate is systemic and strongly linked to past experience as well as socialised biases, rendering its influence less noticeable and

hard to detect (Appleby, 2016). These biases should not be underestimated because they may impact who is valued and which forms of pedagogies get promoted, pointing to the need for teacher education to provide opportunities for teachers to uncover ideological tensions in order to develop ideological clarity (Bartolomé, 2004; Dewey, 2015; Hall et al., 2013, 2017).

The current study also found that the teachers' cognition is dynamic. The findings show that the teachers' ideological positions are not firmly bounded or fixed; a degree of fluidity and some overlap between the different ideological positions along the traditional-global continuum of English language learning/teaching was noted. The case of Jane further illustrates how dynamic ideological positionings are in practice. Jane self-identifies as someone who holds a strong 'communicative competence' agenda and that 'ELF-informed pedagogy' is at the core of her enterprise. At the same time, however, Jane also resolved that *"the different ways British and American people say things"* will feature in every English she gives (e.g., via the 'Which English Camps do you belong to' activity), which seems to sit more comfortably within a 'traditionalist' agenda. In line with the findings from Hall et al.'s (2017) study which found inconsistency between monolithic and plurilithic orientations of English among Chinese university teachers, the current study also suggests that individual teachers came with numerous contradictions and tensions in their belief systems, and that the boundaries between the ideological positions are not impermeable (Varghese et al., 2005). Stances can be moderated, and sometimes contradicted, by the

infiltration of other ideologies, which manifest in seemingly conflicted views. On one hand, some teachers seem to identify more strongly with the traditional, ethnocentric views of ELT with respect to certain aspects of beliefs, such as language ownership, markers of standard English varieties for classroom instruction, or choice of instructional materials. On the other hand, with regard to other facets of beliefs (e.g., L1 use in classroom or the goal of language teaching), teachers were inclined toward a global stance where English serves as a means to mutual intelligibility in international communications. Despite general awareness of the pedagogical implications of their entrenched attachment to established norms and the prospect of change being regarded as necessary, there was also tension as the teachers noted several challenges that might ensue when the status quo becomes disrupted.

In the next section, the discussion revolves around the introduction of Global Englishes as an inclusive conceptual paradigm of alternative ideologies, and thus another (potential) source of ideological tension the teachers need to negotiate.

7.4 Global approaches to English language teaching: external tensions

In the process of establishing one's professional identity as a legitimate EFL teacher, the teachers in the current study were found having to reconcile not only

the tension of their assigned identity as non-native English teachers but also the emerging tension from another authoritative discourse (Bakhtin, 1981) presented by a scholarly community. This discourse took a form of a paradigm shift proposed as necessary to reframe language teaching in order to match the new sociolinguistic landscape where English has become the global lingua franca. As indicated in the findings, at some point along their language learning journey the teachers have been introduced, and therefore are generally aware of the diversity of English (albeit limited to British and American English), and its 'becoming' a global language. This awareness, however, was shown to be peripheral and rarely present (or less observable) in the teachers' practices.

Such a finding is not surprising given that Global Englishes may have represented an unfamiliar ideological repertoire dissimilar to the one these teachers have been holding onto throughout their past learning histories. As Rose & Galloway (2019) assert, "given the dominance of native norms, GELT may be 'new' to many, particularly in the sense that it involves a new way of looking at the English language" (p. 86). Learning to teach is not merely memorising content and strategies, but rather adopting a whole new identity as a teacher (Barkhuizen, 2016b) and taking on behaviours, discourses, and ideologies associated with teachers within a particular school of thought (Gee, 2001). When researchers made proposals that teachers rethink goals and approaches to English language teaching, they were not merely proposing that the teachers try out a new teaching method. Rather, they were asking that the teachers adopt a new set of ideologies and

reconstruct their identity accordingly. For teachers growing up invested in becoming part of a traditional, norm-bound teaching community, the proposed change might be construed as another external tension that needs to be reconciled. As Dewey (2015) noted, for the teachers to be able to “imagine an alternative to the promotion of NS norms” (p. 127), their existing ideological views that uphold their practice must be unpacked and the compatibility of new concepts with the existing beliefs and knowledge taken into account.

Adopting a new ideological repertoire involves a complex negotiation between conflicting ideologies. In light of the current study, it means negotiating between the ‘traditional’ English teacher identity in which they have been heavily investing and the ‘globally-informed’ English teacher identity as proposed by Global Englishes research. According to Bakhtin (1981), identity struggles occur when ideologies clash within the same context, and the teachers are forced to reconfigure those worldviews (e.g., what it means to teach English in one’s local classroom) in order to reduce conflict and reinstate a sense of equilibrium. To carry out a globally-informed English lesson requires that the teachers address the tension by agentively negotiating the multiple ideological tensions (traditional vs global) in order to acquire a globally-informed English language teacher identity. These approaches to negotiation involved acts of agency or “new ways of being” (Holland et al., 1998, p. 5) that allowed teachers to modify the ‘new ways of doing’.

The analysis of the present data suggests that this emerging tension with the advent of Global Englishes research is characterised by *the teachers' lack of deep conceptual understanding of what it means and why it matters to adopt the Global Englishes paradigm*. In other words, while the teachers are aware of the need to change, their understanding of change departs from how it was originally conceived from the perspectives of Global Englishes scholarship. To better address the issue of an awareness-action divide, it may be useful to understand how the teachers approach this form of tension. Based on the findings, the study highlights two potential causes that might account for this tension. These include: 1) superficial coverage of Global Englishes content in the teachers' past language learning histories; and 2) A disconnect between researchers' etic perspectives and teachers' emic points of view.

7.4.1 Superficial coverage of Global Englishes content in the teachers' past language learning histories.

The manner with which Global Englishes-related content was introduced to the teachers, if at all, is far from comprehensive, characterised mainly by a superficial coverage of Global Englishes which led to the teachers' surface learning of the concepts and unquestioning acceptance. Findings showed that at some point in their educational journey many teachers reported having only a very brief encounter with Global Englishes concepts. Tammy's early experience with English varieties was limited to the lexical domain; diversity of English meant how people

from different places use different words (e.g., truck vs lorry) to refer to the same thing. Only in his third undergraduate year did Owen become aware of the existence of 'English varieties', which according to Owen's teacher was considered enough. It was not surprising to see why the teachers may be familiar with the terminologies (having heard of them) but, due to a lack of critical engagement, are unable to perceive any meaningful implications for their education or working life. As noted by Galloway & Rose (2015) and Prabjandee (2020), an epistemic shift entails more than simply highlighting diversity in language forms and uses.

The ramification of this rather incomplete and fragmented understanding is manifested most clearly in the teachers' conceptualisation of a global approach to English language teaching as teaching various codified forms of World Englishes. Prim, for example, interpreted incorporation of Global Englishes content in classroom as teaching students about: "*what Singlish looks like or this is the way Filipinos speak*". In light of this perspective, the teachers' perceived hesitation to accept a globally-informed approach in their practice is understandable. Given that the majority of the teachers consider their grasp of the theoretical concepts to encompass some but not all of its aspects, they consider themselves poorly equipped with regards to subject matter content knowledge (Shulman, 1986), as evidenced in Prim's comment ("*I'm not sure if my level of knowledge is at the point where I can engage in a conceptual discussion about it*"). This suggests that while Global Englishes was advocated as a pedagogical approach to inform practice (Rose

& Galloway, 2019), the teachers may have interpreted the term through the filter of their own past learning experience, taking it to mean teaching the subject-matter content the same way one learns and teaches a textbook unit. When the teachers were asked to suggest how they believe Global Englishes content could be incorporated into their *own* local classrooms (Chapter 6), the study found that their suggestions somewhat resemble the way they have come to learn about English varieties as a learner. Tang, Lee, and Chun (2012) found that pre-service teachers in a TESOL programme did not always make pedagogical decisions based on TESOL concepts and theories introduced in their programme, but in ways that reflected their own experiences as students.

To address these issues, we must first acknowledge that for many teachers, as the findings suggested, Global Englishes and the pedagogical framework it proposes represent a new and unfamiliar form of knowledge outside one's established area of subject expertise, and that requires more critical engagement. Without well-developed subject-matter knowledge (i.e., theoretical underpinnings of Global Englishes), many teachers might feel their teaching efficacy challenged when confronted with content with which they have little familiarity. Despite a strong pedagogical knowledge, when the meta understanding of Global Englishes is lacking, issues embedded in difficult, and in most cases, problematic dimensions of Global Englishes may remain oblivious, if not mistaken, and thus unaddressed by the teachers. As Shulman (1986) states, "Mere content knowledge is likely to be as useless pedagogically as content-free skill" (p. 5). The findings of the current

study confirm this statement and suggests that it could perhaps also be the case vice versa.

Such poorly-developed meta-knowledge of Global Englishes may also prevent the teachers from acquiring a strong foundation of pedagogical content knowledge, i.e., how to present and represent the knowledge of a discipline (Shulman, 1986, 1987), and ultimately from taking action. This is illustrated in the findings when we see Nat included two articles titled “How quickly is the English language changing?” and “What’s the future of English?” in her class but treated them merely as a platform for grammar exercises. This finding suggests that the teachers might only perceive the applications of the articles in terms of serving the lesson objectives, but are unable to envision or seize the ‘teachable moments’ afforded by the articles beyond the confines of the course. Without the knowledge to represent or formulate the subject matter in practical and comprehensive ways, the teachers may find it difficult to envision how Global Englishes content may be linked to other practical dimensions of their students’ lives. This may also explain why the embodiment of Global Englishes-related content in the classroom often seems unplanned, and rather incidental to the main objective of the lesson in which it was included.

The finding has important implications for developing the teachers’ deep and critical (meta) understanding of Global Englishes and its pedagogical implications. This deep conceptual learning, similar to what Dogancay-Atkuna and

Hardman (2012, 2017) termed as '*teacher praxis*' in the situated meta-praxis model of EIL teacher education, encompasses not only a complete holistic understanding of the concepts (content knowledge) but also the ability to make a meaningful connection of these concepts with pedagogical knowledge acquired in their teacher education and with their professional life. Such meta-understanding also entails knowing why the concepts matter for their students and for themselves, and using it to guide their pedagogical decisions and actions. For teachers to see how understanding of Global Englishes and their pedagogical knowledge are meaningfully connected, they need to have both proficiency and a sense of efficacy in both forms of knowledge. On the basis of the current findings, these forms of knowledge have been conceptualised as components contributing to the teachers' teaching and English-using self. Once cultivated, this deep learning will form the foundation of what will be termed here as the teachers' 'GELT pedagogical content knowledge' ('*GELT competencies*'), which allows teachers to apply GELT *creatively* and *constructively* within their contextual limitations. This application involves not only teaching *about* existence of different varieties but also *through* other activities that fulfil lesson/course objectives. The case in point here is that when the teachers found their understanding of Global Englishes wanting, they had no choice but unconsciously draw on prior knowledge they learned in their formative years, which were deeply ingrained in standard language ideology. In other words, it is likely that prior learning experience may serve as a 'fall-back' mechanism or a mental shortcut, especially when reflective practices are not actively engaged in

(Farrel, 2018). Taking these findings into account, there is a clear need for the teachers to be provided with opportunities to clarify ideological tensions stemming from their past learning histories and to evaluate the relevance of Global Englishes in their own teaching contexts

7.4.2 A disconnect between researchers' etic perspectives and teachers' emic points of view

The present study has shed light on the existing incompatibility between scholarly etic views and the teachers' emic perspectives on what it means to make one's language classroom 'globally informed.' In light of the current study's findings, when the notion of English as a lingua franca was introduced as a prompt in the focus groups, the majority of the teachers recognised the term but were less able to articulate or see its relevance to their pedagogical practices. As noted in Chapter 4, this relative absence of ELF stands in stark contrast with the high visibility of theoretical discussions on ELF-related topics within TESOL communities. When proposed ideas for change are being introduced but never adopted by the teachers, it raises questions regarding the practicalities of the effort to bring about a paradigm shift in ELT. Such disconnection means that scholars and teachers are walking parallel lines, and neither group benefits from the insights of the other.

This lack of deep conceptual understanding of the term 'ELF' suggests a theory-oriented nature, and thus an etic perspective, that characterises most discussions of Global Englishes scholarship in TESOL. When little considerations are given to the teachers' voices, it is not surprising that the proposed ideas may be perceived as complicated (make little sense) and difficult to apply. For many teachers, adopting these scholarly proposals of change in their pedagogy means entering a new space, which may be conceived as "a site of struggle rather than celebration" (Kubota, 2016, p. 484). Previous research studies have also highlighted how the Western import of teaching methods or curriculum innovation imposed by policymakers might not always be favourably received by EFL teachers in a variety of localities, especially in Asia, seeing the 'latest trend' inappropriate for both themselves as teachers and their students (Hayes, 2009; Liu & Xu, 2011; Tsui, 2007).

While this past decade has seen an increase in research on Global Englishes, there appears to be more potential for their contribution to transcend beyond the boundaries of theoretical debates limited to scholars and specialists (Galloway & Rose, 2014; Sung, 2017). Many scholars have argued that the tension between research and practice may be due to the growing intellectualisation of TESOL as a field (e.g., impenetrable methodology and language, specialist terms, only accessible via high-level journals), which has led to teachers' disengagement with academic research, most of which seems removed from the real issues the teachers care to learn more about (Marsden & KasProwicz, 2017; McKinley, 2019; Sato &

Loewen, 2019). Rose (2019) argued that scholarly discussions are essentially unidirectional – rife with future pedagogical implications for practice, yet rarely grounded in the actual practice where the implications were originally intended for. Consequently, the proposals for change may fail to make real-world impact, serving only as an academic exercise without real transformations to the lives of people it originally intends to affect (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015). To ensure that these academic activities function as “an aid to transforming the lives of the people,” (Kubota, 2016, p. 484), Global Englishes as academic field should avoid imposing ‘hegemonic practices’ on the teachers but aim to provide space where academic knowledge sits in accordance with local pedagogical values. Global Englishes scholarship may bring about a paradigmatic break and become an innovative direction in our English language teaching community only when it can improve educational equality, and not just a unit in school curricula.

7.5 Global Englishes-informed teachers: a conceptual mismatch

The clearest manifestation of the teachers’ lack of deep conceptual understanding of Global Englishes and pedagogical implications lies in the mismatch between the teachers’ understandings and the researchers’ perspectives with regards to what attributes constitute ideal English teachers. As revealed in Chapter 6, the conceptual gap embedded and embodied in the teacher cognition of

their current identity (who they are now) and future identity goals (who they aspire or compelled to be) constitutes one of the barriers to implementing Global Englishes content in the local language classroom. According to the adapted Global Englishes Language Teaching (GELT) framework proposed by Rose and Galloway (2019), ideal GELT-informed teachers are defined as the teachers who are “qualified and competent” (p. 21) with a multilingual repertoire and the ability to provide an authentic ELF setting for each class regardless of their perceived native status. From the viewpoints of the teachers in the current study, however, GELT teacher ‘role models’ are described as highly proficient language users (of standard varieties), highly knowledgeable in World Englishes, and highly capable of imparting such knowledge (i.e., World Englishes) to the learners. Chapter 6 also reported on the teachers’ professional identity goals, which are depicted in relation to the positive learning experience of and future career opportunities for their students. Since the teachers’ self-perception of their EFL teacher identity, current and future, *does not* fit with any of the ‘perceived’ desirable qualifications of GELT model teachers, the teachers feel less confident/able, and thus less inclined to introduce GELT in their classroom (despite existing awareness and general agreement on its utility). In other words, the idea of attaining the identity of a GELT-informed teacher, when discussed in reference to the current edition of GELT framework (Rose & Galloway, 2019), seems neither feasible (‘I don’t think I’m qualified for this’) nor desirable (‘I don’t want to do/be/become this’).

This finding has important implications for potential improvement to the latest version of the GELT framework (Rose & Galloway, 2019). While GELT framework has informed and immensely contributed to fruitful discussions on topics surrounding the implications of Global Englishes (e.g., Galloway, 2017; Galloway & Rose, 2014, 2018; McKinley, 2018; Rose & Galloway, 2017; Syrbe & Rose, 2018), it may not have sufficiently captured the complexities of the teachers' inner lives. Consequently, for the GELT framework to be more relevant and practical, researchers need to either re-think the visions they put forward or reframe and communicate their proposal with respect to the role of teachers in ways that the teachers can relate to.

To elaborate, expectations for the teachers need to be communicated more clearly. The teachers' partial understandings of Global Englishes and notable absence of the notion of English as a lingua franca in my study are two illustrative examples which suggests a clear need to rethink communication channels for research, so that findings are more easily and mutually accessible by both researchers and teachers. Research communities need to ensure that the messages they want to get across to the teachers are accessible and user-friendly. Given that Global Englishes and GELT are complex topics, and thus subject to different interpretations, research communities may want to engage practitioners in reciprocal and meaningful intellectual exchanges. Although the teachers may have already been aware of the ideas (introduced briefly in their own teacher education

and yet to be updated), this does not guarantee the original messages have been universally interpreted. Unanimous acceptance may not have been established and expecting teachers to completely grasp the essence of the paradigm does not seem fair, let alone expecting them to apply it in their own practices. The proposed ideas may unintentionally alienate teachers, which has been previously observed as being an issue in connecting theory with pedagogical practice (Hall et al., 2013). Especially when the proposed views and recommendations are locally consequential, teachers should not be expected to passively listen to what the experts in the fields determine to offer; rather, they should be provided with channels via which they can 'actively' ask the experts on topics that are relevant with what they do as experts in their own profession. The key message here is that whether the proposed change will be successfully implemented depends, as the overall findings of the study have shown, on the teachers' understanding and attitudes toward it. That is, the more informed and 'self-attuned' the teachers are as the first in line of innovation receivers, the better equipped they will be to handle the decisions regarding how to introduce and sustain classroom innovation to the best possible effect.

More importantly, as shown in the data, the teachers' pedagogical practices seem to be guided by their identity goals. In other words, acting in the students' best interests facilitates their becoming a kind of teacher they have aspired to be. This means that to achieve their identity goals teachers need information on the skills and competencies students should be able to articulate, put into action, or

utilise in order to function in a variety of global contexts. While there exists published research providing practical suggestions on what teachers can do to help learners develop such competencies (e.g., Galloway & Rose, 2015; Kiczkowiak & Lowe, 2019), a clear description of the kind of competence the teachers need to improve *on themselves* in order to confidently carry out GELT implementation remains lacking. In other words, with their students' best interests in mind the teachers may have wanted to adopt GELT in their practice but found themselves lacking self-efficacy and at a loss as they struggle to identify, interrogate, articulate, and respond to the tensions that arise before and during the implementation process.

In light of the study's major findings, a dynamic lens of language teacher identity (i.e., how teachers see themselves) needs to be in place, given its central role in furthering our understanding of innovation processes (Kubanyiova & Crookes, 2016). When shifts in education priorities occur, teachers may not only need to acquire new knowledge, but also build or rebuild their identities (Kanno & Stuart, 2011; Xu, 2012). As Morgan (2016) asserts, language teacher identity "is a key source of agency for social change" (p. 206). As such, for teachers to promote a paradigm shift and engage in curricular transformation, a sense of self-efficacy must be cultivated and established in their identity. Through agentive power, the teachers' attempt to adopt an intended new identity is possible (Edwards & Burn, 2016). In Chapter 5, we see examples of strategies the teachers use to position

themselves as an agentic EFL university teacher. However, without an explicit articulation of what constitutes the *competencies* crucial for the formation of a GELT-informed teacher, the teachers are less likely to adopt GELT than if they are aware of potential tensions as well as how to handle them. According to self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000) and self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1986), the idea that people need to perceive that they are capable of performing the actions before they can be expected to adopt it seems logical. Therefore, it is important that we identify what can be termed as '*GELT competencies*' – a set of competencies that are fundamental to the development of the identity as a GELT-informed teacher. Moreover, the teachers' *beliefs* about their competence to carry out GELT-informed practices within whatever constraints in constructive and agentic ways (adapted from Mill, 2014), or '*GELT efficacy*' ('I feel capable as a GELT-informed teacher'), must also be explored and taken into consideration. The findings have demonstrated how teachers utilise, albeit in varying degrees, both their teaching self (sense of who they are as a teacher) and English-using self (sense of who they are as a user/learner of English) to guide their practices. This may prove to be a good starting point in discussing how we can facilitate the teachers in their development of both *GELT competencies* and *GELT efficacy*.

7.6 LTI-focussed Global Englishes Teacher Education

Although language teacher identity has been used primarily as a research framework in the field of applied linguistics and ELT, the results of the study have

pointed to the mediating role TESOL teacher education programmes play in the dynamic process of developing the teachers' EFL teacher identity, signalling that it is time the field advances by including an identity approach in language teacher education (Nuske, 2015; Morgan, 2016a; Kavanoz & Yiiksel, 2017; Yazan & Lindahl, 2020; Fairley, 2020). An implication of this is how TESOL teacher education can provide teachers with opportunities to critically engage in the identity work towards adopting a GELT-informed teacher identity by harnessing the transformative power of language teacher identity lens. To this end, and in light of the data grounded in the real voice of the teachers, I offer the ways in which TESOL teacher educators may contribute to building the foundation of a language-teacher-identity-focussed Global Englishes teacher education programme. With the ultimate goal of developing the *teacher praxis* (Dogancay-Atkuna & Hardman, 2012, 2017), LTI-focussed Global Englishes Teacher Education may involve, but is not limited to, the following opportunities:

Use reflective approaches to disrupt the apprenticeship of observation.

Previous studies have shown that prospective teachers' preconceptions about language teaching acquired in their formative years can carry on and may not always be conducive to effective practice (Numrich, 1996; Öztürk and Gürbüz; 2017). To limit the influence of the native norms that govern the teachers' English-using self, we need to ensure that the experience attained during teacher education serve to disrupt, rather than bolster, teachers' monolingual discourse cultivated in

their early years. Making these preconceptions explicit is thus an important part of the process of teacher education (Dewey, 2015; Hall et al., 2013). Reflective exercises may also help emancipate the teachers from native norms by helping them to reconnect with their past learning self and become aware of the impact of their learning histories on their teaching – the first step in breaking free from the grip of native-speaker ideology and leaving some free room for new pedagogical ideas.

Internalise GELT-informed teacher as professional identity goals.

Successful implementation of Global Englishes requires that teachers' identity goals (ideal or ought-to) are implicated in any proposal for change. Based on conceptual development theories (see Kubanyiova, 2012), for internalisation to take place, GELT-informed teacher identity needs to: 1) have 'conceptual grasping' – teachers not only understand why Global Englishes-informed practice is important but also know how such understanding may be connected to their local context of practice; 2) entail specificity and plausibility – teachers are prepared with specific strategies and action plans to attain the goal; 3) be modelled in their teaching context – GELT-informed teacher identity must be well aligned with what is institutionally expected in a given context; and 4) most importantly, teachers' self-efficacy in terms of materialising GELT must be high. If these conditions are not met, teachers may be faced with frustration or reservation.

Provide safe space to build GELT efficacy.

Language teacher education can provide space where the teachers learn to draw on identity resources to build a sense of professional agency. Central to the teachers in the present study was the salience of the teachers' teaching selves and that students' learning was considered part of their identity goal (see Chapter 6, section 2.2). When teachers' practices are guided by the self-aspect they feel highly identified with (e.g., teaching self), they make it easier for themselves to assert their professional legitimacy. For example, guided by insights and well-intended thoughts for their students, Tammy and Owen drew on their teaching self (which is more salient in their experience), managing to deviate from the theories they have been taught and looking beyond the immediate goals. By drawing on an empathetic, student-centred teaching approach, Devin improved the students' experience by giving them options to use both Thai and English during class discussion, which in turn provided him a means through which his ideal language teacher selves could be realised. These examples suggest that although teachers may incorporate what they have learned during their teacher education into their construction of their professional self, these perceptions are not always directly translated into practice but filtered through certain aspects of their EFL teacher identity. In accordance with the secondary school teachers in Hayes's (2009, 2016) studies, the teachers in the present study were found to link their core identity in the teaching profession to improving the social welfare of their students. In this

regard, students' learning acts as the key determiner of the teachers' agency. To facilitate the adoption of Global Englishes ideology, teachers may be reminded that by putting their students' learning first and foremost in every pedagogical decision, they are simultaneously moving toward their own identity goals. Every effort to improve their students' learning experience means closing the gap between who they are now and who they aspire to be. In other contexts, teacher educators may want to obtain baseline information on the aspects of the teachers' selves to which Global Englishes might appeal (teaching or English-using selves) and identify strategies that help teachers to make more efficient use of the more salient self.

Cultivate GELT competencies.

Teachers should be encouraged to develop a critical, in-depth understanding of Global Englishes and GELT, the outcome of which may be conceptualised as *GELT competencies* which allows the teachers to make meaningful connections between their prior knowledge (e.g., pedagogical knowledge, subject-matter knowledge) and the newly proposed ideas. For example, to facilitate the inclusion of GELT perspectives in a language classroom, researchers (ideally in collaboration with the teacher practitioners themselves) could offer concrete and accessible creative resources to help the teachers design and implement a GELT-informed lesson beyond simply raising learners' awareness. Such resources can be anything from 'how-to frameworks' to 'GELT toolkits' to topics that will enable the teachers to effectively lead conversations about the subject matter (e.g., standard language ideology, Nativespeakerism,

English as a global lingua franca, etc.) in various learning environments. Previous literature has shown that in ELF communities of practice, students reap benefits when theoretical lessons (e.g., World Englishes) are complemented with those that promote intercultural communicative competence and pragmatic competence (Baker, 2016; Taguchi & Ishihara, 2018). This may be easier said than done, especially when the mainstream teaching tools remain limited to traditional norm-based materials. Consistent with previous studies (e.g., Dewey, 2015; Syrbe & Rose, 2018) study, the current study found heavy reliance on ELT instructional materials where ELF usage is rarely represented in the texts and standard inner-circle accents feature strongly in the accompanying audio materials. This points to the importance of reflective practices in facilitating teachers' examination of factors and guidelines that they need to take into account when evaluating readily available materials and designing effective instructional materials.

Prepare teachers to be contextually informed and ready to pursue their identity goal in the face of any difficult environment.

The present study takes the same stance as Johnson's (2009) "located second language teacher education" which calls for more attention to not only where they teachers *learn* but also "the social, political, economic, and cultural histories that are located in the contexts" (p. 114) of where they (plan to) teach. Prior research has indicated that teachers need to develop contextually-informed awareness, skills, and dispositions that prepare them to question outdated

established norms while navigating within constraints of their professional workplace, current or future (Hawkins, 2011; Selvi & Rudolph, 2018). While teacher education may serve as a fertile ground to plant the seeds of innovation, there is no guarantee that these seeds will grow into seedlings (i.e., materialised ideas) and thrive in any pots or lands (i.e., professional working contexts) they find themselves. In other words, it is not reasonable to expect all teachers to equally succeed in applying innovations in their respective professional environments. Attention must be paid to the way these seeds are prepared and cared for. To create a realistic and meaningful innovation plan that sufficiently prepares the teachers for any scenarios where they might be working, TESOL teacher education must attend to “the contextualized lived experiences of individuals negotiating identity within and across borders” (Selvi, 2017, p. 114). To this end, the study’s findings advocate that teachers be given opportunity to critically reflect on possible responses they could use to disrupt existing outdated practices while working within context-specific constraints and coercive power dynamics in order to bring about positive change. Morgan’s (2016a) ‘issue analysis project’ may be helpful in this respect since it requires the teachers to identify a gap in the field and design a blueprint (e.g., advocacy letter, policy statement, workshop, or curricular innovation) that can potentially offer a solution particular to the context they will be working in.

Safeguard from institutional demands.

What do we do to safeguard the teachers' practices and their professional legitimacy from succumbing to institutional demands? The current study found that pressure to prepare students for high-stake exams put the teachers in doubt with regards to the usefulness of a 'peripheral topic' for the students, leading them to question the relevance of Global Englishes content to the students' current language proficiencies as well as their life. From Prim's point of view, her students were 'not yet ready' and thus adding Global Englishes content, even for awareness-raising purposes, was not only difficult but also futile. Mandy feared that her students might struggle to find employment in the mainstream workforce where 'native-like competency' is perceived as a more desirable quality. These teachers' concerns resonate with Quirk's (1985) statement over 30 years ago:

There are only the most dubious advantages in exposing the learner to a great variety of usage, no part of which he will have time to master properly, little of which he will be called upon to exercise, all of which is embedded in a controversial sociolinguistic matrix he cannot be expected to understand (p.6)

It was clear that that the teachers held themselves accountable for their students' learning. If their students do not perform well, it reflects their poor teaching ability. Dewey (2015) and Hall et al. (2013, 2017) argued that the concerns held by the teachers reflect the ideology of standardisation which was not exclusive to ELT but ingrained in the broader education system. Because such ideology was deeply entrenched in institutional policies, it would be challenging

for the teachers to notice, let alone counteract it. Therefore, the test-driven ELT culture appears to pose the most challenge to the teachers' teaching self.

Rose and Galloway (2019) predicted that washback from high-stakes examinations was one of the major sources of resistance to the various proposed models for change in ELT. While teachers are generally concerned about the students' welfare and committed to a larger educational enterprise, part of the concern may be derived from the pressure generated by the test-driven culture. To uphold their teaching self-efficacy, the teachers may align their practice with the standardised tests to ensure that the students do well in test. They cannot risk teaching anything that might not be on the test as that would put their professional legitimacy in jeopardy. Applied linguists agreed that language tests and other forms of assessment based on standard English norms are not the most adequate measures for students' language skills (McNamara & Shohamy, 2016). the teachers may unwittingly become

Another institutional constraint the current study highlights is the way courses are allocated among the teachers. The findings in Chapter 5 indicated that the shift in the types of courses (hence the class profile and the students' language proficiency) was largely determined by institutional decisions. Although increased teaching experience and knowledge about the curricula were cited as the key factors in their decision on whether to accept or reject teaching the allocated courses, the extent to which institutionally assigned courses may impede the teachers' willingness to endorse Global Englishes in their practice remains

uncertain. Tammy, for instance, admitted she would feel slightly concerned if she were to be assigned with academically strong students to whom she had less exposure compared to low-achieving students with whom she felt more familiar. It may be the case therefore that teachers who have regularly been assigned to teach low-proficiency students may not see the need to incorporate Global Englishes content in their classroom, and may find themselves improperly equipped, both in terms of skills and confidence, to integrate Global Englishes pedagogy into their classes in the future. Even when the benefits of exposing students to variation in English were acknowledged, we cannot (and should not) expect Tammy to have all the Global Englishes ideas prepared and ready to execute the moment she was informed of her course assignment, be it high-achieving or low-achieving students. On planning the curriculum innovation, institutional variables must therefore be taken into consideration.

GELT the teachers' way.

In line with McKinley's (2019) calls for more practitioner-based work from which emic and contextually-situated insights into the language classroom can be learned, the findings of the present study suggested that any curricular change we wish to introduce might have a better chance of being accepted by the innovation receivers when the change comes from the receivers themselves. For instance, the teachers recommended that the delivery of Global Englishes content in Thai EFL classrooms needed to be explicit as well as systematic so as to maximise the

teachable moments in which awareness-raising activities yielded the most impact. TESOL educators might consider designing activities that reflect such insights by inviting teachers to (pre)identify the 'teachable moment' in different types of courses where Global Englishes content may be addressed without jeopardising the class's main objectives. Some types of courses, such as English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and literature courses, may offer plenty of opportunities for Global Englishes content to be presented due to relevance to the real-life contexts, and therefore may be more suitable for empowering learners as users of the language. This finding concurred with the teachers' perceptions in that Global Englishes should be incorporated in a way that closely aligns with the students' chosen field of study and real-life experience. Previous research also suggest that literature courses have the potential to provide the learners with a platform where they can creatively tap into their linguistic resources since an act of interpretation and/or production of literary texts allows the students to extend their 'voice' amidst the tension between 'accuracy' and 'creativity' (Rosenhan & Galloway, 2019).

Introduce moments of disjuncture.

Findings of the current study are in keeping with literature that has found that perceived change in professional environment can contribute to change in teachers' perception of English with regards to their professional identity (Duff & Ushioda, 1997; Hiver, 2013). This was illustrated in the case of Jane whose experience abroad has affected both her pedagogical practices and sense of identity in a significant way. Despite being in the UK for a short time, Jane experienced an

aggravated sensitivity to the two major Inner-circle English varieties. As the context shifts, teachers may experience 'moments of disjuncture' or 'turning points' that are usually charged with emotions (Jarvis, 2009). These strong emotions enable the teachers to pause and inspect their prior knowledge, become more receptive to new ideas, and thus provide an impetus for future learning.

Ongoing in-service teacher professional developments should be accessible (or mandatory) for teachers with preservice language teacher education and those without one.

The study's findings have indicated that L2 teacher education, contrary to common assumptions, may not always constitute a typical component of Thai EFL teachers' experience repertoire. Given little to no training in teaching, their cognition of a language classroom may be mostly connected with their early experience as a learner in their formative years and maintained until they embarked on their teaching career. Their teaching knowledge is thus derived from and driven not by pre-service teacher education in its traditional sense but their real-world teaching experiences, either formally or informally. The finding of the present study raises question with regard to possibilities of additional learning venues for teachers without a formal language teaching education. This implies that it is important to identify other learning venues through which all the teachers, including those who may not necessarily have had a pre-service teacher education, may continue their development as a language professional. In view of the

significance of professional development activities, the findings of the study echo the proposals of many scholars to take a long-term view of teacher education that extends beyond the formal programs and takes place throughout a teacher's career (Hiver, 2013; Widodo, Fang, & Elyas, 2020).

Self-introspection must be encouraged among all teachers.

ELT community, especially teachers working within the enterprise, need to understand ideologies, practices, and identities that shape the teachers' work and lives. Such understanding also needs to be coupled with proactive and positive attitudes toward creative change that grant the industry not just survival but thrivingness. Teachers' understanding of their own identity and agency will be greatly enhanced through their improved understanding not only of the language/discipline (the subject matter they teach) but of *the institutional contexts*, both at departmental and university levels, and other forces (e.g., values, discourses, and policies) that shape their profession and their identity within it. One of the themes Dewey (2015) argued should be include in the teacher education curriculum was raising awareness among ELT professionals of the ideological nature of English and how it is conceptualised more generally in the sociopolitical fabric of education system at large, both in policy discourse and classroom practices. He argued that if an ELF perspective is to be more fully adopted in real-life practices, it is vital that the teachers be made aware of how their ideological position in relation to language and language teaching can either beneficially or detrimentally affect their students. Introspective practices can help them to

problematise normalised assumptions, practices, and positions to argue for an empowering identity (Simon-Maeda, 2004) and thus should become an essential element of the identity work that has been advocated in language teacher education in general.

7.7 Chapter summary

Upon investigating the cognition of English held by the Thai EFL university teachers, the study has uncovered a subtle thread of tension woven into the fabric of the relationship between teachers' cognition, professional identities, and pedagogical practices. Anchored within the overarching tension between theory and practice in the field of Global Englishes, the chapter discusses a myriad of tensions experienced by the teachers in the social process of identity development, highlighting the ways in which the agency of individual teachers plays a key role in negotiating conflicting ideologies, both within themselves and with 'new' emergent realities. Potential factors that underlie these tensions have been identified. These include the prevalence of standard language ideology, the teachers' superficial learning of Global Englishes content in their past language education journey, and a disconnect between researchers' etic perspectives and teachers' emic points of view, especially with respect to the ways 'ideal' English language teachers are defined. Taken together, these result in teachers' lack of deep conceptual understanding of Global Englishes, and ultimately the slow uptake of the global

approach in actual language classrooms. In addressing the issue based on the findings of the study, I have provided recommendations as to how the current version of GELT framework can be improved, proposing the need to reframe the discussion about teachers' professional development in terms of roles, competencies, and professional efficacy. To conclude the chapter, I pave a future avenue for an LTI-focused, globally-informed TESOL teacher education curricula by putting forth practical suggestions on how the concept of language teacher identity could help the teachers navigate the multiple tensions as they rebuild their teacher praxis toward becoming a globally-informed English language teacher. In Rose and Galloway's (2019) words, the goal is not to prescribe the best model for ELT but to "empower TESOL practitioners to critically evaluate their curricula in relation to Global Englishes" (p. xiii).

8

Conclusion

8.1 Introduction

This study has contributed to the growing scholarship in Global Englishes and language teaching by investigating the diversity with which Thai EFL university teachers perceive and enact English teaching in their language classrooms in light of the changing sociolinguistic uses of English as a global lingua franca. Drawing on ethnographic accounts based on multiple data sources across two university contexts, the study seeks to understand in-service Thai EFL teachers' cognition of English through their language learning and teaching experiences, guided by the following overarching research questions:

- RQ1 What are the teachers' ideological views of English and the extent to which these views are realised in their practices?

- RQ2 How do the teachers develop and enact their L2 teacher identities from a Global Englishes perspective?

- RQ3 How do the teachers interpret globally-oriented initiatives in light

of their teaching contexts?

This chapter begins with a review of the aims and key findings of the study. It then discusses the contributions and limitations of the study. Finally, implications as well as recommendations for future research and practice are presented.

8.2 Review of aims and major findings

8.2.1 What did this study do?

This study set out to explore Thai EFL university teachers' cognition of English and the multifaceted dimensions of English learning and teaching experiences that are integral to their EFL teacher identity formation and classroom practices. Adopting ethnographic multiple case study approach with multiple in-depth individual interviews, classroom observations, focus group interviews, and document analysis as the main data collection methods, the findings of the study were grounded in the experiences of seven EFL teachers teaching EFL undergraduate courses in two public universities in Thailand, namely University A and University B.

The study was divided into three phases. The first preliminary phase involved reaching out to the gatekeepers at both research sites and pilot-testing interview questions. The exploratory phase included focus groups, which serves to

identify potential participants and provide preliminary data for the main study phase. Finally, in the main study phase which lasts for one academic semester, a series of in-depth, semi-structured individual interviews and classroom observations were conducted to investigate the research questions in greater detail. Language learning/teaching profiles of each teacher's English experiences were obtained in the first individual interview, followed by a series of classroom observations to gather detailed descriptions of each teacher's actual classroom practices. Each teacher taking part in this stage (n=7) was observed at least twice over the data collection period (15 weeks/semester). Throughout data collection, several post-observation interviews with each teacher took place to address specific topics that emerge during classroom activities and other relevant issues related to the study's research questions.

The initial analysis of transcribed interview data was conducted manually in Word files, setting the stage for a more systematic coding procedure conducted in ATLAS.ti software (version 8), onto which this first set of manually "pre-coded" data was then uploaded, analysed, and synthesised for emerging themes and possible relationships. Simultaneously, classroom observation data were analysed with a qualitative focus on the teachers' cognition of different ideological orientations in English language teaching, with particular attention being on instances of Global Englishes-related practices.

By virtue of the recursive analysis of data, the findings from multiple data sources have shed light on the diversity and similarity of these teachers' cognition

of English (Chapter 4). Data analysis also revealed the teachers' various learning and teaching experiences that contributed to the formation of their EFL teacher identity (Chapter 5). Finally, the analysis provided evidence of how the teachers make sense of and operationalise Global Englishes-informed initiatives in their language classrooms (Chapter 6).

8.2.2 What did this study find?

To understand in-service Thai EFL university teachers' cognition of English through their language learning and teaching experiences, three findings chapters (Chapter 4-6) have been dedicated to each of the overarching research questions. The following section summarises key findings that emerge from the study:

The answers to RQ1 are provided in Chapter 4. The findings showed that the Thai EFL teachers' cognition of English is complex in its configuration/structure (form) and dynamic in its manifestations/expressions. It is structurally complex in that it is composed of multiple beliefs about English, each of which vary in degree of importance and salience. It is dynamic because these beliefs about English are not static but constantly shifting between ideological underpinnings along a continuum, resulting in ambivalent or conflicted views: For certain aspects of beliefs, such as language ownership, markers of standard, English varieties for classroom instructions, or choice of instructional materials, some teachers seemed to identify a stronger alignment with the traditional,

territorialised views of ELT where English is perceived as a hegemonic entity belonging to certain groups of people inhabiting certain spaces. However, on other dimensions of beliefs, such as L1 use in classroom or the goal of language teaching, some teachers were found to demonstrate an inclination toward an inclusive, global stance where English serves communicative purposes. The study also highlights how the teachers' *default* views of English may have anchored onto notions of standard language ideology despite a general awareness of the pedagogical implications of their entrenched attachment to the established norms. As such, while the prospect of change was regarded as necessary, there was also tension as the teachers noted several challenges that might ensue when the established norms are destabilised, and the status quo disrupted.

In answering RQ2, Chapter 5 demonstrates how the concept of language teacher identity can serve as a lens through which EFL teachers view the subject matter of their work (English) and enact their roles as a language teaching professional in and outside the classroom. Drawing on the 'hierarchy of identities' model (Omoniyi, 2006), Chapter 5 illustrated how the teachers formed their self-concept via an aggregate of two overlapping identity constructs, the English-using self and the teaching self. They were also found to exhibit varying identifications with each of their two selves at different stages of their identity development. While English played an instrumental role at the onset of their becoming an EFL teacher, it shared the centre stage with the teaching self in the teachers' pedagogical practices where they strove to establish or reclaim their professional

legitimacy. The five strategies presented in this chapter highlighted the diversity with which the teachers tapped into these multifaceted identity-resources made available through a multitude of experiences wrapped in the complex layers of becoming, being, and developing as an EFL teacher. The findings supported Yazan and Lindahl's (2020) conceptualisation of teachers' language learning histories, teacher education, and ongoing professional development as a continuous, context-bound process of identity work.

The findings presented in Chapter 6 answered RQ3 with respect to the teachers' thoughts on the relevance of incorporating Global Englishes perspectives in their local language classrooms. The study demonstrated the teachers' conceptual dilemma: while they perceived the importance of raising learners' awareness of how English is used as a global language, at the same time they hesitated to leap into action due to implementational challenges, including issues with students' English proficiency, teachers' imagined Global Englishes language teacher models, and different forms of institutional constraints. Among these limitations, the findings indicated that the major source of resistance to implementing a global perspective in their teaching might stem from the teachers' themselves, thereby highlighting the mismatch between the teachers' emic understandings and the etic views of the researchers.

8.3 Contributions

This study has contributed to the existing research on Global Englishes and Language Teacher Cognition (LTC) in the following ways:

To obtain rich and robust pictures of the teachers' current thinking of English and its connection to their pedagogical practice across institutions and classrooms, the present study employed an ethnographic lens to explore real-life language classrooms. In so doing, it has methodologically contributed to the field of Global Englishes where application of ethnographic approaches to classroom-based studies is currently underrepresented. The ethnographic approach allowed me to engage with the teachers deeply and in light of emerging contextually-situated variables. Their 'real' voices have guided me to a deeper understanding of what they think, know, and believe about the subject they learn and have come to teach.

Additionally, the thesis has offered theoretical contributions to GELT scholarship. It does this by suggesting the inclusion of *GELT competencies* and *GELT efficacy* into the teacher category of the GELT framework (Rose & Galloway, 2019). The purview of the current framework remains largely limited to the learners and the ideological aspect of teachers' cognition is currently missing. Specifically, the study's findings have pointed to the need to reframe scholarly discussions surrounding teachers' cognition and professional identities, calling into question institutionally-endorsed views of ideal English teachers circulating the ELT

professional discourse and advocating instead for 'independent professionalism' (Leung, 2009) in which the teachers' professional self-beliefs are also taken into account.

The study has also offered a more in-depth understanding of the role of language teachers as change agents in English-language education and the different ways TESOL teacher education curricula (pre-service and in-service professional development) can potentially set out to achieve that required transformation. It puts forth practical suggestions for how the concept of language teacher identity can provide TESOL teacher education with a useful tool to help the teachers navigate the multiple tensions and gain ideological clarity as they journey toward becoming a globally-informed English language teacher. It has also contributed to existing Global Englishes scholarship on teachers' attitudes to GELT-informed curriculum innovation as well as highlighting the potential impact and role of GELT practitioner education on teachers' cognition. In addition, by drawing on various concepts from three interrelated areas of scholarship, including Global Englishes, Language Teacher Cognition (LTC), and Language Teacher Identity (LTI), the findings have contributed empirical evidence to understandings of GELT innovation, particularly at the university-level in Thailand.

It has also expanded the collection of Global Englishes language teaching research in an overlooked region/country like Southeast Asia/Thailand where there is a notable paucity of research that place teachers at the centre of inquiry.

Most attitudinal research in Thailand has focussed on the student population (Jindapitak, 2015; McKenzie, Kitikanan, & Boriboon, 2016; Saengboon, 2015; Snodin & Young, 2015) or at the policy level (Baker & Jarunthawatchai, 2017). This study is among a handful of pedagogy-focused/classroom-based studies emerging from Global Englishes paradigm (Baker, 2009, 2012a, 2012b; Phongsirikul, 2017; Huttayavilaiphan, 2019; Prabjandee, 2020;) that directly addresses the issues of what Global Englishes language teaching looks like from the teachers' viewpoints.

Finally, it addresses language teacher identity of currently practicing teachers, an under-researched area and population in Global Englishes language teaching. While a few previous studies have looked into the implications of teachers' attitudes on GELT curricular implementation (Galloway & Numajiri, 2019; Lee, Lee, & Drajati, 2019, Si, 2019), little to no attention has been paid to investigating the contours of the teachers' identity and the subtle ways the teachers' pedagogical practices are shaped by them. To my knowledge, this was the first study to examine Thai in-service EFL teachers' perceptions of Global Englishes and its pedagogical implications through the lens of language teacher identity.

8.4 Limitations

The effectiveness of any research method is dependent on the manner it is used and the context in which the research is taken. As noted by Borg (2015), "In any case, acknowledging the methodological problems inherent in the study of language teacher cognition is essential in ensuring that the claims we make are

justified” (p. 329). It is therefore instructive to be aware of the limitations inherent in any research method. The following limitations bear most relevance to the findings of the current study and thus deserve attention:

The first limitation pertains to *a relatively small number of focus group discussions* due to scheduling conflicts and time constraints. In order to obtain diverse perspectives from a wide range of teacher participants, the original design of this study sought to organise at least two focus group discussions per research site. However, due to cancellation of several classes and faculty meetings as a result of ad hoc public holidays following the Royal funeral ceremony at the time of data collection, I managed to arrange only two focus groups across both research sites (see 3.5.1 for more details). This led me to make adjustment to the recruitment plan, in which teachers were contacted individually through purposeful sampling techniques. Their participation in this study was also voluntary, which limits the generalisability of the findings to a larger population. The ethnographic approach examining a small number of cases has provided a richer understanding of the teachers' mental lives, and thus yielded more benefits than limitations, yet I acknowledge that no generalised claim about EFL teacher cognition of English can be made to a larger EFL teacher population from such a limited data set. It is my hope, however, to contribute data that resonates in some way with the wider group of stakeholders in the ELT community.

A limitation also arises with regard to *member checking or data validation through informant feedback* (Creswell & Miller, 2000). Although all of the teachers have confirmed the accuracy of my translations of their speech excerpt, I acknowledge that the use of the teacher as informants themselves for data verification is problematic. To address this issue, third-party contributions such as inclusion of additional translators/coders (O'Connor & Joffe, 2020) are recommended in future investigations to substantiate the transparency and reliability of the process.

Another inherent challenge in studies that involve human participants is the potential of *the Hawthorne Effect*, or the observer's effect, whereby the study participants temporarily reorient their behaviours "attributed to the knowledge that their behaviour is being watched or studied (Oswald, Sherratt, & Smith, 2014, p.57). For example, Owen's heightened awareness of "World Englishes" due to his interaction with his colleague, Prim, has revealed this could be the case. In one follow-up Skype call, Owen reported that the incident led him to inform himself as he noticed that this might be a trending topic he should be aware of (see 4.5 for details). It is important to note that the observer's effect is difficult, if not impossible, to avoid in ethnographic research where, for one thing, it is never possible for researchers to exert full control over the magnitude of variables impacting teachers' everyday lives (Hammersley & Atkinson, 2007). However, rather than completely invalidating such data, I address this through a reflexive approach where the teachers' self-reported data were treated "not as a

representation of any singular Truth, ... but as rich symbolic texts that lend themselves to multiple interpretations and provide critical insights into the cultures being studied” (Monahan & Fisher, 2010, p.6). The interview data were also supplemented with classroom observation field notes and sample instructional documents to contextualise what was happening and to maintain the authenticity of researcher-participant interactions. In the above instance, I was careful in treating the self-reported comment as data to be interpreted, not the ‘result’ in itself. Although the findings in relation to Owen’s case have contributed critical insights into the research question, I am aware that this cannot be extrapolated to other cases. While this reactive effect was anticipated, and despite my best effort to reduce the possible impact of the phenomenon, I acknowledge that my presence and ongoing contact with the teachers (in-person and online) might have affected their orientation toward English.

In addition, *self-report instruments (e.g., interviews and focus groups) do not guarantee complete results that fully and truly portray what people actually think or feel*, especially in the research contexts (Thailand) where cultural concepts and practices (e.g., social hierarchy, *krengjai*, or face saving) might have affected the teachers’ eagerness to reliably share their true thoughts and perceptions with me. That is, instead of honest answers, participants may intellectualise and give well-meaning answers (post-hoc rationalisation) when asked to talk about their thoughts and behaviours (Borg, 2015). Specifically, in

situations where participants feel that admitting lack of knowledge on topics they have limited experience or giving an honest answer can be embarrassing, made-up answers that sounds plausible may be expected. I have addressed this by making a conscious effort to build rapport and trusting relationship through emphasising my junior position as a novice teacher colleague seeking to learn and hear more about their experiences. I also addressed the threat by adopting multiple methods of inquiry (triangulation), including individual interviews, observation, and document analysis to enhance confidence in the findings. However, despite my best effort, the limitation of any potential reactive effects to the data validity cannot be completely ruled out, and is acknowledged.

Additionally, some teachers might *self-censor in a focus group environment*, especially in the presence of some individuals who might dominate the discussion. Here, I decided to tap more into emotional aspects by using individual interviews as a strategy to obtain these insights into the subjective aspect of language teacher cognition as some may be reluctant to share their feelings in group settings. To reduce this risk, I put best effort in acting as a skillful and empathetic moderator whose role is to serve as a "levelling force that allows participants to reflect on various arguments without pressure" (Krueger & Casey (2015, p. 16).

Finally, *the scope of this study* was limited to undergraduate EFL programmes for English and non-English majors at two public (albeit different categories) universities situated within the same provincial area in Thailand.

Further research of similar approach (ethnographic-informed studies) is needed to contribute a richer understanding of what Thai EFL teachers' cognition of English and their classroom practices might look like in different contexts, such as different degree levels (e.g., postgraduate programmes), different types of universities (e.g., private universities, English-medium instruction universities), or at school level (e.g., elementary-secondary school, vocational education).

In summary, the validity and trustworthiness of the qualitative research will ultimately need to be left to the reader's decision. Throughout my writing-up of the thesis, I put in my best effort to unveil the inner workings of how I approach this work. The unveiling was carried out in numerous ways, from clearly delineating the methodology to reflecting on my role as a researcher to acknowledging potential biases inherent in any scientific inquiry. My final intention therefore is not to claim any objectivity but to offer transparency in my presentation of the results for the reader to ponder, accept, or deny.

8.5 Implications and recommendations for future work

In light of the findings of the current study, this section looks ahead to future research directions within the area of Global Englishes and language teaching from which both researchers, researcher-practitioners, and language teacher educators involved in the TESOL industry may find some useful suggestions to move the field forward.

8.5.1 Research

The first implication is for *academic research community* in Global Englishes and other related bodies of scholarship. The following topics suggest a fruitful area for further work:

Proceed to the next phase in GELT curriculum innovation

Drawing on an ethnographic multiple case studies approach, the present study has yielded rich insights into the teachers' current perceptions and practices of Global Englishes within Thai university English language classrooms. To maximise the likelihood of innovation success, future research is needed at every stage of curriculum innovation as it is important to clarify the current situation before looking to the future (White et al., 1991). To this end, the study has prospectively explored the teachers' degree of openness to change and identified areas of pedagogical practice that could benefit from curricular innovation, thereby contributing to advancing the scholarship in the field. Based on Rose & Galloway's (2019) four-phase GELT curriculum innovation cycle, the study fulfilled the first half of the 'knowledge and persuasion' phase in which teachers' current knowledge of Global Englishes were explored *as is* (via their participation in the study) without any intervention. In doing so, it has provided baseline information for future research that aims to study the next persuasion phase, where the perceived characteristics of GELT initiatives (i.e., relative advantage, compatibility, complexity, trialability, and observability) will be evaluated in light of the local

contexts to determine the extent to which GELT is compatible with the host institution into which it will be introduced. In line with Hall et al.'s (2013) suggestion on the need to consider the potential risk of alienating the teachers, this stage may also serve as a springboard for prospective researchers to seek a collaborative effort with teachers, acknowledging their concerns (e.g., necessity of grammar teaching; teach for test) while ensuring that GELT innovation is implemented from the bottom-up during the initiation phase.

Need for teaching-informed research

The value and impact of research into language teachers' cognition may be limited if conducted in isolation of the real-life language learning/teaching contexts. Resonating McKinley's (2019) call for more studies at the nexus of teaching and research, insights gained from the findings of the study indicate that theoretical development and call for change in the classroom must be informed by/grounded in the teachers' lived experiences. Drawing on ethnography as a method of inquiry, the study has offered space for teachers to voice suggestions that can inform future research aiming to transform pedagogical practices. By listening to what the teachers have to say, the current study has provided diverse empirical examples of GELT pedagogy (e.g., Chapter 6) on which future research on Global Englishes curricular innovation can draw and be empirically examined. The findings of the current study thus serve as a groundwork to understand how Global Englishes can realistically be incorporated into existing classrooms. To

ensure that contextually-situated insights can be learned, teacher-researcher collaboration via action research design has been recommended as representing the best of both worlds: teachers benefit from methodological proficiency provided by researchers who can learn from pedagogical expertise supplied by the teachers.

Continued use of ethnographically-informed field research and multiple data collection methods in the framing of future methodological design

The current study builds a strong case for using ethnographically-informed field research to study complex issues in real-life settings, supporting calls from numerous other researchers in the field (e.g., Kubanyiova, 2012; Rose & Galloway, 2019). To gain trustworthy results from research methods that position individuals with diverse lived experiences as the main object of study, the results indicate that a research design that combines multiple sources of data (e.g., interviews, observation, documents) works more effectively than depending solely on data from a single instrument. Recent studies such as those by Huttayavilaiphan (2019) and Prabjandee (2020) have demonstrated the significant role of teachers' beliefs and that the proposals for change within GELT are already being enacted in a teacher education programme with preservice student teachers. Here, where Global Englishes innovation is already under way, field research could reveal cases of good practice in innovative classrooms from which we could better learn how they relate to other facets of language learning. Further research similar in endeavour to this one can be conducted in a variety of contexts to reveal new insights of innovation in practice.

GELT studies in different educational contexts

The findings and discussions of the study were derived from seven teachers working in two different categories of public higher education institutions situated within the same suburbs of the Bangkok metropolis. It has revealed a particular set of cognitions, practices, identities, and its associated implications that are unique to the setting, and thus may not be extrapolated to all other contexts. Other cases in differing contexts would most likely reveal aspects of the phenomenon unrecognised or not existent in this study. Needed are more classroom-based studies across the spectrum of educational domains to increase the representativeness of EFL teachers, such as in traditional school-level English classrooms where English education is compulsory and where most preservice student-teachers will likely be working after finishing their teacher education or commercial ELT segments (e.g., subject-based tutoring schools, corporate language training, English proficiency test preparation schools, etc.) where native norms constitute a selling point (Seargeant, 2009; Dewey, 2015). There is also a definite need for research to include people in leadership roles, such as programme directors, course coordinators, or head of the department, whose visions for curriculum development, control over resources (e.g., time, money), and authority to approve or reject change can determine the success of any curricular innovation in a given context (Boonsuk, 2015). From Chapter 5, we learned that despite many difficulties Devin was able to successfully take action on reinventing the curriculum

by utilising his authority as head of the English programme. While teachers may be positive and optimistic about the possibility for change, they may need to wait until approval is granted from above. Future research therefore needs to take into account the cognition of these people to ensure a smooth integration of the innovation.

Inviting participants for pre-study reflective practices.

Future research on LTC in the field of Global Englishes could expand the repertoire of qualitative data collection tools to include pre-interview individual or collaborative reflective practices such as autoethnography, duoethnography, or narrative inquiry in the data collection process (Canagarajah, 2012; Manara, 2014; Rose & Montakantiwong, 2018). Given the complexity of Global Englishes and nature of language teacher cognition, the current study has found that some teachers may need more time to ponder certain topics in order to form and organise ideas. Prior to interview sessions (individual or group), teachers may be invited to engage in some forms of reflective activities which could serve as a useful thought exercise for teachers to unpack complicated ideas, facilitate their articulations, and stimulate overall discussions.

Usability testing of the teachers' recommended implementational approach to GELT innovation

In Chapter 6, the teachers offered some recommendations on how GELT may be implemented in the context of their local English curricula. For example, it was suggested that GELT implementation should be customised to specific types of

courses (e.g., sound systems in English) for specific groups of students (e.g., English major). These emerging findings on the issue of ‘when’ to introduce Global Englishes content in language curricula has been rarely addressed in previous studies, and therefore is an avenue for future research. Factors such as the degree of innovation uptake (willingness to adopt in practice), ease of learning (how fast a teacher who has little experience with the innovation can carry out the activities) as well as the effectiveness and sustainability of such recommended practices may also worth investigation to ensure success in future GELT innovation.

The current study has also identified two areas of potential improvement to the current GELT framework:

Amendments to the current definitions of the teacher dimension in GELT framework

Based on the Global Englishes Language Teaching framework proposed by Rose and Galloway (2019), the teachers under the Global Englishes paradigm are seen as “competent teachers, who use fluid, diverse and multiple forms of the language” (p. 20). While the dichotomous native-nonnative labels have been replaced by more inclusive terms, the current description in the teacher category of the GELT framework is inadequate in the context of the current study in that it captures only the externally imposed views of ideal English teachers from GELT perspectives. The current study shows that EFL teachers’ identities are multiple and multidimensional, encompassing not only how they are perceived by others

but also how they perceive themselves in terms of their self-image, ability, and self-worth. It was also found that the teachers' pedagogical practices are underpinned by their sense of professional legitimacy as an EFL university teaching professional, suggesting that the teachers may have had all the qualities *expected* of an 'ideal GELT-informed teacher' but still hesitate to adopt GELT in their class because their self-beliefs suggest otherwise. Refining the construct of teacher to include the teachers' self-beliefs in relation to their professional practices is therefore one area of potential improvement to the GELT framework in order to obtain a more accurate description of the complex identity and cognition of the EFL teachers. Recent effort to conceptualise a more inclusive/holistic portrait of the English teachers working in the fast-changing landscape of the globalised world has been hinted in the continually growing studies under the Global Englishes paradigm (e.g., 'multilingual English teachers', Kirkpatrick, 2011; 'translingual teacher identity', Zheng, 2017; 'multilingual instructors', Kramsch & Zhang, 2017). In similar spirit, the current study has offered some useful insights on EFL teachers' evolving self-concepts in the era of globalisation upon which further research endeavour can expand in extending our understanding of these issues.

Future development of conceptual and operational definitions of 'GELT competencies' and 'GELT efficacy'

In our exploration and understanding of factors that potentially influence innovation uptake in Chapter 7, the notions of *GELT competencies* and *GELT efficacy* merit further scholarly attention. As discussed in the previous chapter, if we expect

teachers to adopt a global approach in their practice, the teachers may need to know what *competencies* they are expected to develop in order to become the kind of teachers whose values and attitudes are compatible with a global approach. Moreover, for GELT to be sustained in the teachers' pedagogical practices, the teachers need support in building their *teaching efficacy* to teach GELT (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001). In other words, teachers also need to believe in their capacity to incorporate and implement a global approach in their own practice. Future empirical research could be conducted to theorise what *competencies* are fundamental to the development of a GELT-informed teacher. Once these competencies are explicitly delineated, future research could use this information to inform the types of teacher education/trainings that could better support teachers' development of teaching efficacy, which would contribute toward attempts to bridge the theory-practice divide. The constructs of *GELT competencies* and *GELT efficacy* would be helpful dimensions to be added to the teacher category of the current GELT framework (Rose & Galloway, 2019) in this regard, as the study reveals that it was ubiquitous and central in all aspects of the teachers' professional practices.

8.5.2 L2 teacher education

The second implication is for teacher educators working in L2 teacher education.

In the present study, our understanding of the workings of the teachers' inner lives (teachers' knowledge, beliefs, values, priorities, and aspirations) has been greatly enriched through a holistic lens of language teacher identity (Kalaja, Barcelos, Aro, & Ruohotie-Lyhty, 2015; Olsen, 2016). The findings of the study have concurred with prior studies that LTC of English is shaped by teachers' diverse experiences both as language learners and as teachers that make up who they are now professionally (Huttayavilaiphan, 2019; Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2017). It also suggests that any Global Englishes-related innovation that is initiated in the TESOL classroom may not have the desired effect unless we understand the complex operation behind the knowledge and beliefs guiding what the teachers do and shaping who they are in light of their local working context (Dewey, 2015; Hall et al., 2013; 2017). While we have seen similar efforts in ELF-aware pedagogy (Dewey, 2012, 2015; Sifakis & Bayyurt, 2015, 2018), there has been relatively little in-depth exploration of the extent to which language teacher identities could shape the incorporation of an ELF/EIL/Global Englishes perspective in practice. In short, the impact of teachers' cognition and identity will take effect not only on the innovation uptake (Zacharias, 2016) but also on every aspect of English language education from students' learning to teachers' practices to language curricular design to instructional material development.

For Global Englishes innovations to be best achieved within pre-service TESOL teacher education programmes and in-service professional development, the current study proposes that future endeavour in language teacher education consider positioning the notion of language teacher identity (LTI) at the centre of the curricula (Yazan & Lindahl, 2020; Zheng, 2017). Here, the concept of language teacher identity (LTI) can potentially be used as a pedagogical tool (Morgan, 2004) that helps the teachers (preservice and in-service) learn, analyse, and reflect on the complex ways in which they as teachers learn to be and become teachers, grow as teachers, and exercise their practices in light of Global Englishes innovation.

For example, initial pre-service language teacher education that foregrounds language teacher identity can introduce their student teachers preparing for the complex world ahead through a contextualised reflective practice (Johnson & Golombek, 2016; Farrel, 2018). This is essential in forging any new initiative in the knowledge-base of teacher candidates in their local teacher education programmes. Specifically, teachers may be offered (formal or informal) opportunities to engage reflectively in a series of 'identity work' (Clark, 2008) where they learn different aspects of their EFL teacher identity (e.g., English-using self and teaching self) and how they can most effectively tap into these identity aspects to establish a sense of agency (e.g., extro-/introspective strategies, empathetic approach, contextual awareness). In presenting GELT (or any other forms of globally-informed initiatives), teacher educators may encourage the

teachers to reflect on how the new conceptual input is associated with their past language learning experiences and their local professional contexts. Simultaneously, they should also consider how this new approach is relevant for their students both in their current educational context and in their future communities of practice. Moreover, the teachers may be invited to visualise the sort of language teacher identities they strive for and identify actions that will help them achieve the imagined identity goals. In-service language teachers undertaking professional development, in particular, must be offered a formal opportunity to debrief, reflect on, and reframe challenging experiences in a way that informs future practice (Farrell, 2018). In short, LTE should serve as a checkpoint where student teachers connect their past, their future work contexts, and the change they want to initiate.

In sum, the current study makes a strong case that LTI-centred TESOL teacher education practices present possibilities to induce long-lasting effects on teacher cognition and classroom practices. While the major discussion points highlighted in this thesis are situated in Thai higher education, and therefore are context specific, the overarching dialogue may be relevant for programmes where similar curricular challenges and opportunities exist. Teacher educators wishing to integrate globally-oriented approaches into their local TESOL teacher education practices will find the study's findings and discussions useful in their professional attempts (or struggles) with the implementational process.

8.6 Concluding remark

The thesis, while an academic endeavour, represents my professional odyssey with a deeply personal rationale. As I look back on my PhD adventure of many years, the teachers I spoke with, the questions I asked, and the conversations we had, I am acutely aware of my first professional journey as an English language lecturer in an undergraduate programme where I imagined making my stage debut with some Global Englishes ideas that have captivated the fantasy of my teacher-in-training self. Sadly, in reality, such all-consuming aspiration to lead a globally-informed English language classroom remained well-hidden in the backstage while I simply and unconsciously let the native norms have its premiere and ‘steal the show.’ Resurfacing throughout this complex process of writing up a dissertation were the echoes of my struggling novice teacher self—gripped by disappointment, desperately trying to live up to my pre-defined philosophy and attain my ideal teacher identity as a ‘multilingual instructor’ (Kramersch & Zhang, 2017).

From the outset of my career as a doctoral student, the same feelings of frustration and disappointment I experienced on those early days have served as a constant reminder that any call for change should not be dictated from ‘the top of an ivory tower’ (Rose, 2019) but grounded in actual experiences of practicing teachers. As asserted by Rose and Galloway (2019), “In order to challenge the status quo, we must first understand what the status quo is and identify areas that

are already changing or are most resistant to change” (p. 128). For making any recommendations that are meaningful requires that researchers first fully know what is going on in real-life language classrooms. On this account, this thesis set out to explore how English is currently positioned in the cognition of Thai teachers working within the context of tertiary EFL education, thereby contributing to existing scholarship both in its on-the-ground findings on EFL teachers’ cognition of English and in its exploration of EFL teacher identity from a Global Englishes perspective. By probing into the diverse experiences that constitute the teachers’ sense of who they are and aspire to be professionally, the thesis has uncovered the complex identity work underlying the teachers’ ongoing attempt to assert their agency in every dimension of their professional life as an EFL teacher.

Drawing on my dual teacher-researcher identity, I was able to go ‘backstage’ and re-discover my pedagogical values in the stories of participating teachers I have the privilege to know and learn from. The ethnographic approach adopted has also allowed for the voices of these teachers to imbue every word of this manuscript and kept me anchored throughout the entire exploration.

Although this exploration has yielded valuable insights on potential areas of pedagogical practice that could benefit from change, it is still far from being complete. It is my ultimate hope that this work has contributed in some way to a major collective effort to bridge the long-standing theory-practice divide and make way for many more journeys towards more inclusive ways of conceptualising language where we can encourage our students to do the same. But for now, a few

years following the story of failure, I am happy with my efforts so far and optimistic for whatever the future holds.

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Appendix A

Question items for focus groups

Topic 1 English Language Learning Experience

1. Can you tell me about your English language learning experience? (Start age; School; Exchange opportunities; University)
2. What was/were your motivation to learn English? Did you have any goal in mind?
3. When you were starting to learn English, did you have someone/a particular English-speaking person you looked up to?

(Note: ถ้ามีตัวอย่างที่เจาะจงได้ก็จะดีมาก แต่ถ้าไม่มี ขอเป็นคุณสมบัติของคนๆนั้น อาจจะเป็นคนที่เราอยากเป็น หรือ ใฝ่ฝันว่าอยากจะทำเหมือนเขาในแง่มุมใดมุมหนึ่ง หรือคนที่เราชื่นชมแต่อาจจะไม่ได้อยากเป็นเหมือนเขาก็ได้)

Topic 2 Awareness of English varieties

1. Are you aware of or knowledgeable about other English varieties beside British English and American English?
2. Looking back, are you aware of which variety or varieties of English you yourselves learn as learners? In teacher education?
3. Which variety or varieties do you think you as a teacher are currently teaching in your class? How do you know? (Note: ask for examples of how they implement it)
4. What factors inform their choice of variety? (national curricula, institutional policy, supporting instructional materials, expectations or needs of students, own beliefs and/or experience, own knowledge and understanding of the varieties, others)
5. Does your current choice of varieties go in line with your personal preference?

(Note: personal preference ในที่นี้อาจจะหมายถึงภาษาอังกฤษที่เราชอบในฐานะผู้เรียน หรือจะเป็นแบบที่เราคิดว่าเหมาะกับการเรียนการสอนก็ได้)

Topic 3 Defining Standard English

- What do you understand about the notion of standard English (ภาษาอังกฤษมาตรฐาน)?

Topic 4 Defining English as a Global Language

1. What do you understand about the term English as a Global Language?
2. Which variety or varieties do you expect to dominate in the contexts in which they will operate in future?
3. How do you perceive the English usage changing and diversifying?

Topic 5 English language teaching practices

1. What do you think should be the major focus of an English program? (Q9) (Prepare students for exams? For real-life communication with native English speakers/non-native English speakers?)
2. Do you think it's important for learners of English to sound like native English speakers?
3. Do you think English teaching materials should only use native-speaker models? Does it matter if classroom materials provide a range of models of English used by both L1 and L2 speakers? (Materials)
4. What do you think about having the students in your class be exposed to English spoken by a range of native speakers? Do you think it's going to be useful? (Note: Use example of assigning students to interview foreigners. Would they accept it if the students interviewed those whose L1 is not English?)
5. Regarding medium of instruction in English language classes, do you think only English should be used? Should the use of students' L1 (Thai) be discouraged?

Topic 6 Ideal English Language Learning/Teaching Environment

- What does your ideal English classroom look like? (Note: Ask them to give 3 adjectives)

Concluding question

- Of all the things we have discussed today, what would you say are the most important issues you would like to express about this topic?

Appendix B

Mind-map interview guide



Appendix C
CUREC form

CENTRAL UNIVERSITY RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (CUREC)**Form CUREC 1A Checklist for the Social Sciences and Humanities**

The University of Oxford places a high value on the knowledge, expertise, and integrity of its members and their ability to conduct research to high standards of scholarship and ethics. The research ethics clearance procedures have been established to ensure that the University is meeting its obligations as a responsible institution.

They start from the presumption that all members of the University will take their responsibilities and obligations seriously and will ensure that their research on human subjects is conducted according to the established principles and good practice in their fields and in accordance, where appropriate, with legal requirements. Since the requirements of research ethics review will vary from field to field and from project to project, the University accepts that different guidelines and procedures will be appropriate.

- Please check the [CUREC flowchart and NHS flowchart](#) first to see if you need ethics approval.
- Please complete this form using a word processor and email it, together with your [supporting documents](#), to your [Departmental Research Ethics Committee \(DREC\)](#) (if applicable). If you don't have a DREC please email this form to ethics@socsci.ox.ac.uk using your official **ox.ac.uk email** address. **Only emailed applications will be accepted.**

WHAT THIS CHECKLIST IS DESIGNED FOR

This **CUREC 1A checklist** is designed largely for research that falls within the Divisions of Social Sciences and Humanities where ethical issues are relatively few and straightforward. Interviews, field work and oral history are also included in the CUREC process.

The **full CUREC 2 application** is only required where certain project characteristics (e.g., type of participants, or procedures) result in a more complex set of ethical issues. It is expected that only in a limited number of cases will it be necessary for researchers to complete a CUREC 2 application. The checklist below will direct you to a CUREC 2 application if needed.

WHAT THIS CHECKLIST WILL NOT ASSESS

This checklist does not cover research governance, satisfactory methodology, or compliance with the requirements of publishers when administering their tests or questionnaires. As principal researcher, it is your responsibility to ensure that requirements in these areas are met.

CUREC does not review studies classed as **audit** (see [Glossary](#) and [Decision Flowchart for CUREC](#) on our website).

If your study involves **NHS patients, NHS staff / data / facilities, or human tissue**, please check the [Decision Flowchart for NHS approval](#) and contact the [Clinical Trials and Research Governance \(CTRG\) team](#) in the first instance.

Further information on the University's research ethics procedures is available from the CUREC website: www.admin.ox.ac.uk/curec.

SECTION A: Filter for CUREC2 application

This section determines whether your study raises more complex issues which require the completion of a full application for ethical review, known as the CUREC 2 application.

(Please mark 'X' in the Yes/No column as appropriate to indicate your response.)

<p>1. Are research participants classed as people whose ability to give free and informed consent is in question? (This may include those under 18 (though see "competent youths" in FAQ C12), prisoners, or adults "at risk".) Your attention is drawn to the University's Safeguarding Code of Practice and its implications for researchers involving children or adults at risk, including the need for the work to be risk assessed and for researchers to undertake related training.</p> <p>(Note: If any of your participants are aged 16 or under, please answer 'Yes' here and also answer question 5 below.)</p>	Yes	No X
<p>2. By taking part in the research, will participants be at serious risk of criminal prosecution (e.g., by providing information on drug abuse or child abuse)?</p>	Yes	No X
<p>3. Does the research involve the deception of participants?</p>	Yes	No X
<p>4. Does your research raise issues relevant to the Counter-Terrorism and Security Act (the Prevent duty), which seeks to prevent people from being drawn into terrorism? Please see advice on this on our Best Practice Guidance web page.</p>	Yes	No X
<p>If you have answered 'No' to all of the questions above please go to Section B. If you have answered 'Yes' to any question above continue to question 5 below.</p>		
<p>5. Is your project covered by a CUREC approved procedure (formerly known as "CUREC Protocols")?</p>	Yes X	No

If yes, please give research procedure number(s): 15	
<p>If you answered 'Yes' to ANY of questions 1-4, and answered 'No' to question 5, please stop completing this checklist and do not submit it for ethical review. Instead, please complete the CUREC 2 application form from the CUREC website. Then submit the CUREC 2 form for ethical review.</p> <p>If you answered 'Yes' to ANY of questions 1-3, and answered 'Yes' to question 5, please go on to Section B.</p>	
SECTION B: Contact details and project description (NB: must be typed not handwritten)	
Contact details:	
1. Principal researcher /supervisor (title and name) (if student research):	Dr. Heath Rose Dr. Jessica G. Briggs
2. Name of student (if student research):	Ms. Anuchaya Montakantiwong
3. Degree programme, e.g., DPhil, BA, MPhil, BSc, MSc (if student research):	DPhil
4. Department or Institute name:	Department of Education
5. Address for correspondence (if different from above):	
6. University e-mail (not private email) and telephone:	anuchaya.montakantiwong@linacre.ox.ac.uk / 07491484811
7. Name and status of others taking part in the project, e.g., third year undergraduate; postdoctoral research assistant:	Not Applicable
Project description:	
8. Title of research project:	Investigating EFL Teachers' Cognition and Incorporation of Global Englishes into their Pedagogical Practices
9. List of location(s) where project will be conducted:	Bangkok, Thailand
10. If your research involves overseas travel or fieldwork, by the time the research starts, will you have completed and returned a travel risk assessment form? (This has to be	Yes X No N/A

approved by your department before you travel. If you are travelling overseas, you are strongly advised to take out University travel insurance .)	
11. Anticipated duration of research project overall:	3 years
12. Anticipated start and end dates of the research project involving human participants:	<p>From: (15/08/2017)</p> <p>To: (15/08/2020)</p> <p>Please note that you will need ethics approval before you start your research. CUREC1As may take up to 30 days to process.</p>
13. External organisation funding the research (if applicable):	
14. Title and very brief and simple lay description of research (about 150 words), plus description (about 200 words) of the nature of participants.	
a) Title, brief lay description of research (150 words). When describing the research, please include your methodology, how you are applying professional guidelines, and the use to which results/data will be put. Please also declare any conflicts of interest here.	
<p>The study aims to explore English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers' cognition (knowledge, beliefs, attitudes) of the teaching of English as a global language and how it is reflected in pedagogical practices.</p> <p>All participants will be adults over the age of 18. They must be Thai, in-service teachers who teach English language courses in higher education institutions in Thailand. Two higher education institutions in Thailand will be selected as the study's research sites. The study is divided into two phases. The first phase involves focus group interviews which serves to provide preliminary data for the subsequent individual interviews and to explore the site contexts as well as identify potential participants for the second phase. Data obtained will inform the second phase, consisting of 6-8 in-depth case studies with participants recruited from the first phase. Two primary data sources are used: in-depth, semi-structured individual interviews and classroom observations. Secondary sources of data include content analysis of instructional artefacts (e.g., textbooks, PowerPoint presentations, lesson plans, syllabi, and other multimedia). The purpose is to obtain a detailed description of the participants' contextual information and understanding of the study's topic. Only with participants' consent will the interviews and classroom observations be audio-recorded.</p>	
SECTION B continued	
b) Description of participants and obtaining informed consent (200 words). When describing participants, please include	

- criteria for inclusion/exclusion
- method of recruitment
- processes for consent to participate

Please ensure you attach as separate documents (if applicable, in English translation):

- your recruitment and advertisement material e.g., a poster or brief invitation letter/ email
- information for participants to read (or hear) before they agree to take part e.g., [written information sheets](#) or (only if applicable) [oral information scripts](#).
- a document to record informed consent. Templates for [written consent forms](#) and/or [oral consent scripts](#) (in case of an oral consent process) are available from the CUREC website
- a guide to interview questions (this may be a list of questions to be asked, or a preliminary scope of questions), or a sample of other instruments (such as a sample questionnaire)

(if relevant) debriefing document after participants have taken part

Inclusion criteria for selecting participants for the project include any Thai lecturers teaching EFL courses at the universities selected as the research sites. The study will exclude any data collected from native English speaking teachers, or any teacher of English teaching in contexts other than higher education in Thailand.

For focus group interviews, the participants are drawn from a total population of teachers within each research site. Access to the research sites will be obtained either through the researcher's insider position as a lecturer or via a gate-keeper (e.g., a teacher or institution who will forward the recruitment message to teachers). Contact with the gatekeepers will be made via email (APPENDIX 1), in which the project information sheet (APPENDIX 2) will be included as an attachment.

At the start of the interview, teacher participants will be asked to sign a consent form (APPENDIX 3) which includes a section asking for contact details if they would like to be invited for further in-depth interviews and class observations. The contents of the consent form will be coupled with verbal explanation using participants' first language (Thai). The researcher ensures the participants of their rights to withdraw from the study any time they wish and that no harm in any form will occur. Once the registration process is over and enough participants have showed up, the researcher then opens the floor asking them to share their opinions regarding the research questions (APPENDIX 4) where the researcher acts as a neutral moderator.

In the second phase 6-8 participants will be identified, all of whom are drawn from the pool in the first stage of the study, and have indicated a willingness to take part in the study. Each participant will be given a project information sheet (APPENDIX 5) and will be asked for permission to conduct individual interviews and observe their classrooms through a separate consent form (APPENDIX 6).

15. What are the ethical issues connected with your research and what steps have you taken to address them? Please do not answer 'none'. The committee needs to see evidence that you have identified potential ethical issues with respect to your research and have taken steps to address them. These issues could relate to:

- your own physical and psychological safety as a researcher (please see the [University's](#) and [Social Science Division's Safety in Fieldwork](#) guidance
- participant burdens and/or risks, and
- data protection/ confidentiality.

For more guidance on ethical issues, please see www.admin.ox.ac.uk/curec/resources/.

At the beginning of the study, consent forms will be given to all the prospective participants. Participants will be informed in advance that all discussions will be audio-recorded and transcribed for analysis. The researcher also makes sure that participants understand that their participation is voluntary and that there are no consequences for refusing to take part in the study or to answer specific questions. The nature of the research, the purposes of the research, the potential risks and benefits to the participant of participation, and the fact that they may withdraw from participation at any time will be clearly communicated and emphasized.

For the study's second stage including individual interviews and classroom observations, pseudonyms will be assigned to each participant to secure anonymity. When reporting the findings, a contextualised description of each participant's background will be provided without matching these with the assigned pseudonyms to ensure confidentiality of personal information. All personal information and the responses from individual participants that would allow another researcher or outsiders to know who participated in the study will be accessible to the researcher only. No information will be publicly reported that would identify them as a participant in the study.

There are no foreseeable risks to participants.

Section B continued

16. Will you obtain informed consent according to CUREC guidelines and good practice in your discipline before participation?	Yes X	No
---	-----------------	----

If you have marked 'No', please give a brief explanation and justification for this decision here:

17. Will your research involve discussing sensitive issues? This could be information relating to race or ethnic origin, political opinions, religious beliefs, physical/mental health, trade union membership, sexual life or criminal activities.	Yes	No X
--	-----	----------------

<p>If you have marked 'Yes', please make sure that you have included some supporting information (as directed in question 14 of this section) showing the range of questions covering these issues.</p>		
<p>18. Will you ensure that personal data collected directly from participants or via a third party is held and processed in accordance with the provisions of the Data Protection Act?</p>	<p>Yes X</p>	<p>No</p>
<p>19. How will you ensure that any personal and/or sensitive data are captured, transferred and stored securely?</p> <p>In particular if data are to be captured electronically, please consult with the University's research data team (researchdata@ox.ac.uk) and your local IT department and, with respect to University IT security policies, please comment on how you will capture such data in the first instance, how you will transfer them over networks or via portable media and how, where and how long data will be stored. For more information, please see the University's web pages on research data management:</p> <p>http://researchdata.ox.ac.uk/university-of-oxford-policy-on-the-management-of-research-data-and-records/</p>		
<p>All the data will be accessible only by the researcher and will not be presented to the public. Data in electronic files be securely stored in a password-protected folder in the researcher's personal computer. When transfers occur, data will be copied via encrypted USBs or within password protected cloud storage. Data stored in cloud storage will be secondary stores of data for analysis and will not include any personal information of researchers or participants, or any raw data.</p>		
<p>SECTION C: Methods and procedures to be used</p>		
<p>Method used: Please ensure you have addressed any potential ethical issues related to these methods in Section 14 and in your Participant Information Sheet</p>		<p>Please mark 'X'</p>
1.	Analysis of existing records	X
2.	Snowball sampling (recruiting through contacts of existing participants)	X
3.	Use of casual or local workers e.g., interpreters	X
4.	Participant observation	X
5.	Covert observation	X
6.	Observation of specific organisational practices	X
7.	Participant completes questionnaire in hard copy	X
8.	Participant completes online questionnaire or other online task	X

9.	Using social media	X
10.	Participant performs paper and pencil task	X
11.	Participant performs verbal or aural task (e.g., for linguistic study)	X
12.	Focus group	X
13.	Interview	X
14.	Audio recording of participant (you will generally need specific consent from participants for this)	X
15.	Video recording of participant (you will generally need specific consent from participants for this)	X
16.	Photography of participant (you will generally need specific consent from participants for this)	X
17.	Others (please specify):	

SECTION D: Professional guidelines and training

<p>In this section, please mark 'X' against at least one of the following professional guidelines you aim to adhere to.</p> <p>You should use the principles listed in your chosen guideline(s) in conducting your own research.</p> <p>Note: this is not an exhaustive list.</p>		<p>Please mark 'X'</p>
Research specialism/ methodology	Association and guidance document	
Anthropology	Association of Social Anthropologists of the UK and Commonwealth	X
Criminology	British Society of Criminology: Code of Ethics for Researchers in the Field of Criminology	
Education	British Educational Research Association Ethical Guidelines for Educational Research	X
Geography	Association of American Geographers Statement on Professional Ethics Royal Geographical Society: Research Ethics and Code of Practice	
History	Oral History Society of the UK Ethical Guidelines	
Internet-based Research	British Psychological Society: Conducting Research on the Internet Association of Internet Researchers Ethics Guide	

	Also see our Best Practice Guidance on internet-based research	
Law (Socio-Legal)	Socio-Legal Studies Association: Statement of Principles of Ethical Research	
Management	Academy of Management's Professional Code of Ethics	
Political Science	American Political Science Association (APSA) Guide to Professional Ethics in Political Science	
Politics	Political Studies Association. Guidelines for Good Professional Conduct	
Psychology	British Psychological Society Code of Ethics and Conduct British Psychological Society: Conducting Research on the Internet Also see "Internet-based Research" guidance above	
Social Research	Social Research Association: Ethical Guidelines	
Sociology	The British Sociological Association: Statement of Ethical Practice	
Visual Research	ESRC National Centre for Research Methods Review Paper: Visual Ethics: Ethical Issues in Visual Research	
Other professional guidelines. Please specify the other guidelines used here:		
Please indicate what training in research ethics the researchers involved with this study have received, e.g., the title of the course and date completed (online training available at www.admin.ox.ac.uk/curec/training).		
If no formal training has been undertaken, please indicate any discussions of research methodology between researchers and supervisors here.		
Research Training Seminar (02/02/2017): CUREC; Ethics in research community; personal ethics		
Research Integrity Online Training Course (27/04/2017)		

SECTION E: Signatures

- 'Electronic signatures' sent as email confirmations from a University of Oxford email address can be accepted. Separate emails should come from

<p>each of the relevant signatories as outlined below, indicating acceptance of the relevant responsibilities.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> If you have obtained handwritten (wet-ink) signatures, please scan them and the rest of the checklist pages to create a single PDF document and email through. 	
Please ensure this checklist is signed by:	
For staff research:	For student research:
1. Principal researcher	1. Principal researcher (project supervisor)
2. Head of Department (or nominee)	2. Head of Department (or nominee)
	3. Student researcher

1. Principal researcher signature/supervisor signature (if student)
--

I understand my responsibilities as [principal researcher](#) as outlined in the CUREC glossary and guidance on the CUREC website.

I declare that the answers above accurately describe the research as presently designed, and that a new checklist will be submitted should the research design change in a way which would alter any of the above responses so as to require completion of CUREC 2 (involving full scrutiny by an IDREC). I will inform the relevant IDREC if I cease to be the principal researcher on this project and supply the name and contact details of my successor if appropriate.

Signature:Heath Rose.....

Print name (block capitals):Heath Rose..... **Date:**29-05-2017.....

2. Departmental endorsement signature
--

I have read the research project application named above. On the basis of the information available to me, I:

(i) consider the principal researcher to be aware of her/his ethical responsibilities in regard to this research;

(ii) consider that any ethical issues raised have been satisfactorily resolved or are covered by relevant professional guidelines and/or CUREC approved procedures, and that it is appropriate for the research to proceed (noting the principal researcher's obligation to report should the design of the research change in a way which would alter any of the above responses so as to require completion of a CUREC 2 full application);

(iii) am satisfied that: the proposed project design and scientific methodology is sound; the project has been/will be subject to appropriate [peer review](#); and is likely to contribute to existing knowledge and/or to the education and training of the researcher(s) and that it is in the [public interest](#).

Signed by Head of Department or nominee (*example nominees for student research include the Director of Graduate Studies/ Director of Undergraduate Studies*):

Signature:

3. Student signature (if student research)

I understand the questions and answers that have been entered above describing the research, and I will ensure that my practice in this research complies with these answers, subject to any modifications made by the principal researcher properly authorised by the CUREC system.

Signed by student: ...Anuchaya Montakantiwong.....

Date: 29-05-2017

Print name (block capitals): ANUCHAYA
MONTAKANTIWONG

SECTION F: SUBMITTING THE COMPLETED CHECKLIST		Please mark 'X'
1. Check you have completed all sections (A-E)		X
2. Ensure your application is signed by you, your supervisor (if student) and department		X
3. Please attach all supporting documents (see section B, question 14b for details). If the appropriate supporting documentation is not included with your application, you will then be asked to provide this separately. This may well delay the ethical review process, and thus the start of your research.		X
4. Ensure you have declared conflicts of interest (if any) in Section B, question 14a.		X

5. If your department has a Departmental Research Ethics Committee (DREC) , submit this checklist and supporting information to the appropriate departmental officer.	X
6. If your department does not have a DREC, submit the checklist and supporting information to the SSH IDREC (email ethics@socsci.ox.ac.uk).	X
7. Applications must be sent by email from your official ox.ac.uk email account. Please do not send applications by post.	X

Appendix D

Consent form: Focus group

Department of Education



Ms. Anuchaya Montakantiwong
Linacre College
DPhil student in Applied Linguistics Research Group
Telephone number: 0749 1484811
E-mail: anuchaya.montakantiwong@linacre.ox.ac.uk

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

Investigating EFL Teachers' Cognition and Incorporation of Global Englishes into their Pedagogical Practices

Purpose of Study: The study aims to explore English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers' cognition (knowledge, beliefs, attitudes) of the teaching of English as a global language and how it is reflected in pedagogical practices.

*Please initial
each box*

- | | | |
|---|--|--------------------------|
| 1 | I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2 | I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason, and without any adverse consequences or academic penalty. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3 | I understand that research data collected during the study may be looked at by designated individuals from the University of Oxford where it is relevant to my | <input type="checkbox"/> |

taking part in this study. I give permission for these individuals to access my data.

- 4 I understand that this project has been reviewed by, and received ethics clearance through, the University of Oxford Central University Research Ethics Committee.
- 5 I understand who will have access to personal data provided, how the data will be stored and what will happen to the data at the end of the project.
- 6 I understand how this research will be written up and published.
- 7 I understand how to raise a concern or make a complaint.
- 8 I consent to being audio and video recorded.
- 9 I understand how transcriptions from audio and video recordings will be used in research outputs.
- *If you are interested in the topic and would like to be contacted for further studies, please provide your contact information and the best time to contact you in the space below.

I would like to be contacted by:

Email: _____

Phone: _____

Others (please specify): _____

Best time to contact me (please check all that apply):

Weekdays (Monday – Friday)/ Time: _____

Weekend (Saturday – Sunday)/ Time: _____

Others (please specify): _____

Name of Participant

Date

Signature

Name of person taking consent

Date

Signature

Appendix E
Consent form: Individual
interview & Classroom
observation

Department of Education



Ms. Anuchaya Montakantiwong
Linacre College
DPhil student in Applied Linguistics Research Group
Telephone number: 0749 1484811
E-mail: anuchaya.montakantiwong@linacre.ox.ac.uk

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

Investigating EFL Teachers' Cognition and Incorporation of Global Englishes into their Pedagogical Practices

Purpose of Study: The study aims to explore English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers' cognition (knowledge, beliefs, attitudes) of the teaching of English as a global language and how it is reflected in pedagogical practices.

Please initial each box

- 1 I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily.
2 I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason, and without any adverse consequences or academic penalty.
3 I understand that research data collected during the study may be looked at by designated individuals from the University of Oxford where it is relevant to my taking part in this study. I give permission for these individuals to access my data.
4 I understand that this project has been reviewed by, and received ethics clearance through, the University of Oxford Central University Research Ethics Committee.
5 I understand who will have access to personal data provided, how the data will be stored and what will happen to the data at the end of the project.
6 I understand how this research will be written up and published.
7 I understand how to raise a concern or make a complaint.

8 I consent to being audio and video recorded.

9 I understand how transcriptions from audio and video recordings will be used in research outputs.

10 I agree to take part in the above study.

Name of Participant

Date

Signature

Name of person taking consent

Date

Signature

Appendix F

Project information sheet

Investigating EFL Teachers' Cognition and Incorporation of Global Englishes into their Pedagogical Practices

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

1. *Background and aims of the study*

This study investigates what it means for Thai in-service English as a foreign language (EFL) teacher to be teaching English in an era where it claims the status of a global language. Understanding the teachers' viewpoints on the issue will provide not only a more in-depth picture of what is happening in the English language classroom but also an opportunity for the teachers to make their voice heard and bring about the necessary change in Thai higher education today.

2. *Why have I been invited to take part?*

You have been invited to participate in our study because we're interested in your thoughts as an English language teacher working in Thai higher education institutions about English varieties, the status of English as a world language, and the way it affects your classroom instructions.

3. *Do I have to take part?*

All English language lecturers at [name of the university] have been invited to participate, but your participation is voluntary. You can ask questions about the study

before deciding whether or not to participate. If you do agree to participate, you may withdraw yourself and the data you have provided from the study at any time, without giving a reason and without penalty, by advising the researchers of this decision.

4. *What will happen in the study?*

If you are happy to take part in the study, you will be invited to join a group discussion on the topic of teaching English as a global language. This should take approximately 60-90 minutes and your responses during the discussion will be kept confidential. The discussion will be audio and video recorded to help the researcher transcribe the discussion. Only the researcher will have access to the original recordings. The study will take place at [name of the university]. Follow-up visits will happen only if you decide to take part in further studies.

5. *Are there any potential risks in taking part?*

No risks are involved in taking part in the study.

6. *Are there any benefits in taking part?*

By participating in the study, you have the opportunity to reflect on and share with the community of learning your valued opinion on the critical issues of English language learning and teaching. Your input will contribute not only to the findings of my doctoral dissertation but also to the improved learning experience of English language learners.

7. *What happens to the data provided?*

Personal data and all the information you provide will be kept on a secure, password-controlled computer. Your responses will be anonymised, which means they will be transcribed for analysis but will not be matched with your name. Only the researcher will have access to the original data. All research data and records will be stored for a minimum retention period of 3 years after publication or public release of the work of the research.

8. *Will the research be published?*

The University of Oxford is committed to the dissemination of its research for the benefit of society and the economy and, in support of this commitment, has established an online archive of research materials. This archive includes digital copies of student theses successfully submitted as part of a University of Oxford postgraduate degree programme. Holding the archive online gives easy access for researchers to the full text of freely available theses, thereby increasing the likely impact and use of that research. If you agree to participate in this study, the research will be written up as a thesis. On successful submission of the thesis, it will be deposited both in print and online in the University archives, to facilitate its use in future research. The thesis will be published open access.

9. *Who has reviewed this study?*

This study has been reviewed by, and received ethics clearance through, the University of Oxford Central University Research Ethics Committee

10. *Who do I contact if I have a concern about the study or I wish to complain?*

If you have any questions or concern about any aspect of this study, please contact the researcher by phone: +44 (0) 7491 4848 11 or by E-mail: anuchaya.montakantiwong@linacre.ox.ac.uk. If your query is unresolved, please contact Dr. Liam Gearon, Chair of the Departmental Research Ethics Committee by Email: liam.gearon@education.ox.ac.uk or telephone: 01865 274 047, who will seek to resolve the matter in a reasonably expeditious manner.

11. *Contact Details*

If you would like to discuss the research with someone beforehand (or if you have questions afterwards), please contact:

Ms. Anuchaya Montakantiwong (the researcher)
 Department of Education
 University of Oxford
 15 Norham Gardens
 Oxford, OX2 6PY
 United Kingdom
 TEL: +44-7491-484811
 Email: anuchaya.montakantiwong@linacre.ox.ac.uk