The Education of Bilingual Teachers: Preparation of Thai Pre-service Teachers of English to Teach in Thai-English Bilingual Schools

Submitted by

*Sasiporn Phongploenpis*

Doctor of Education in TESOL

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The Education of Bilingual Teachers:  
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Bilingual Schools

Submitted by Sasiporn Phongploenpis, to the University of Exeter  
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ABSTRACT

In preparation for Thailand to join AEC (ASEAN Economic Community) in 2015, the Thai Government has made efforts to prepare its citizens for this competitive market by improving their English competence. This has driven the Education Ministry of Thailand to establish bilingual Thai-English education, namely through the English Programme (EP) and Mini English Programme (MEP) in both public and private schools. While in-service teachers are trained in teaching in EP and MEP through the cooperation between the Educational Ministry and four institutes: ELI (English Language Institution), ERIC (English Resource and Institutional Centre), British Council and Chulalongkorn University (Ministry of Education, 2003; Punthumasen, 2007). It is found that pre-service teacher training for bilingual education is relatively new and there has been little/no research in terms of its effectiveness in Thailand.

This study examined Thai pre-service teachers’ perceptions of an English teacher education programme at a university in Bangkok, regarding the programme potential of preparing them to work in bilingual schools, especially for teaching in EP and MEP in the future. A mixed-methods methodology underpinned the study by providing method and data triangulation. This methodology involved the adoption of self-report questionnaires (n=37) and follow-up Facebook-chats (n=17) as method triangulation, and from Thai pre-service teachers in different year groups as data triangulation. Descriptive analysis i.e. frequencies and percentages was used to analyse closed questions of the questionnaires and content analysis was employed for analysing data from open questions of the questionnaire and the Facebook-chats.

A good understanding of the English bilingual education system and teacher requirements respective for work in bilingual schools in Thailand was displayed and in line with the Ministry guidelines as expressed in the Ministry’s order number Wor Gor 65/2544 as of 9 October 2001. The findings revealed that they felt they needed English knowledge, Pedagogical Knowledge and Experiences in preparing them for work in bilingual schools also involved. It was also found that native-English speaker norm regarding communication and pronunciation skill resulted in less confidence in English proficiency. They desired to learn more about English especially relating to oracy skills, followed by a topic relating to teaching through English.
The findings of the study contribute to the development of teacher training programme for bilingual education. Practical suggestions and future research are firstly related to the shift from native English speaking norms to bilingual or multilingual speaking norms to eliminate the feeling of failure to the linguistic competence. Secondly, CLIL and Content-based instruction are suggested to respond to the participants’ need in learning a topic relating to teach through English.
DEDICATION

To Warong,

Waris, Sutthisak, and Ploenpis
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Though only my name appears on the cover of this dissertation, many people have generously given their support throughout the course of this thesis. I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my supervisors, Dr. Gabriela Meier, Dr. Philip Durrant and Dr. Fran Martin, for their continuous support, patience and motivation for my EDD study. Their guidance helped me in all the time of research and writing of this dissertation. I appreciate their immense knowledge and skill in many areas (e.g. bilingual education, language teacher education, research paradigm, etc.) and their valuable feedback on all drafts of this dissertation. I could not have imagined having a better advisor and mentor for my EDD study.

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<th>Description</th>
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<tr>
<td>AL</td>
<td>Additional Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AEC</td>
<td>ASEAN Economic Community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASEAN</td>
<td>Association of Southeast Asia Nations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CBI</td>
<td>Content-based Instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEFR</td>
<td>Common European Framework of Reference</td>
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<tr>
<td>CLIL</td>
<td>Content and Language Integrated Learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CMC</td>
<td>Computer-mediated Communication</td>
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<tr>
<td>EFL</td>
<td>English as a Foreign Language</td>
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<td>ELT</td>
<td>English Language Teaching</td>
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<tr>
<td>EMI</td>
<td>English as a Medium of Instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EP</td>
<td>English Programme</td>
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<tr>
<td>ERIC</td>
<td>English Resource and Institutional Centre</td>
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<tr>
<td>ESL</td>
<td>English as a Second Language</td>
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<tr>
<td>FL</td>
<td>Foreign Language</td>
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<tr>
<td>FTF</td>
<td>Face-to-face</td>
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<tr>
<td>ICA</td>
<td>International Cultural Awareness</td>
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<tr>
<td>L1</td>
<td>First Language</td>
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<tr>
<td>L2</td>
<td>Second Language</td>
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<tr>
<td>MEP</td>
<td>Mini English Programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NESTs</td>
<td>Native English Speaking Teacher</td>
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<tr>
<td>NNESTs</td>
<td>Non-native English Speaking Teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OBEC</td>
<td>Office of the Basic Education Commission</td>
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<tr>
<td>TBP</td>
<td>Teachers of Bilingual Programmes</td>
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CHAPTER ONE – INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

The introduction chapter starts by explaining the significance of the study (Section 1.2). The research aims, the research questions (RQs) and subsidiary questions (SQs) are subsequently presented (Section 1.3). The chapter will close with the organisation of the present study (Section 1.4).

1.2 Significance of the Study

The ascent of ASEAN (Association of Southeast Asia Nations) and the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) are leading towards a single market and production base which increases the importance of English in Thailand. As stated in the Article 34 of the ASEAN Charter, “The working language of ASEAN shall be English” (ASEAN, 2007: 29). The importance of English has driven the Education Ministry of Thailand, which henceforth will be referred to as the Ministry, to establish two models of bilingual education, namely English Programme (EP) and Mini English Programme (MEP) in both public and private schools. EP and MEP are often referred to as bilingual programmes, bilingual education or bilingual schools, and I will use these terms synonymously (see section 3.3.2 for more details about these programmes). The increase in schools offering EP and MEP generates a greater need for EP and MEP teachers, as well as suitable EP/MEP teacher education programmes, which is the focus of this study.

The Ministry supports schools in recruiting EP and MEP teachers through acting as a recruitment centre where both foreign and Thai teachers can apply for a teaching post (Ministry of Education, 2003). On this matter, the Ministry and foreign embassies cooperate in employing foreign teachers and provide them with a one-stop-service to issue work permits (Ministry of Education, 2003). One of the governmental plans relates to the training of Thai teachers of English. Punthumasen (2007: 8) points out that OBEC (Office of the Basic Education Commission) has established two training centres, namely ELI (English Language Institution) and ERIC (English Resource and Institutional Centre) for Thai teachers of English. The Ministry has also cooperated with British Council and Chulalongkorn University in specifically training EP and
MEP teachers (Ministry of Education, 2003). All of the trainings are to train in-service teachers to teach in bilingual schools (Punthumasen, 2007). To the best of my knowledge, there is no specific pre-service teacher education programme in Thailand to teach in such bilingual programmes. Pre-service teachers majoring in English seem to be a potential force in EP and MEP because their English expertise could enable them to use English as a medium of instruction (EMI) in EP and MEP. This led to my interest in examining how Thai pre-service teachers reflect on the effectiveness of their English teacher education programme in relation to prepare them to teach English in bilingual schools. On the one hand, their perceptions about the programme and themselves will enable an evaluation of the programme from the inside. On the other hand, the findings may contribute to the development of an effective pre-service teacher education programme that adequately prepares teachers to work in EP and MEP in the future.

1.3 Research Aims and Research Questions

As mentioned above (Section 1.2), the research study is generated by the increase of bilingual programmes i.e. EP and MEP. The increase of the two programmes is one pillar of the political and economic policies preparing Thailand to enter ASEAN for which English has been chosen as a language of communication. This research study involved 37 Thai pre-service teachers majoring in English at a school of education in a university of Bangkok, anonymised as ‘Star University’. This research study aims to investigate their perceptions of the potential of an English teacher education programme, in terms of preparing them to teach English language in bilingual schools. Certain facets of the English teacher education programme as well as the perceived abilities to teach English in a bilingual school will be examined through the research questions (RQs) 1-3 and the subsidiary questions (SQs) 1.1 and 2.1 as follows:
1. To what extent do the Thai pre-service teachers of English understand the English bilingual education system in Thailand and respective teacher requirements?
   1.1. To what extent does the participants’ understanding of the bilingual education system and related teacher requirements reflect Ministry guidelines as expressed in the Ministry’s order number Wor Gor 65/2544 as of 9 October 2001?

2. To what extent do the Thai pre-service teachers in a (English) teacher education programme in Thailand feel their course prepares them to teach English in bilingual schools?
   2.1. To what extent do the participants feel they are well-prepared to teach English in bilingual schools?

3. In what way do the Thai pre-service teachers of English believe their programme should be improved in order to sufficiently prepare them to teach English in bilingual schools?

1.4 Organisation of the Study

This thesis consists of seven chapters. Following this introduction, Chapter 2 details the background of the study. Chapter 3 reviews extant literature and research that motivates and generates the research questions addressed in this thesis. It considers how research represents perceptions of bilingual education and teachers in bilingual schools held by teachers and students in EFL contexts. It also reviews some major findings from empirical research studies concerning teacher education for training teachers to use EMI. Gaps in the previous research are subsequently identified.

Chapter 4 depicts the methodological approach adopted in this study. In order to enrich the data from different perspectives, a mixed-methods methodology was adopted. It is contended that such a methodology is advantageous as it offers the possibility of providing results that complement, elaborate and confirm each other. The major research methods are: online questionnaire and Facebook-chat.

Chapter 5 presents key findings from an analysis of the research data. These include results based on the use of both qualitative and quantitative research techniques. Results from the content analysis of the open questions and Facebook chats are also reported.
Chapter 6 includes a detailed account and interpretation of the findings of the study, with reference to each other of the research questions and in relation to previous research findings. These include the evaluation of the study regarding the usefulness and importance of the study findings.

Chapter 7 includes a summary of this study, highlighting the key findings of the research, followed by the study’s contribution for theory development and practical application which includes recommendations for future research and for teacher education programmes in Thailand. It also presents the limitations of the study.
CHAPTER TWO – BACKGROUND

2.1 Introduction

Following the introduction, this chapter details the background of the study. Section 2.2 describes the ASEAN Community and Thailand as one of its members. This makes a link to the role of English and English education in Thailand which is presented in Section 2.3 and Section 2.4, respectively. In this chapter, the objectives and the curriculum structure of the English teacher education programme investigated in the present study will be presented in order to help readers get an insight into the experience which the pre-service English teachers might have during studying the programme (Section 2.5). The chapter will close with the Ministry’s requirements of teachers in bilingual schools (Section 2.6). The conflict between the programme objectives (Section 2.5) and the Ministry’s requirements of teachers in bilingual schools (Section 2.6) makes a link to the focus of the study which is the investigation of the programme potential related to prepare the pre-service English teachers for teaching English in bilingual schools.

2.2 ASEAN Community and Thailand

Thailand is one of the ten ASEAN member states i.e. Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Myanmar, Philippines, Singapore and Vietnam (ASEAN, 2012a). ASEAN was established on August 8th, 1967 by the five founding nations of ASEAN, namely Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore and Thailand (ASEAN, 2012b). Signing the ASEAN Declaration (Bangkok Declaration), the member nations declared their cooperation in accelerating the economic growth, social progress, cultural development and education effectiveness in the ASEAN region (ASEAN, 2012b). The idea of establishing the ASEAN Community was proposed at the 9th ASEAN summit in 2003. At the 12th ASEAN summit in 2007, ASEAN leaders agreed to accomplish the establishment of an ASEAN Community by 2015 (ASEAN, 2012c). The purpose of the ASEAN community is to narrow the development gap among the state members in the region. Three pillars of the ASEAN Community are the ASEAN Political-Security Community, ASEAN Economic Community and ASEAN Socio-Cultural Community (ASEAN, 2012c).
As soon as ASEAN Economy Community (AEC) starts, there will be an integration of markets. In other words, there will be a single market and production base in due course. This scheme aims to develop the free flow of goods, services, investment, capital and skilled labour within the member states (ASEAN, 2009: 22). This means that products and services will be imported and exported with zero tariffs and removing non-tariff barriers (ASEAN, 2009: 22). ASEAN professionals will receive the support of visa issuance and work pass in order to work throughout the region (ASEAN, 2009: 29). In order to facilitate the free flow of skilled labour, ASEAN universities are expected to ‘increase mobility for both students and staff within the region’ by following the core competencies and qualifications for the jobs developed by the association (ASEAN, 2009: 29). The ASEAN nations agreed to put the ASEAN community in place in 2015.

English has been used as an official language by the ASEAN nations without a particular regulation (Kirkpatrick, 2008: 27). Until 2007, the ASEAN Charter was released at the 13th ASEAN Summit in Singapore and its Article 34 announced that “The working language of ASEAN shall be English” (ASEAN, 2007: 29). At a certain point French and Malay were introduced but failed to be adopted as the working language of ASEAN (Kirkpatrick, 2008: 27; Kirkpatrick, 2010: 13). In preparation for Thailand to join AEC in 2015, advancing the education and improving English fluency in Thailand are the tasks in which the Thai Government invests in order to prepare its citizens for this competitive market. Out of 31 policies on education, the 11th promoted by the Thai Government is “encouraging Thai people to be able to speak English, preparing the country for ASEAN Community, assuring that 80% of students in the whole country can speak English and are ready to enter ASEAN Community by 2015” (Royal Thai Government, 2012). Taking up the challenge of raising the level of English proficiency of Thai students, the Thai Ministry of Education has set up priorities and specific activities for developing English proficiency in Thai students. For example, bilingual programmes (EP and MEP) were as anticipated set up with the aim of operating fully in all Education Services Areas in 2010 (BIC1, 2014). A nationwide project entitled “English Speaking Year” was also launched in 2012 (Hodal, 2012). This project has focussed on teaching English speaking through media and the interaction with native English speakers (Hodal, 2012).

---

1BIC stands for the Bureau of International Cooperation
2.3 The Role of English in Thailand

English is essential for the economic and tourism sectors in Thailand. Regarding the economic sectors, the National Statistical Office of Thailand (2008) demonstrates that the ten major countries which with trading partners with Thailand during 2006 - 2007 included the United States of America, Japan, China, Singapore, Hong Kong, Malaysia, Indonesia, Australia, the United Kingdom, and Netherlands. In the USA, Australia and the UK, English is used as an L1. In Singapore, Hong Kong and Malaysia which were once a British colony (Kirkpatrick, 2010), English is used either as an L2 or an official language. In the remainder of them (Japan, China, Indonesia and Thailand), English is used as a foreign language. In relation to tourism business, Thailand is one of the popular destinations for tourists around the world. In 2007, there were around 15 million foreign tourists arriving and staying in the country (National Statistical Office, 2007). English has been adopted as the language of communication in both the economic and tourism sectors.

Further, English is a communicative tool necessary for Thai people who wish to work and study in foreign countries. According to the Ministry of Labour (2014), the number of Thais who work overseas is 358,005 in April, 2014 and the countries in which most of them find employment are: Taiwan, Singapore, Israel, South Korea, UAE, Malaysia, Japan, Qatar, Hong Kong and Brunei. This number covers only the workers who have been registered with the Ministry of Labour. Worker mobility is likely to increase due to the ASEAN framework of free movement of labour. English is expected to gain in importance responding to the growth of worker mobility.

The survey as of December 31st, 2013 published by the Office of the Civil Service Commission of Thailand (2014) demonstrates that 3,996 Thai students have been studying abroad. This number includes merely the students who are under the supervision of the office. The top five destination countries are the USA, the UK, Japan, Germany and Australia. English is used as a medium of instruction in most of these destination countries. It might be argued that English is an important tool in the economic and tourism mobility as well as free movement of labours and students in Thailand.
2.4 English Education in Thailand

English is a compulsory subject in all educational institutes i.e. schools, colleges and universities across the country (Baker, 2012: 19). It is also taught as the first foreign language around 3-4 hours a week at the primary level and 4-5 hours a week at the secondary level (Punthumasen, 2007: 5). Moreover, it is used as a medium of instruction in international and bilingual schools (EP and MEP) in Thailand (Ministry of Education, 2003). Further information about EP and MEP as English immersion education programmes implemented in Thailand will be presented in Section 3.3.2.

Bilingual education has drawbacks regarding the expense and the lack of suitably qualified teachers. Kosonen (2008: 174) states that the extra fees must be paid to fund ‘English Programmes’ and most of parents are willing to pay for ‘the presence of foreign teachers and good-quality English teaching’. This probably exclude poorer students. The lack of qualified teachers in Thailand is reported by Draper (2010 in Draper 2012: 779-780). According to Draper (2012: 780), Thai teachers and school directors (N=84,000) have taken the non-linguistic subjects in Thai and they failed the tests in their own subject i.e. mathematics (86%), biology (84%), and physics (71%). Moreover, Draper (2012: 780) reports that 95% of the school directors did not pass the English exam. Draper’s (2012) report could confirm an assumption that there is a lack of teachers who are competent and qualified to teach in Thai-English bilingual schools where both languages are used as the medium of instruction.

Ethnologue (2005 in Kosonen, 2008: 173) regards Thailand as ‘a linguistically diverse nation with an estimated 74 languages spoken within its boarders’. In line with this, Vasu (2005: 2) describes Thailand as ‘the great linguistic and cultural diversity’, of which many parts i.e. the central, northern, north-eastern, and southern possess their own language representing their identity. Kosonen (2008: 175) points out that Thai is referred to as Standard-Thai or Central Thai and is used as the official and national language. However, Thai is not the mother tongue of the students living in the North, Northeast, and Deep South in which students’ first language is Khammeuang (Kosonen, 2008: 173), Isan or Lao (Draper, 2012: 782; Kosonen, 2008: 176), and Pak Tai or Malay (Kosonen, 2008: 173), respectively. According to Ethnologue (2005) and Kosonen (2005 in Kosonen, 2008: 175), these languages as dialects are spoken by 86% of the
total Thai population. This indicates that Standard Thai and English might not be always necessary to be the languages of instruction in bilingual schools. Furthermore, Central or Standard-Thai as a medium of instruction seems to be a major barrier to learn successfully at schools for non-native Thai speakers (Kosonen, 2005a, 2005b; Smalley, 1994 in Kosonen, 2008: 175). It is reported that students from north-eastern of Thailand do not perform well with the Central Thai as a medium of instruction (Kosonen, 2008: 176). Pattani\textsuperscript{2} Malay speakers cannot cope with the Thai education system (Kosonen, 2008:176). Kosonen’s (2008) report indicates that the two instructional languages (English and Standard Thai) of bilingual education, which are currently promoted, seem not to be always needed, especially in certain parts of Thailand. It might be argued that the dialects e.g. Khammeuang, Isan or Lao, and Pak Tai or Malay could be a language of instruction alongside either Standard Thai or English in schools as an alternative form of bilingual education in Thailand.

2.5 The English Teacher Education Programme

An English teacher education programme investigated in the present study is offered at a school of education in the Star University (pseudonym). This programme provides both university-based knowledge and field-based experience to its pre-service teachers through a five-year-curriculum. There was a change of curriculum during the course of my study. Most of the participants have studied through the 2004 curriculum. However, the pre-service English teachers in year 2 have studied on the programme through the 2012 curriculum. This section will compare the two curricula by looking at the curriculum structure and course content included in each curriculum.

Both the 2004 curriculum and 2012 curriculum have a common structure in terms of the main groups of the courses. Table 2.1 shows that the structure of the 2004 curriculum and 2012 curriculum. As can be seen in Table 2.1, the ‘General Education’ and ‘Electives’ group remain. Both of the curricula contain courses relating to field-based experience through Professional Training courses which are sub-categorised in Professional Courses of the 2004 curriculum but in Teaching Profession of the 2012 curriculum. Specialisation

\textsuperscript{2} A province located in the south of Thailand
courses of the 2004 curriculum are referred to English major courses of the 2012 curriculum. It might be argued that the two curricula are different in terms of grouping and naming the groups of the learning courses.

Table 2.1: The Structure of the 2004 and 2012 Curriculum

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The 2004 curriculum</th>
<th>The 2012 curriculum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. General Education</td>
<td>1. General Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1. Language</td>
<td>1.1. Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2. Humanities and Social Sciences</td>
<td>1.2. Humanities and Social Sciences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3. Science and Technology</td>
<td>1.3. Science and Technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Professional Courses</td>
<td>2. Specialisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1. Education</td>
<td>2.1. Teaching Profession</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2. Professional Training</td>
<td>2.1.1. Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.1.2. Professional Training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.1.3. Teaching Profession for English Teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Specialisation</td>
<td>1.2. Major</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.1. English</td>
<td>2.2.1. English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.2. Teaching English</td>
<td>2.2.2. Teaching English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.3. Electives</td>
<td>2.2.3. Electives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Electives</td>
<td>3. Electives</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The 2004 curriculum and 2012 curriculum are also different in terms of the structure of the courses contained in each of the two curricula. Each course of the 2004 curriculum contains five to six credits while each course of the 2012 curriculum contains two to three credits. Table 2.2 shows the number and credits of the courses within the ‘General Education’ group, in accordance with the 2004 curriculum and 2012 curriculum. As can be seen in Table 2.2, the six compulsory courses of the 2004 curriculum contain larger number of credits than the seven compulsory courses of the 2012 curriculum. There are no elective courses in the General Education group of the 2004 curriculum but there are six elective courses in the General Education group of the 2012 curriculum.
Table 2.2: Courses Listed in General Education Group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The 2004 curriculum (no. of credits)</th>
<th>The 2012 curriculum (no. of credits)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1. Communication in Thai language (5) | Language  
1. Thai usage* (3)  
2. Thai for academic purposes (3) |
| 2. Communication in English language (6) | 3. English for communication and information retrieval* (3)  
4. English for communication and study skills* (3)  
5. English for academic purposes (3) |
| 3. Communication in a language of Asian countries e.g. Mandarin, Khmer, etc. (4) | N/A |
| 4. Human beings and society (5) | Humanities and Social Sciences  
6. Aesthetics appreciation* (3)  
7. Thai society in global context* (3)  
8. Self-development (3)  
9. Philosophy of life (3) |
| 5. Thinking and personal growth (5) | Science and Technology  
10. Thinking and decision making (3) |
| 6. Life through science and technology (5) | 11. Technology for communication and learning* (3)  
12. Science and technology for quality of life* (3)  
13. Science, technology, and environment* (3) |

* Refers to a compulsory course

Despite the differences in the structure and the number of credits of the two curricula, learning courses included in both the 2004 curriculum and 2012 curriculum seem to be similar. Table 2.3 shows the courses listed in the ‘Education’ and ‘Professional Training’ sub-groups, in accordance with the 2004 curriculum and 2012 curriculum. Two courses: Curriculum and Management and Research for Learning Development are listed in the ‘Education’ sub-group of the 2004 curriculum and the 2012 curriculum (Table 2.3, 1.1 and 1.2). Within this sub-group, some courses of the two curricula are similar. For example, Learning Innovation course listed in the 2004 seems to be equivalent to Innovation and Information Technology in Education listed in the 2012 counterpart (Table 2.3, 1.3). Moreover, both the 2004 curriculum and 2012
curriculum contain the same courses listed in ‘Professional Training’ sub-group (Table 2.3, 2).

**Table 2.3: Course of Education and Professional Training Sub-group**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The 2004 curriculum (no. of credits)</th>
<th>The 2012 curriculum (no. of credits)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Education (5 credits for each)</td>
<td>1. Education (3 credits for each)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2. Research for Learning Development</td>
<td>1.2. Research for Learning Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3. Learning Innovation</td>
<td>1.3. Innovation and Information Technology in Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4. Foundation in Education and Inclusive Education</td>
<td>1.4. Principles of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5. Nature of the Learner</td>
<td>1.5. Psychology for Teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.6. Teacher Professional Development</td>
<td>1.6. Being Professional Teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.7. Educational Measurement and Evaluation</td>
<td>1.7. Communicative Languages for Teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Professional Training</td>
<td>2. Professional Training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1. Practicum 1 (3)</td>
<td>2.1. Practicum 1 (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2. Practicum 2 (3)</td>
<td>2.2. Practicum 2 (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3. Practicum 3 (3)</td>
<td>2.3. Practicum 3 (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4. Internship 1 (8)</td>
<td>2.4. Internship 1 (5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5. Internship 2 (8)</td>
<td>2.5. Internship 2 (5)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Further, the 2004 curriculum and 2012 curriculum seem to provide to the pre-service teachers majoring in English with similar knowledge and skills of English and teaching English. Table 2.4 demonstrates the list of the English major courses listed in the two curricula. Both of the curricula contain English related-courses e.g. English for Social Communication, (Table 2.4, 1), Critical Reading and Writing in English (Table 2.4, 4), Reading and writing English for English Language Teachers (Table 2.4, 6), etc. Furthermore, most courses listed both the 2004 curriculum and the 2012 curriculum seem to be similar. For example, Translation in Daily Life of the 2004 curriculum is likely to be equivalent to Basic Translation of the 2012 curriculum (Table 2.4, 12).
Table 2.4: English-related Courses Listed in the 2004 and 2012 Curriculum

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The 2004 Curriculum</th>
<th>The 2012 Curriculum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(5 Credits For Each Course)</td>
<td>(3 Credits For Each Course)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. English For Social Communication</td>
<td>1. English For Social Communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purpose</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Advanced Communicative English</td>
<td>2. English For Advanced Communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. English For Academic Communication</td>
<td>3. English For Academic Purpose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purpose</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Critical Reading And Writing In</td>
<td>4. Critical Reading And Writing In</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Reading And Writing English For</td>
<td>5. Reading And Writing English For</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social And Personal Purposes</td>
<td>General Purposes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Reading And Writing English For</td>
<td>6. Reading And Writing English For</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English Language Teachers</td>
<td>English Language Teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Reading And Writing English For</td>
<td>7. Reading And Writing English For</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic Purposes 1</td>
<td>Academic Purposes 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Reading And Writing English For</td>
<td>8. Reading And Writing English For</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic Purposes 2</td>
<td>Academic Purposes 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Linguistics For Reading Skills</td>
<td>9. Intro To Linguistics For Teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Linguistics For Classroom</td>
<td>10. Linguistics For Primary English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Application 1</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Linguistics For Classroom</td>
<td>11. Linguistics For Secondary English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Application 2</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. English And British Literature</td>
<td>Communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Evaluating And Developing Teaching Innovation</td>
<td>14. Intro To Literature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Language Learning Assessment</td>
<td>15. Short Stories</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16. American Literature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>17. English Literature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>18. Communicative Grammar Teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1. Communicative Grammar Teaching 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20. English Teaching Techniques For</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21. Integrated English Instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>22. Authentic Assessment In English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>23. Language Test Construction And</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>24. Reading Research Works On English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25. Learning Design of English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Learning Area at Elementary Level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>26. Teaching Behaviours of English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Learning Area at Elementary Level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>27. Learning Design of English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Learning Area at Secondary Level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>28. Teaching Behaviours of English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Learning Area at Secondary Level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>29. English Language Teaching for</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ASEAN Community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>30. English Language Instructional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Supervision</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

28
The comparison between the 2004 curriculum and 2012 counterpart presented in Section 2.5 shows the commonality of the two. This implies that pre-service English teachers particularly participated in the present study are provided with the similar knowledge and skills despite experiencing the different curriculum. Clearly, both the 2004 curriculum and 2012 curriculum do not contain any courses specifically relating to theory, methodology, teaching approaches for bilingual education.

2.6 The Ministry’s Requirements of Bilingual Teachers

The teachers of all subjects in both public and private schools are required to meet the professional standards and ethics of the Teachers’ Council of Thailand. The standards are applied to all teachers at early childhood, basic education and higher education below a degree level i.e. vocational education in the country (Teachers’ Council of Thailand, 2005). Figure 2.1 shows the three main areas of standards which all teachers in Thailand are required to meet.

Figure 2.1: Teachers' Professional Standards and Ethics of the Teachers' Council in Thailand

Source: Regulation on the Teachers’ Council of Thailand on Professional Standards and Ethics (Teachers’ Council of Thailand, 2005)
The standards of professional knowledge and experience (Figure 2.1) relates to the sound understanding of the followings:

1. Language and technology for teachers
2. Curriculum development
3. Learning Management
4. Psychology for teachers
5. Educational measurement and evaluation
6. Classroom management
7. Educational research
8. Educational innovation and information technology
9. Teachership

All teachers including the teachers in bilingual schools are expected to have sound understanding of these. However, the Thai Ministry of Education has also set up additional requirements of teachers in bilingual schools teaching EP and MEP. Figure 2.2 lists the requirements of teachers in bilingual schools established by the Ministry which are categorised into four main groups: English proficiency, Curriculum management, Learning management and Psychology for teachers. Overall, the teachers’ qualifications and the teaching abilities for bilingual schools are in line with the standards of professional knowledge and experience established by the Thai Teacher’s Councils as listed above.

However, some requirements especially relating to English proficiency are specifically set up for non-native English speaking teachers (NNESTs) including local (Thai) teachers. A standard close to native English competence is clearly required which includes native-like pronunciation/communication (Ministry of Education, 2003). Furthermore, NNESTs are required to be as skilled at listening, speaking, reading and writing in English as the native English speakers are (Ministry of Education, 2003). As NNESTs, they also have to achieve in having either 550 in TOEFL or 5.5 in IELTS (Ministry of Education, 2003). The requirements relating to English proficiency seem to be a challenge for them. Moreover, the requirements regarding curriculum management,
learning management, and psychology for teachers seem to be specific and complex for NNESTs when English is used as a medium of instruction.

**Figure 2.2: Requirements of Bilingual Teachers (Ministry of Education, 2003)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English proficiency</th>
<th>Curriculum management</th>
<th>Learning management</th>
<th>Psychology for teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Non-native English speaking teachers (NNESTs) must be skilled at listening, speaking, reading and writing in English.</td>
<td>• Teachers of bilingual programmes (TBPs) should be able to teach through English and follow the curriculum announced by the Thai Ministry of Education</td>
<td>• TBPs should teach based on the Thai context harmonising with the international culture.</td>
<td>• TBPs should have sound knowledge of young learners’ behaviours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• NNESTs must be able to communicate in English like natives.</td>
<td>• TBPs should address the issues of loyalty to local and national and Thai identity when designing activities.</td>
<td>• TBPs should be able to address ethical issues and values in their teaching.</td>
<td>• TBPs should be able to build up learners’ confidence and encourage them to communicate in English.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• NNESTs must have either 550 in TOEFL or 5.5 in IELTS.</td>
<td>• TBPs should concentrate on learners esp. during pre-primary level in relation to their Thai proficiency and readiness as well as their interest in learning English</td>
<td>• TBPs should be able to create pleasant learning environments through simple learning activities i.e. singing, storytelling, role playing, etc.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Section 2.5 presented the main objective of the English teacher education programme relates to develop Thai teachers of English. As can be seen from Table 2.1-2.4, learning courses of the English teacher education programme investigated in the present study are like to be able to prepare pre-service English teachers to achieve in the Teachers’ Professional Standards and Ethics of the Teachers’ Council in Thailand, (Figure 2.1), rather than the Ministry’s requirements of teachers in bilingual schools (Figure 2.2). In terms of English proficiency, the English teacher education programme aims to train pre-service English teachers to become competent English users rather than to achieve native-English competence, as required by the Ministry. In terms of pedagogy, the English teacher education programme aims to train pre-service teachers to become effective teachers of English while the Ministry require skills of teaching (English) through EMI.
This chapter described the context and focus of the study. This includes the preparation for entering the ASEAN Community (Section 2.2) which involves the increase in the importance of English (Section 2.3) and English education (Section 2.4). The English teacher education programme investigated in the present study is presented and compared with the Ministry’s requirements of teachers in bilingual schools (Section 2.5 – Section 2.6). Clearly, the objectives of the English teacher education programme and the Ministry’s requirements for teachers in bilingual schools are mis-matched; and this has guided the present research into the potential of the programme for preparing pre-service English teachers for bilingual schools.
CHAPTER THREE – REVIEW OF LITERATURE

3.1. Introduction

This chapter reviews the literature associated with the main areas of interest in this study. These areas are first, bilingual education; second, requirements of teachers in bilingual schools; third, bilingual teacher education; and finally, English teacher education.

Following the definitions of the terms (Section 3.2), bilingual education will be presented in Section 3.3 in which the form of education for bilinguals and type of bilingual programme implemented in Thailand will be identified (Section 3.31 – Section 3.3.2). Section 3.3.2 also includes two teaching approaches suggested for bilingual education i.e. content –based instructions (CBI) and content and language integrated learning (CLIL). The requirements of teachers in bilingual schools presented in Section 3.4 relates to perceptions of competence, nativeness and identity required for teaching in bilingual schools.

In Section 3.5, bilingual teacher education will be identified as well as the introduction of CLIL teacher training programmes for training teachers in bilingual schools. English teacher education is then presented in Section 3.6. Its effectiveness is considered from different perspectives from pre-service (mainly English) teachers and teacher educators.

This chapter concludes with a brief summary of the key points of the four main areas of interest presented in the preceding sections. Gaps in knowledge will be also identified in this section (3.7).

3.2. Definitions

This section presents the definitions of the terms as follows: Perception (s), Bilingual Education, and English Teacher Education. Each of the terms will appear throughout the research in this thesis and each will be referred to as follows:

Perception means ‘the way in which something is regarded, understood, or interpreted’ as well as ‘intuitive understanding and insight’ (Oxford English Dictionary online, 2015). In this study, this term is interchangeable with perspective, attitude and view.
Bilingual Education in this study is defined as an education in which L1 and English are employed as the two languages of instruction. The definition relates to Edwards (1984a in Baker, 1987: 46) who points out that bilingual education is referred to ‘education in which two languages are used within the school’.

Bilingual Education in this study also refers to English Programme (EP) and Mini English Programme (MEP) in which Thai and English are used in Thailand. The detail of EP and MEP will be provided in Section 3.3.2.

English Teacher Education in this study is defined as a programme of preparing pre-service teachers for teaching English. The definition of English Teacher Education applied in this study relates to Loughran’s (2006: 2) definition of teacher education as a programme of developing skills and knowledge of teaching which is combined with Freeman’s (2001: 72) definition of second language (L2) teacher education as ‘the field of professional activity through which individuals learn to teach L2s.’ Freeman (2001: 76) states that English teacher education comprises two types of professional activities, namely teacher training and teacher development. Freeman (2001: 76) points out that the former is for pre-service teachers and the latter is for in-service teachers.

Regarding the focus of the research in this thesis, teacher training and teacher development of English Teacher Education aim to be applied to prepare pre-service English teachers.

The term EMI in the thesis stands for English as a medium of instruction and follows the use of the term in the policy documents of Ministry of Education.

According to the Thai Ministry of Education (2003), “English Program (EP) จัดการเรียนการสอนเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ...Mini English Program (MEP) สอนได้ไม่เกิน ๕๐% ของชั่วโมงสอนทั้งหมดต่อสัปดาห์.” (Translation: English as a medium of instruction is adopted to teach all subjects of English Programme (EP)…and no more than 50% of total weekly teaching hours of Mini English Programme…).”

Based on the Ministry’s quote shown above, the term EMI relates to the use of English as an instructional language in bilingual schools: English Programme and Mini English Programme.

In this thesis, EMI is adopted in bilingual schools (English Programme and Mini English Programme) and means for pre-primary, primary and secondary students. The use of EMI in this thesis is different from the way it is commonly used in the research literature. EMI in the research literature is implemented in higher education e.g. Hu and Lei (2014), Low, Chong and Ellis (2014), Chapple
According to the Ministry, EMI in bilingual education of the present study aims to improve Thai students’ English proficiency as a way to enhance national competitiveness in the era of ASEAN integration (Section 2.2). On the other hand, EMI in higher education is likely to be a strategy for becoming international. This is supported by Chapple (2015: 2) who reports that the primary goal for EMI in universities in Japan is to attract international students. Likewise, Muthanna and Miao (2015: 60) report that EMI implemented in Chinese higher education institutions are means for increasing the accommodation of foreign students.


Baker (2006: 215) proposes three forms of bilingual education: monolingual forms, weak forms and strong forms (Figure 3.1). Weak forms use bilingual education as a transition from one language to another, where the aim is proficiency in one language only. Meier (2010: 58) points out that the monolingual and weak forms of bilingual education can therefore result in the loss of the first language. In contrast, strong forms of bilingual education aim at developing ‘bilingualism’, ‘bi-literacy’ and ‘bi-culturalism’ (Baker, 2006: 228). Moreover, Meier (2010: 58) states that two languages are ‘simultaneously’ developed through the strong forms of bilingual. Thus, the strong form seems to be the most relevant to bilingual education in Thailand (the context of the present study) due to the fact that EP and MEP aim to promote bilingual competences for Thai learners (Section 2.2). In what follows, four types of programmes within the strong form of bilingual education (Baker 2006) will be described in order to define the type of bilingual programme which is implemented in Thailand.

3.3.1. Strong Forms of Bilingual Education

Baker (2006: 215) argues that strong forms of bilingual education consist of four types: immersion, maintenance/heritage language, two way/dual language, and mainstream bilingual (Figure 3.1), which help categorise EP and MEP through students’ demographic information and their linguistic background. Immersion is the education in which language majority students are present and they are either mainly or partly taught in L2 (Baker, 2006: 242). This model is used in some European and Asian countries e.g. Brunei where Bahasa Melayu
(Malay) as the majority language and English as L2 coexist as a medium of instruction (G.M. Jones et al., 1993, 1997; Baetens Beardsmore, 1999 in Baker, 2006: 251).

Maintenance/heritage language aims to protect and cultivate minority students’ native language alongside development of the majority language (Baker, 2006: 239). The minority language is used as a language of instruction in maintenance/heritage language bilingual schools (Baker, 2006: 238-241). The majority language is taught as a second language or used as a language of instruction from 10% to no more than 50% across the curriculum (Baker, 2006: 240-241).

Two way/dual language is the education in which the number of language minority (e.g. Spanish) and majority students (e.g. English) is approximately equal in the schools (Baker, 2006: 228). Regarding the language of instruction used to comply with a two way/dual language approach, a non-English language is allowed for at least 50% and only one language is used in each period of instruction (Baker, 2006: 229). This type of bilingual education is particularly applied in the US (Baker, 2006: 228). However, two way/dual language approach is also implemented in Berlin (Meier, 2010: 59). In line with Baker (2006: 228), the number of language minority and language majority students are equal and the amount of time teaching through the minority and majority language is balanced (Meier, 2010: 59).
Figure 3.1: Bakers' (2011a: 209-210) Three Forms of Education for Bilinguals

### MONOLINGUAL FORMS OF EDUCATION FOR BILINGUALS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Program</th>
<th>Typical Type of Child</th>
<th>Language of the Classroom</th>
<th>Societal and Educational Aim</th>
<th>Aim in Language Outcome</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MAINSTREAMING/SUBMERSION (Structured Immersion)</td>
<td>Language Minority</td>
<td>Majority Language</td>
<td>Assimilation/Subtractive</td>
<td>Monolingualism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAINSTREAMING/SUBMERSION with Withdrawal Classes/</td>
<td>Language Minority</td>
<td>Majority Language with 'Pull-out' L2 lessons</td>
<td>Assimilation/Subtractive</td>
<td>Monolingualism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sheltered English/Content-based ESL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEGREGATIONIST</td>
<td>Language Minority</td>
<td>Minority Language</td>
<td>Apartheid</td>
<td>Monolingualism</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### WEAK FORMS OF BILINGUAL EDUCATION FOR BILINGUALS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Program</th>
<th>Typical Type of Child</th>
<th>Language of the Classroom</th>
<th>Societal and Educational Aim</th>
<th>Aim in Language Outcome</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TRANSITIONAL</td>
<td>Language Minority</td>
<td>Moves from minority to majority language</td>
<td>Assimilation/Subtractive</td>
<td>Relative Monolingualism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAINSTREAM with Foreign Language Teaching</td>
<td>Language Majority</td>
<td>Majority Language with L2/FL lessons</td>
<td>Limited Enrichment</td>
<td>Limited Bilingualism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEPARATIST</td>
<td>Language Minority</td>
<td>Minority Language</td>
<td>Detachment/Autonomy</td>
<td>Limited Bilingualism</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### STRONG FORMS OF BILINGUAL EDUCATION FOR BILINGUALISM AND BILITERACY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Program</th>
<th>Typical Type of Child</th>
<th>Language of the Classroom</th>
<th>Societal and Educational Aim</th>
<th>Aim in Language Outcome</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IMMERSION</td>
<td>Language Majority</td>
<td>Bilingual with initial emphasis on L2</td>
<td>Pluralism and Enrichment. Additive</td>
<td>Bilingualism &amp; Biliteracy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAINTENANCE/HERITAGE LANGUAGE</td>
<td>Language Minority</td>
<td>Bilingual with emphasis on L1</td>
<td>Maintenance, Pluralism and Enrichment. Additive</td>
<td>Bilingualism &amp; Biliteracy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TWO WAY/DUAL LANGUAGE</td>
<td>Mixed Language Minority &amp; Majority</td>
<td>Minority and Majority Languages</td>
<td>Maintenance, Pluralism and Enrichment. Additive</td>
<td>Bilingualism &amp; Biliteracy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAINSTREAM BILINGUAL</td>
<td>Language Majority</td>
<td>Two Majority Languages Pluralism</td>
<td>Maintenance, Biliteracy and Enrichment. Additive</td>
<td>Bilingualism</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Notes:**
1. L2 = Second Language; L1 = First Language; FL = Foreign Language.
2. This table is based on discussions with Ofelia García who extends this to 14 types in García (1997: 410). She also has provided an in-depth discussion of models in García (2009a).
4. See Mangubhai (2002) for how such a typology can be used in educational language planning.
Mainstream bilingual model refers to ‘the education in which language minority students are placed in mainstream schools and are taught only in the majority language (Baker, 2006: 216).

Section 3.3.1 demonstrates the four types of programme within the strong form of bilingual education: immersion, maintenance/heritage language, two way/dual language, and mainstream bilingual. Each of the programmes is applied through the consideration of the aim in language outcome, students’ demographic information and their linguistic background (Baker, 2006; Meier, 2010). Based on the consideration of these regards, educational programmes discussed in the present study could be categorised as immersion of the strong forms of bilingual education, as an additional language (English) is used to teach content to a cohort with the same majority language (Thai). This is supported by Kirkpatrick (2010: 49) who points out that the language majority students in Thailand speak is Thai. Further, Luangthongkum (2007: 183 in Kirkpatrick, 2010: 49) states that Thai is likely to be the majority language in Thailand. Based on these characteristics, bilingual education system in Thailand is in line with the concept of ‘immersion bilingual education’. In the following section, the implementation of immersion bilingual education particularly in Thailand will be presented in order to get an insight into the bilingual education system and the requirements of teachers in bilingual schools.

3.3.2. Immersion Bilingual Education in Thailand

In Thai educational context, immersion bilingual education aims to develop Thai students’ English proficiency, as stated in Chapter 1 (Section 1.2) and Chapter 2 (Section 2.2). The beneficial effects of immersion bilingual education on Thai learners’ English proficiency were found by Suwanarak’s (2013) observational study of 67 Thai primary students from three different classrooms in a private bilingual school in Bangkok. Suwanarak (2013: 183) reported that there was a sign of a meaningful communication created by the students who participated in this study. In the classroom observations carried out in this study (Suwanarak, 2013: 183), the students were found to be able to retell a story in English by using their own words. Furthermore, the individual interview with a native English speaking teacher (NEST) in the same study (Suwanarak, 2013: 184)
revealed that the students were not afraid to ask questions and they could ask questions with correct intonation.

Immersion bilingual education in Thailand is also known as English Programme (EP) and Mini English Programme (MEP). The two programmes are optional (Prasongporn, 2009; Keyuravong, 2010). EP and MEP can be implemented in both primary and secondary schools (Prasongporn, 2009). In EP, English is a means of instruction (EMI) for at least four subjects: English, Science, Mathematics and Physical Education (Prasongporn, 2009; Keyuravong, 2010: 77). In MEP, at least two subjects of the four subjects are taught in English (Prasongporn, 2009; Keyuravong, 2010: 77). EP and MEP can be also implemented with pre-primary students on the condition that no more than 50% of the total time of instruction is taught in English (Prasongporn, 2009).

Baker (2006: 245) points out that immersion bilingual education varies depending on the children’s age and the amount of time spent in immersion. Baker (2006: 245) has distinguished three phrases of the immersion experience, i.e. early immersion, middle immersion and late immersion. Baker (2006: 245) also proposes two types of immersion bilingual education i.e. total immersion and partial immersion. Baker (2006: 245) explains that the former starts with ‘100% immersion’ in L2 for two or three year, then the amount of time spent in immersion decreases to 80% for the next three to four years and finally, the time reduces to about 50% immersion in L2 at the end of junior schooling while the latter provides close to 50% immersion in the L2 throughout infant and junior schooling.

For immersion bilingual education in Thailand, the amount of time spent in immersion varies according to children’s age. As mentioned earlier, at the pre-primary level, immersion experience is given no more than 50 percent of total learning period. In MEP, immersion in English is given for learning at least two subjects and four subjects in EP. EP and MEP can be categorised into partial immersion. Based on Baker’s (2006) explanation of immersion bilingual education, EP and MEP in pre-primary (age between 2-6) and primary schools (age between 7-12) can be categorised into early partial immersion, middle partial immersion while EP and MEP in secondary schools (age between 13-18) can be categorised into late partial immersion. As a result of this, the terms bilingual programme and bilingual education are used throughout this paper to refer to EP and MEP as immersion bilingual education in the form as follows:
early partial immersion, middle partial immersion and late partial immersion depending the learners’ age and time spent in English immersion. Moreover, team teaching is required for teaching in EP and MEP (Ministry of Education, 2003; Keyuravong, 2010: 77). The requirement of team teaching in bilingual education in Thailand is in line with Suwanarak’s (2013: 186) study which reveals that the students need support from both NESTs and Thai teachers who are skilful at ‘integrating both languages for facilitating academic success.’

This section has presented two main features of EP and MEP. Firstly, English is used as a medium of instruction for at least four subjects in EP and at least two subjects in MEP. Secondly, team teaching of NESTs and NNESTs is required for both EP and MEP by the Ministry. It might be argued that the two features are regarded as essential to make pre-service teachers fully aware of as part of their preparation to work in bilingual schools.

EMI in this study is defined as the implementation of English as an instructional language in general. However the implementation of EMI in bilingual schools requires specific teaching approach which will be discussed in Section 3.3.2.1 - 3.3.2.2. In what follows, two relevant teaching approaches i.e. content-based instruction (CBI) and content and language integrated learning (CLIL) will be presented. The two teaching approaches will indicate how EMI is implemented in bilingual education as well as identify teachers’ (both NESTs’ and NNESTs’) roles in bilingual schools.

### 3.3.2.1. Content-based Instruction (CBI)

Brinton, Snow and Wesche (2003: 2) define CBI as ‘the integration of particular content with language teaching aims.’ What Brinton, Snow, and Wesche (2003:2) mean is that a subject matter and L2 (English) is taught at the same time. CBI in L2 helps students reinforce the acquisition of academic knowledge and L2 with using it as a medium of instruction (Brinton, Snow and Wesche, 2003: 2).

CBI in L2 seems to be implemented mainly in language (English) classrooms. In CBI, students’ academic needs for a certain subject are taken into account in designing a language curriculum which aims to address the students’ language problems (Brinton, Snow and Wesche, 2003: 2). This means that a subject course is chosen through the consideration of the choice and the order of
language areas being taught (Brinton, Snow and Wesche, 2003:2). In CBI, the classroom activities include, for example, the involvement of ‘authentic reading materials’ and the provision of the patterns of verbal responses to reading materials (Brinton, Snow and Wesche, 2003: 2). CBI in English relates to the sequential language development which for example regards that writing ability is developed by and after listening and reading ability (Brinton, Snow and Wesche, 2003: 2). Based on this, students’ writing ability is prepared by having them engage in synthesising facts and opinions from a variety of learning resources in CBI classrooms. (Brinton, Snow, and Wesche, 2003: 2). Brinton, Snow and Wesche (2003:3) point out that CBI helps students get accustomed to the L2 environment e.g. L2 curriculum, L2 materials and EMI. The CBI’s preparation for L2 environment appears in immersion bilingual education. Brinton, Snow and Wesche, (2003: 8) state that CBI in L2 was implemented in a French immersion project in Canada. Based on CBI, the half-day curriculum is taught by a native French teacher in order to encourage English speaking pre-schoolers to communicate naturally in French with the native teacher (Brinton, Snow and Wesche, 2003: 8). Similarly, Hu (2008, 199-200) points out that CBI is applied to English subjects before students are ready to learn non-English subjects through EMI in immersion bilingual schools. The application of CBI as preparation for learning in EMI or bilingual education environment is supported by Owen’s (2002) research on the outcomes of implementing CBI in English for her Communication Skill 2 course in an English medium university in Thailand. The course covered language skills i.e. listening, presentations, reading and writing for academic purpose via issues and events of the 20th century such as the Rise of the Industrialists, World War I, the Great Depression, International Monetary Fund, The Fall of Communism, etc. (Owens, 2002: 49-51). In this research, the authentic texts from the Internet, famous television series, encyclopaedias and the current newspapers were used to produce lecture materials (Owens, 2002: 51). Language skills were taught alongside the presentation of discourse and grammatical points embedded in an individual’s oral and writing assignments. Owens’ (2002: 58) research reports that CBI in English for the Communication Skills 2 course enables her students to become aware of their own language problems and set their own personal goal to overcome these problems. Apart from language achievement, CBI provides the students with opportunities for
obtaining the study skills essential (the issue of plagiarism, academic audience
behaviours, oral presentation, discussion skills, etc.) for assignments of their
content courses (Owens, 2002: 52-56).
CBI prepares learners for EMI learning in bilingual schools (Owen, 2002;
Brinton, Snow and Wesche, 2003; Hu, 2008). Throughout this study, the term
CBI in L2 or English is referred to as a teaching approach implemented in
bilingual schools for enhancing bilingual education students’ English proficiency
essential for learning both English and non-English subjects there.

### 3.3.2.2. Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)

CLIL is defined as ‘a dual-focused educational approach in which an additional
language is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language’
(Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols, 2008:9; Coyle, Hood and Marsh, 2010: 1). An
additional language (AL) is basically referred to as learners’ foreign language
(FL); however, it might also include learners’ L2, according to Coyle, Hood and
Marsh, (2010: 1). AL, FL and L2 are also called CLIL language (Mehisto, Marsh
and Frigols, 2008; Coyle, Hood and Marsh, 2010). For the present study, AL,
FL, L2 and CLIL language mean English. As mentioned earlier, CLIL focuses on
the integrated learning of both content and language which is similar to CBI.
However, CBI is likely to be implemented in language classroom (Owen, 2002;

In CLIL programme, learners’ FL and so on is the language of instruction of
each and any subject. CLIL requires the collaboration among school staff
especially content teachers (subject teachers) and language teachers (English
teachers). Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols (2008: 11) explain that content teachers
teaching content e.g. maths, science, art, business, etc. in CLIL programme
play a role in supporting their students in understanding a particular part of
language knowledge necessary for becoming skilful in the learning content.
Language teachers do not only teach the language, in accordance with the
school curriculum but they also help their students acquire language essential
to effectively learning the content. The teachers’ role in accordance with CLIL
approach is reported by Suwanarak’s (2013: 186) study which reports that
particular aspects of English language are taught to facilitate Thai primary
students in the immersion bilingual education school to comprehend key
concepts of Science and Maths.
Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010: 3) state that the attention in the CLIL programme is driven by different ‘language-supportive methodologies.’ Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010: 36) propose that these different ‘language-support methodologies’ belong to the concept of the ‘Language Triptych’ which comprises ‘language of learning’, ‘language for learning’ and ‘language through learning’ (Figure 3.2).

**Figure 3.2: The Language Triptych by Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010:36)**

‘Language of learning’ includes genre analysis which plays an important role in revealing ‘the need to acquire language specific to subject and thematic content’ (Coyle, Hood and Marsh, 2010: 37). The use of genre analysis becomes clear when looking at Coyle’s, Hood’s and Marsh’s (2010: 35) example that students are assigned to describe an experiment in a science class. Subject and language teachers of CLIL programme realise in agreement that students need to acquire ‘the concept of pastness and past markers’ (Coyle, Hood and Marsh, 2010: 37). With genre analysis, the sample sentences and verbs conjugated in the past tense are selectively introduced based on the content of learning (Coyle, Hood and Marsh, 2010: 37). Through
this teaching and learning process, the concept of past tense as well as students’ AL is used in a meaningful way. With the ‘language of learning’ perspective, language areas which learners need to understand and master concepts and skills relevant the thematic or topical subject are analysed (Coyle, Hood and Marsh, 2010: 37).

‘Language for learning’ is originated by the perception that AL is a tool for communication with peers and teachers in CLIL classrooms. Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010: 37) point out that ‘language for learning’ mainly focuses on classroom language which includes the development of repertoire of speech acts. ‘Language for learning’ aims to enable learners to learn the subjects through AL and to discuss, dispute, as well as ask questions relevant to the subjects by using AL (Coyle, Hood and Marsh, 2010: 37). Further, ‘language for learning’ appears to relate to the interaction with language models. According to Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols (2008: 107), language models include CLIL teachers and guests who are invited into the classrooms. Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols (2008: 107) also propose that ‘language for learning’ could be developed by engaging in field trips, a buddy system, and international projects in which students discuss and solve problems with different people and at the same time absorb certain aspects of AL necessary for learning the subjects (Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols: 107).

‘Language through learning’ relates to capture learners’ language problems, address the emerging problems of language in the learning situation and readdress them for further language development (Coyle, Hood and Marsh, 2010: 38). ‘Language through learning’ is promoted by classroom interaction and speaking activities (Coyle, Hood and Marsh, 2010: 37) which necessarily require a safe learning environment and praising system, similar to the traditional language classrooms. Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols (2008: 105) point out that both teachers and students are responsible for creating the safe learning environments i.e. being free from ‘ridicule’, ‘sarcasm’ and ‘physical aggression’ to the communication in AL in CLIL classrooms. Instead, positive and constructive feedbacks are given to students in order for them to analyse, to cope with content and language problems and at the same time to improve their language. (Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols, 2008: 105). An activity within the concept of ‘Language through learning’ includes students’ display and oral
reports on their success in the assignments on which teachers, head teachers and parents can give feedback (Mehisto, Marsh, and Frigols, 2008: 109).

Section 3.3.2.1.-3.3.2.2 shows that CBI and CLIL are referred to as the two teaching approaches used in immersion bilingual education where EMI is implemented such as in Thailand. Unlike CLIL, CBI means to develop learners’ language proficiency through integrating particular content into language lessons. CLIL facilitate learners to achieve in learning language and content simultaneously through the cooperation between the language and content (subject) teachers. This is supported by Owen (2002), Brinton, Snow and Wesche (2003), Hu (2008), Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols (2008), Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010), and Suwanarak (2013). Both teaching approaches appear to be implemented in immersion bilingual education. It might be argued that it is important for pre-service teachers to learn how to teach through CBI and CLIL during their teacher education programme because the understanding and being skilful at two relevant teaching approaches would enable them to teach effectively in bilingual schools. In what follows, Section 3.4 presents requirements of an (English) teacher education programme should take into consideration for training its pre-service teachers.

3.4. Perceived Requirements of Bilingual Teachers

Baker (2006: 246) states that immersion bilingual schools require competent bilingual teachers. This section introduces research findings on perceptions held by teachers, students, and pre-service teachers regarding requirements of bilingual teachers which mainly relate to teacher’s competence (Section 3.4.1) and teachers’ identity (Section 3.4.2). The introduction of research-based requirements of bilingual teachers would suggest specific pedagogy (curriculum and instruction) of bilingual teacher education.

3.4.1. Perceptions of Teacher’s Competence

This section presents empirical research on the perceptions of teachers, students and pre-service teachers with regard to competence required for teaching (English) in bilingual schools. The perceived teacher’s competence for teaching (English) in bilingual schools especially in EFL contexts, e.g. China, Korea, Thailand, Turkey etc., mainly comprises English competence and
Methodological competence (Park and Lee, 2006; Barnes and Lock, 2010; Chen, 2010; Tong and Shi, 2012).

Park and Lee (2006: 242) investigated through questionnaire the requirements of an effective English teacher in bilingual schools as perceived by teachers (N=169) and students (N=339) at high schools in Busan, Korea. In this study (Park and Lee, 2006: 241), English competence is perceived by most Korean teachers as the most important competence for teaching English in bilingual schools. Teachers’ reading skill appears to be the most important part of the teachers’ English competence, from most participants’ perspectives (both teachers and students), followed by teachers’ speaking skill (Park and Lee, 2006: 242). In Park and Lee’s (2006: 242) study, most students and teachers agreed that English teachers could be considered effective when they read and speak English well. Similarly, teachers’ oral English skill was perceived as a factors ensuring the effectiveness of bilingual education instruction (18.3%) in Tong and Shi’s (2012: 176) quantitative survey research on the perceptions about Chinese English bilingual education held by 153 junior life science majors.

Further, perceived English competences required for teachers in bilingual schools appear in Park and Lee’s (2006: 242) study, which include sound understanding of English culture, being fully conversant with English grammar, ability to write English well and ability to pronounce English well. The English competence regarding English grammar in Park and Lee’s (2006: 242) study is in line with Barnes and Lock (2010: 142) who investigated Korean students’ (N=105) perceptions of effective characteristics of EFL lecturers in a Korean-English medium university through an analysis of a piece of free writing in Korean about the attributes (N=40) of effective EFL teachers. 16 of the 40 attributes relate to teacher’s knowledge which includes good knowledge of English grammar and vocabulary (Barnes and Lock (2010: 142-148).

The English competence regarding English pronunciation in Park and Lee’s (2006: 242) study is in line with Chen (2010: 214-215) who investigates the favourable and unfavourable characteristics of EFL teachers perceived by 60 undergraduate students of Vongchavaritkul University in Thailand with an open-ended questionnaire and a semi-structure interview. In Chen’s (2010: 217) study, Thai teachers of English are specifically required to be able to pronounce English as good as or almost the same as NESTs.
The preference for a teacher with native-English pronunciation also appears in Timmis’ (2002: 242) quantitative study. 268 non-native English students (N=400) from 14 different countries on the participants’ list of the IATEFL Dublin 2000 in this study (Timmis, 2002: 242) prefer to pronounce like a native English speaker. In the same study (Timmis, 2002: 242), 70 NESTs (N=180) from 45 different countries on the same participants’ list specify a desire for a clear form of English pronunciation. The teachers in Timmis’ (2002: 243) study explain that having native-like pronunciation is actually desirable but it is idealistic, unlike having clear pronunciation of English which is realistic. In line with this, Pavlenko’s (2003: 257) qualitative research on the reflections on native and non-native English linguistic and professional competence. Some Korean (N=14) and Japanese (N=2) students in Pavlenko’s (2003: 257) perceived that native-like competence is the only worthy competence especially regarding English pronunciation and accent which they are keen to achieve.

Similarly, Coskun’s (2011: 58) quantitative research on the perception of personal preference for a true English accent held by Turkish pre-service teachers of English (N=47) reveals that having native-like pronunciation is perceived as very important (n=38), important (n=5) and not very important (n=4) for the Turkish pre-service teachers. Coskun’s (2011: 57) study reveals that standard American English (n=18) is preferred to standard British English (n=15) and Turkish-English (n=14). On the other hand, Jenkins’s (2010: 20) research on the perceptions of English accents held by the 360 NNESTs from 12 expanding circle countries reveals that the perceived first two best accents are UK English (n=170) and US English accent (n= 100). The empirical studies (Timmis, 2002; Jenkin, 2010; Coskun, 2011) confirmed the existence of a preference for native English pronunciation/accent. Jenkin’s (2010: 27) results of map-labelling task report that both UK and US English accent were given positive labels. In Jenkins’ (2010: 27) study, the labels describing UK accents are, for example, normal, traditional, authentic, proper, classical, perfect, etc. while the US accents are described as pleasant, relaxed, informal, comfortable, etc. In this study (Jenkin, 2010: 27), Swedish English was described positively with comparison to native English accent e.g. almost mother-tongue like, quite natural like native, near-British, and etc.

Moreover, 41 of the Turkish pre-service teachers of English in Coskun’s (2011: 58) study perceived that the objective of teaching English pronunciation is to
help students become as native-like as possible. This partly supports Jenkins’ (2010: 28-29) study which reveal that the UK and US English accent are widely preferred and perceived as the teachers’ pronunciation goal. However, a different perception in this regard appeared in Ludbrook’s (2008: 158) case study which examined the perceptions of language proficiency of CLIL teachers in Italy held by an EFL teacher and a science teacher in a technical secondary. Both teachers in this study (Ludbrook, 2008: 158) stated that native English competence is not a goal for either teachers or learners in CLIL programmes but the relative accuracy of pronunciation and intonation instead.

Methodological competence is referred to as teachers’ teaching strategies which the Chinese students in Tong and Shi’s (2012: 176) study perceive as a factor in ensuring the effectiveness in an English medium university. This is in line with Park and Lee (2006: 241) who reported that most students (N=339) perceived methodological competence as most important to teach English in an English medium university. In Parks’ and Lee’s (2006: 243) study, the Korean students’ perceptions of methodological competence include the ability to do the following:

1. provide activities that arouse students’ interest in learning English,
2. provide opportunities to use English through meaningful activities,
3. teach English tailored to students’ English proficiency levels, and
4. teach English in English.

Similarly, Chen’s (2012: 215-218) study reveal the perceived EFL teachers’ methodological competence for English-medium classrooms as well-perform at lesson delivery, language used in teaching (EMI), classroom activity management and classroom atmosphere creation. Regarding EMI, some students in Park and Lee’s (2006: 217) study expressed the need to be taught by EFL teachers who could speak and teach through both English and Korean. Likewise, the students in Barnes and Lock’s (2010: 145) study state that they are pleased to be taught by EFL teachers who use Korean selectively in the classrooms.

This section presented the teacher’s competence perceived as important to teach (English) in English medium schools and universities. In terms of English competence, it appears that native-English competence is considered
necessary especially English pronunciation. Regarding methodological competence, it appears that the ability to use EMI is perceived as important to teach in bilingual schools. At the same time, L1 is suggested to play a useful role in bilingual education classrooms. The native-English competence and the involvement of L1 indicate one more requirement of teachers in bilingual schools relating to teachers’ nativeness (identity) which will be presented in Section 3.4.2.

3.4.2. Perceptions of Teachers’ Nativeness and Identity

This section comprises two main parts. The first part presents how native English speakers, non-native English speakers and bilingual speakers are categorised. The second part reports research findings on the perceptions of NESTs, NNESTs and bilingual speaking teachers held by students, teachers and pre-service teachers. Both parts aim to identify the importance of NESTs, NNESTs and bilingual teachers and indicate their role in teaching bilingual programmes.

3.4.2.1. (Non) Native English Speakers’ Original Countries

Kachru’s (1985 in Walker 2010) model of the three concentric circles of English is used to categorise the nativeness of English by looking at the individual’s original country. Kachru (1992: 3) uses the three concentric circles to represent the spread of English. The three concentric circles of English consist of Inner Circle, Outer Circle and Expanding Circle (Walker, 2010: 2). Kachru (1992: 3) points out that the Inner Circle represents users of English as a native (mother) language. Walker (2010:1) states, ‘native English speakers are from the Inner Circle countries i.e. ‘the UK, Ireland, the US, Australia, Canada, New Zealand, the Caribbean, and South Africa.’ The perception of the UK and the US as native English speakers is in line with Matsuda’s (2003: 487) research on the ownership of English as perceived by Japanese students in Year 12 (N=34) and one homeroom teacher of English and one assistant homeroom teacher. Through in-depth interviews, some Japanese students in Matsuda’s (2003: 488) study perceived that native English speakers refer to people particularly from the UK and US. Crystal (2003 in Walker, 2010: 2-4) states that English is used worldwide as L1 by 400 million people, as L2 by 430 million people, and as FL by 750 million
people, approximately. The number illustrates that the number of native English speakers in the Inner Circle countries is lower than the English speakers in the Outer and Expanding Circle countries. According to Walker (2010: 4), the number of Inner Circle speakers is ‘relatively stable’ whereas the number of Outer and Expanding Circle speakers is ‘constantly growing.’ Walker (2010: 4) points out that most of native English speakers tend to be monolingual whereas the English speakers in the Outer Circle countries are at least ‘bilingual’ and frequently are ‘plurilingual’. Walker (2010:4) gives an example of plurilingual competence of Kenyans and further explains that they are able to communicate in at least three languages i.e. an African language as their first language, English and Swahili as their country’s two official languages. English speakers in the Expanding Circle countries or also known as non-native English speakers are possibly at least ‘bilingual’ who are fluent in at least two languages i.e. their mother tongue and English. Walker (2010:4) reports that millions of English speakers in the Outer and Expanding Circle countries are successful in communicating in English in their daily life situation, regardless to the language born and native-like English. Further, 750 million speakers of English from the Expanding Circle countries are at ‘a medium level of conversational competence in handling domestic subject matter’ (Crystal, 2003: 68 in Walker, 2010:4). According to Pavlenko (2003: 261 -262), scholars in bilingualism e.g. Baker (1996), Grosjean (1998) and Romaine (1995) define ‘anyone who uses more than one language for particular purpose at some point in their daily life’ as bilinguals. Likewise, Cook (1992, 1999 in Pavlenko 2003: 262) defines multi-competent speakers as individuals ‘who know more than one language.’ Seidlhofer (2011: 9) proposes that non-native English speakers should be considered ‘legitimate users’ not just speakers who have to follow and aim at the native English speaker norms. Based on this, it might be argued that non-native English speakers from the Expanding Circle are regarded as bilingual speakers of English.

This section indicates that native English speakers are perceived as different from non-native English speakers based on their original countries. Kachru’s (1985 in Walker, 2010: 2) model of the three concentric circles of English provides two identities for teachers i.e. NESTs and NNESTs. When looking at NNESTs’ competence, and at bi- or plurilingualism, another identity for bilingual teachers is identified i.e. bilingual speakers of English. The following section will
present the perceptions held by students, teachers and pre-service teachers of the three potential identities of teachers: NEST, NNESTs and bilingual speakers.

3.4.2.2. Native English Speaking Teachers (NESTs)

Braine (1999 in Chun, 2014: 564) states that being a native English speaker is regarded as the main qualification for teaching English in Japan, Korea, and Taiwan. This is in line with Canagarajah’s (1999: 77) story of a Korean student who graduated from a master programme in TESL\(^3\) from University of Boston. According to Canagarajah (1999: 77), the students could not find a teaching job in her home country (Korea) because only native English speakers would be hired. Canagarajah’s (1999) story is similar to Shibata’s (2010: 126) quantitative research on Japanese junior high (n= 24) and high school teachers (n= 51, N= 75) of English in Okinawa, Japan. Most teachers in this study (Shibata, 2010: 131) state in the questionnaire that the status of native-English speakers is regarded as a qualification of assistant English teachers. Similarly, NESTs are specifically employed as language assistants because they are perceived as ‘linguistic models’ and ‘cultural ambassadors’ in bilingual schools in Spain (Gerena and Remirez-Verdugo, 2014: 120).

The recruitment of English teachers in Thai educational institutes appears to show a preference to NESTs. Watson Todd (2006:2) demonstrates the job advertisements for English teachers in Thailand in which specifically states NESTs as a main qualification. For example, ‘Native English speaker only (UK, USA, AUS, NZ, CAN)’, ‘English teacher American/British only wanted’, ‘We are seeking native English speakers’ and ‘Now!...require Native Speaking teaching English’.

Watson-Todd (2006: 2) reports that NESTs are preferred to NNESTs in the schools in Thailand because of their native English pronunciation. This is in line with Shibata’s (2010:126) research on the requirements of assistant English teachers (AETs) in which the questionnaire results also revealed that English assistant teachers who are non-native English speakers are strongly required to perform at native English pronunciation level. In line with this, Coskun’s (2011: 59) study in which 34 Turkish pre-service teachers of English (N=47) preferred

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\(^3\)TESL stands for Teaching English as a second language
to learn English pronunciation from NESTs (English or America) while 13 of them preferred to learn it from a successful bilingual teacher.

Ma’s (2012: 284-285) study was carried out through semi-structured focus group interviews with 30 secondary students from three different schools in Hong Kong. In this study (Ma, 2012: 292), NESTs’ pronunciation was described as ‘real’ and their English is regarded as ‘more pure/orthodox’. The word ‘real’ for a student in Ma’s (2012:292) study is referred to ‘real meaning of English’ and the word ‘orthodox’ for the student is regarded as having accurate pronunciation and grammar. In line with this, Samimy and Brutt-Griffler’s (1999: 136) survey research on perceptions about the native versus non-native issues in teaching English, non-native English students in a TESOL programme (N=17) perceived that NESTs were considered successful teachers because they used ‘authentic English’.

The students in Ma’s (2012: 291) study believed that NESTs have helped improve their English pronunciation, speaking skills, listening skills and familiarisation with different accents of English. This is in line with Benke and Medgyes’ (2005: 204) research on the perceptions of NESTs held by Hungarian learners of English from secondary bilingual schools in Budapest (N=422) in which the students perceived NESTs have helped them practise English speaking and also provided cultural information.

The preference to NESTs in Thailand appears to be originated by the belief that NESTs make zero mistakes of vocabulary and grammar (Watson-Todd, 2006: 2). However, Watson-Todd (2006: 4) has proved the belief of NESTs’ zero mistakes of vocabulary and grammar to be a fallacy. Collecting a corpus of approximately 12,000 words in English written by NESTs in Thailand from two websites: www.ajarn.com and www.telfasia.com, Watson Todd (2006:4) found that the NESTs made 60 spelling mistakes, one incorrect word choice and no mistake of collocation use (Watson Todd, 2006: 4). Furthermore, Watson Todd (2006: 5-6) points out that the NESTs used confused words and misused apostrophes which result in grammatical errors.

In terms of the perceptions of NESTs’ teaching behaviours, the students in Benke and Medgyes’ (2005: 207) study perceived that NESTs are better at teaching English conversation; they are ‘more capable of getting their learners to speak’. In line with this, the students in Ma’s (2012: 292) preferred NESTs’ teaching styles to NNESTs’. The students in Ma’s (2012: 292) study explained
that the atmosphere in NESTs’ classrooms was fun and relaxed because they used an activity approach i.e. storytelling, sharing of life experience making jokes in lessons and using language games. Further, the students in Ma’s study reported that NESTs did not heavily rely on textbook and the students learnt English through playing (Ma, 2012: 292).

However, most Hungarian learners of English from secondary bilingual schools in Budapest (N= 422) in Benke and Medgyes’ (2005: 198) study perceived that NESTs struggle with explaining difficult grammatical points. Furthermore, the students in Benke and Medgyes’ (2005: 207) study perceived a gap in the communication between NESTs and themselves because of different cultural and language backgrounds among them. Similarly, Ma’s (2012: 295) research has shown that most students are dissatisfied with non-examination-oriented teaching style of NESTs. Further, the students in Ma’s (2012:293-294) study reported that it was difficult for them to communicate and understand NESTs and they are anxious to ask questions.

### 3.4.2.3. Non-native English Speaking Teachers (NNESTs)

The preference to native-English competence/NESTs results in a lack in the appreciation of non-native English competence/NNESTs. This is supported by Thomas (1999:8) who shares her non-native English students’ attitude towards herself as an NEST:

‘You know when I saw you enter the class on the first day, I was disappointed. I had spent a lot of money to come to the United States and I was hoping to get a NS [Native Speaker] to teach the class. When I first saw you, I felt certain that I wouldn’t like your class.’

Thomas (1999: 7) perceives herself as a native speaker of Indian and Singapore English but she was considered by her students as an NNEST. Based on a teaching evaluation, she is regarded as a very good teacher (Thomas, 1999:10). However, when Thomas (1999:10) asked what students dislike about her class, she received the response e.g. ‘We need native speaker teacher. It will be better.’

The lack of appreciation of non-native English competence leads toward the loss of confidence and self-esteem for NNESTs (Thomas, 1999:10). This is in line with Pavlenko’s (2003: 258) study in which Keumsil (a pseudonym of a
Korean student) perceived her English proficiency as deficient. Some students in Pavlenko’s (2003: 257-258) study explained that their feeling of deficiency in English was caused by their inability to achieve the ‘native speakerness’ i.e. ‘native-like phonology and grammar. In the same study (Pavlenko, 2003: 258), Ikuko (a pseudonym of a Japanese student), who compared herself with Korean American and NESTs, perceived native-like competence as the proper English and the person without it as ‘less than human being’ in England.

The perceived lack of appreciation of non-native English competence relates to negative perceptions of NNESTs’ professional ability and behaviours. Relating to the NNEST’s perceptions of their own professional ability, a research survey on the perceptions of native English speaker norms held by approximately 400 NNESTs conducted by Rajagopalan (2005: 289) revealed that NNESTs perceived being a non-native English speaking teacher as ‘undervalued as professionals’ (64%) and ‘handicapped when it came to career development’ (52%).

Relating to the NNESTs’ perceptions of NNESTs’ teaching behaviours, Benke and Medgyes’ (2005: 202) questionnaire results revealed that NNESTs were mainly perceived as teachers who ‘often give a lot of homework’ and ‘consistently check for errors.’ Ma’s (2012: 285) research on the perceptions of advantages and disadvantages of NESTs and NNESTs held by secondary students (N= 30) in Hong Kong generated similar results. Through 10 semi-structure focus group interviews (3 students for each group), one focus group of the students stated that NNESTs are likely to ‘give more exercise and practice’ which they regarded as a possible advantage of being taught by NNESTs (Ma, 2010: 288).

As for the disadvantages of NNESTs, on focus group of students in Ma’s (2012: 289) study perceived that NNESTs’ teaching as ‘traditional’, ‘very old fashioned’, ‘inflexible’ and ‘textbook-bound teaching’. They stated that all of the teaching styles in general make the lessons uninteresting (Ma, 2010: 289). Finally, one student in Ma’s (2012:289) study perceived that they had less opportunity to practise English when learning with NNESTs because they could ask questions in L1.

NNESTs are perceived as less competent at English than NESTs. This is supported by Pavlenko’s (2003: 257) study in which 14 international students (N=44) perceived that English is ‘a language of the White majority’ (Native
English Speakers) and English produced by African Americans (NNESTs) is ‘erroneous’, ‘inferior’ and ‘not as native speaker’. Similar to, Matsuda’s (2003: 490-493) study, most Japanese students perceived a Japanese English accent as ‘an incorrect form of English’ but as ‘acceptable’ because it was ‘unavoidable.’ Further, most of them clearly reported in both questionnaire and in-depth interview that they would prefer not to acquire a Japanese English accent (Matsuda, 2003: 490-493). Likewise, the students in Benke and Medgyes’ (2005: 206) study perceived that NNESTs had ‘bad pronunciation’ and used ‘outdated language’. The perceived less English competence of NNESTs is also confirmed by Ma’s (2012: 289) study in which four focus groups of the students in Hong Kong perceived NNESTs' English pronunciation and grammar are inaccurate as shown in a quote as follows, ‘Maybe some... some pronunciation, they [NNESTs] will say... say a little wrong. We can know... we can learn the wrong pronunciation. This may be a little disadvantage.’ Thomas (1999: 6) claims, ‘there are good teachers and “not-so-good” teachers, and there are “not-so-good” teachers among the ranks of NSs of English as well.’ This is in line with Samimy and Brutt-Griffler’s (1999: 131) survey research on the perceptions of NESTs and NNESTs held by 17 non-native English students (i.e. Korean, Japanese, Turkish, Surinamer, Chinese, Togolese, Burkinabe, and Russian) in a TESOL programme. Some students in Samimy and Brutt-Griffler’s (1999: 136) study perceived that NNESTs were considered successful teachers because they were sensitive to their students’ needs. Similarly, Ma’s (2012: 288) study has shown that NNESTs were perceived to be able to understand students’ learning difficulties, weaknesses and needs. One student interviewee in Ma’s (2012:288) study reported that NNESTs have taught ‘the kind of English’ responding to his/her needs for living in Hong Kong. The implication is that the stereotype of ‘NNESTs’ cannot be always used to measure their teaching ability. This is supported by Benke and Medgyes’ (2005: 202) study in which the students perceived that NNESTs often plan their lessons thoroughly. Some students in Ma’s (2012: 288) study stated during the semi-structured focus group interviews that NNESTs teach by using some interesting games. The students in Ma’s (2012: 288) study have perceived that the grammatical points and difficult vocabulary were taught and explained understandably by NNESTs. Similarly, Benke and Medgyes’ (2005: 206) analysis of the open-ended questionnaires brings the conclusion that NNEST
are perceived as beneficial to the students’ English learning because they are better at teaching grammar and help them prepare for the exams. Further, the students in Ma’s (2012: 286-288) study point out that NNESTs can enhance their learning because they can communicate in the students’ L1 (Chinese Cantonese) which results in the effective communication and the closer relationship between NNESTs and students. The benefit of L1 is supported by Forman’s (2008: 322-323) observational research. Through observing English lessons taught by Thai teachers of English and an Australian teachers who can speak Thai in a university in Thailand, it appeared that L1 plays an important role in providing more accurate meaning than the exclusive use of L2. Forman (2008: 326-329) proposes that the mixed use of Thai and English enriches semantic link across the two languages. Previous studies i.e. Samimy and Brutt-Griffler (1999), Thomas (1999), Matsuda (2003), Pavlenko (2003), Benke and Medgyes (2005), and Ma (2012) revealed that students, teachers and pre-service teachers are aware of the strengths and weaknesses of both NESTs and NNESTs (Section 3.4.2.2 and Section 3.4.2.3). Both NESTs and NNESTs have their own beneficial effect on enhancing students’ learning and students seem to require support from both. This is supported by Benke and Medgyes’ (2005: 205) study in which only 95 students (N= 422) agreed with the statement ‘I would be ready to trade a non-native teacher for a native anytime.’ Furthermore, only 25 students in Benke and Medgyes’ (2005: 205) study agreed with the statement ‘I wish I had only non-native teachers of English’ (Benke and Medgyes, 2005: 205). Moreover, 342 students in Benke and Medgyes’ (2005: 206) study perceived being taught by both NESTs and NNESTs as ‘an ideal situation.’ Section 3.4.2.3 presented that NNESTs are of benefit to enhance students’ learning because of their bilingual competence. In the next section (3.4.2.4) will present the positive impact on the recognition of bilingual identity and how bilingual identity can be developed.

**3.4.2.4. Bilingual Teacher Identity**

As presented earlier, NNESTs are perceived as less appreciative in terms of their non-native English competence which they perceive to be inferior to native English competence. Broyard’s (1950 in Thomas, 1999: 9) claims that the stereotypes are dangerous to people who are put in a particular group because the stereotype makes the people take its ‘depictions’ for granted. This is in line
with Pavlenko’s (2003) study in which the Korean and Japanese students considered themselves as the outsiders of the native English speaker community and were less confident in their English competence due to the non-native English speaking stereotype (Section 3.4.2.3).

Shibata (2010: 125) argues that she considered the label ‘non-native speaker’ inappropriate for ‘a person who has learned English as a foreign language and successfully achieved bilingual status as a fluent, proficient user.’ In line with this, Pavlenko (2003: 262) proposes alternative labels including ‘bilinguals’, ‘multilinguals’ and ‘multicompetent’ speakers. Furthermore, Pavlenko (2003: 262) found that the non-native English students in her study viewed their linguistic competence more positively and they gained more self-esteem when they reframe their own identity based on those alternative labels.

Pavlenko (2000), Tao and Thomson (1991) and Watt (1997 in Pavlenko, 2003: 262) reported that the non-native English students are aware of and appreciate their bilingual competence by the discussion of the issues relating to ‘multicompetence’, ‘bilingualism’, and ‘the instability of first language competence.’ Pavlenko (2003: 255) found that the inclusion of the content of monolingual bias and the notion of multilingual speakers through reading, discussion, group/individual project, conference, etc. in the TESOL programme helped students participating in her study develop a bilingual identity for themselves. In line with this, Rajagapolan (2005: 290) signifies that ‘reflective teaching’ and ‘action research’ as a recent trend in teacher education help less experienced participants to be ‘less encumbered by native-speaker myth.’ These might be regarded as a way to make the learners free from the native English speaker norm.

Similarly, Baker (2011b: 7) suggests international cultural awareness (ICA) applied in ELT classrooms in order to address the skills of multilingual users required in expanding circle countries. According to Baker (2011b: 7), ICA can be developed in ELT classrooms through exploring local cultures, language learning materials, and media (both traditional and electronic) in English. Baker (2011b: 7) points out that the exploration of these enables students to discover linguistic influences, to become aware of their own identity and to be able to engage themselves in international communication. ICA in ELT classrooms also relates to face-to-face communication with both NESTs and NNESTs who can
share the experience of intercultural communication and reflect on what makes (English) communication successful and unsuccessful (Baker, 2011b: 8).

In the midst of native English speaker norms, the emergence of the appreciation of bilingual identity seems to be a sign of the shift in ‘nativeness paradigm’, which according to Shibata (2010: 125), is overwhelming non-natives English speakers. I believe that Thai pre-service (English) teachers are also overwhelmed by their non-native English identity and might devalue their own personal and professional identities. Pavlenko’s (2003) study reveals that the label of ‘bilingual’ and ‘multilingual’ is more supportive because it conveys the students’ personal and professional identities in a positive way. Based on the above, Thai pre-service (English) teachers deserve to be referred to as bilingual rather than accepting non-native English teacher identity which connotes the inferiority. They need a guide to reassess their personal and professional identities. They need support to transform the status of non-native English speakers into the status of multi-competent, bilingual or multilingual user. It might be argued that teacher educators especially those of bilingual teacher educators should play an active role in promoting this status. In the next section, trends in bilingual teacher education will be presented in order to understand the process of developing bilingual teachers.

3.5. Bilingual Teacher Education

According to Baker (2007: 145), ‘staff professional development and training’ is a key to effective bilingual schools and classrooms. Baker (2007: 145) proposes that the staff professional development and training for bilingual education is set out to train pre-service teachers in serving effectively language minority and language majority students. According to Howard and her colleagues (2005, in Baker, 2007: 145), the effective ways of serving pre-service teachers include enabling them to develop curriculum and instructions appropriate for teaching students in bilingual education. Relating to the focus of the present study, the bilingual teacher education development is defined as a programme of preparing pre-service teachers for teaching in bilingual schools. The programme generally aims to enable pre-service teachers to promote academic achievement of their prospective learners in bilingual schools in Thailand where English is implemented as a language of instruction.
As mentioned earlier (Section 3.3.2.2), CLIL is regarded as one teaching approach for bilingual education. The CLIL approach is also implemented in teaching in bilingual schools in Spain (Dobson, Murillo and Johnstone, 2010: 11; Gerena and Ramírez-Verdugo, 2014: 120). The interview responses from both primary and secondary teachers (N=22) in Gerena and Ramírez-Verdugo’s (2014: 127) study proposed three areas needed for the development of teachers in bilingual education i.e. ‘teaching methodology’, ‘teaching pedagogy’ and team teaching between NESTs and Spanish teachers.

The CLIL approach is also implemented in teaching in bilingual schools in Thailand. Keyuravong (2010: 79) points out that the CLIL approach is adopted for teaching Science as one subject included in Thai curriculum as of year 2001. Moreover, CLIL as an in-service teacher training is also launched in Thailand. Prasongporn (2009: 101) reports that both language (English) and content (Science) teachers from six EP and MEP primary and secondary schools expressed their satisfaction with CLIL approach especially in terms of facilitating them to systematically co-design the learning and teaching process.

Further, scholars e.g. Pistorio (2009) and Hillard (2011) specifically propose CLIL teacher training as a programme for developing bilingual teachers. A CLIL teacher training programme mainly consists of language-based knowledge, theoretical-based knowledge and methodological-based knowledge (Pistorio, 2009; Hillard, 2011) which are in line with the teachers’ suggestion of three components of a bilingual teacher programme in Gerena and Ramírez-Verdugo’s (2014: 127) study mentioned above. The presentation of CLIL teacher training programmes in the next section, together with my findings, will hopefully act as a proposal for the development of a bilingual teacher education programme in Thailand.

3.5.1. **CLIL for Bilingual Teacher Education**

This section will present three components of a CLIL teacher training programme: language-based knowledge, theoretical-based knowledge and methodological-based knowledge. CLIL teacher training is required to develop and support teachers who seem to struggle with teaching lessons in bilingual schools. This is evident by Hillard’s (2011: 4) research on teachers’ concerns of teaching both content and language in primary and secondary bilingual schools (CLIL programmes) in Europe. The teachers in this study (Hillard, 2011)
described the difficulty of teaching in bilingual schools as for example: ‘How do I plan a CLIL lesson? I have no idea!’; ‘I’m really worried. I don’t know the English for the language of sports!’; ‘I’m English-language teacher, not a science teacher.’ etc. Likewise, the science teacher in Ludbrook’s (2008: 159) case study reported that he found ‘difficulty in unplanned interaction, in retrieving the unpredictable lexis’ that might emerge during the lesson.’ Based on his perceived difficulty of teaching in a CLIL programme, he stated the need to improve the target language (English) ability (Ludbrook, 2008: 159).

It seems that CLIL teacher training programmes have beneficial effect on teachers in bilingual schools particularly relating to their English proficiency. This is supported by Ludbrook’s (2008: 158) classroom observations of the case study in which the science teacher was successful in communicating in English with the flexible vocabulary and the accuracy of pronunciation and intonation in science lessons in CLIL classrooms. Moreover, Ludbrook’s (2008: 161) study reveals that teachers’ feedbacks and corrections in the handouts, tasks and tests were written accurately in English. However, Moate’s (2014: 340-341) qualitative research on Finnish teachers’ perceptions of CLIL teacher training (N=6) found no relationship between CLIL teaching and the teachers’ English proficiency. The secondary teachers in Moate’s (2014) study perceived that CLIL teaching has had no positive impact on improving their English but it has increased their confidence to communicate in English with less concern for native-like pronunciation. This is in consistent with Kachru (1999: 8) who states that a native model as the goal of learning and teaching English is not generalizable. Moate’s (2014) study relates to bilinguals’ creativity in English which is proposed and defined by Kachru (1992: 6) as linguistic processes created by competent bi-/multilingual users. Kachru (1992: 6) explains that the competent bi-/multilingual users create solid characteristics in their (English) pronunciation, as time of English contacts has passed. Kachru (1992: 7) points out that bilingual’s creativity in English opens up research avenues for language identity. It seems that the secondary teachers in Moate’s (2014) study have developed their own language identity, disregarding native models.

Language-based knowledge seems to be significant for teachers in bilingual education. Ludbrook (2008: 158) states that the science teacher of bilingual schools in Italy is required to be proficient in English as B1 level of the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). Hillard (2011: 5) suggests that
CLIL teachers should be trained in target language. In line with this, Lu (2001 in Tong and Shi, 2012: 169) proposes that English as a minor subject should be offered to graduate students in order for them to be acquainted with ‘academic language proficiency’ in English to be able to teach in bilingual schools. Hillard (2011:5) gave an example of target language related courses included in CLIL teacher training programme at NILE⁴, UK as follows: language development, language input and output and classroom language, etc. The target language related courses seemingly act as a tool facilitating teachers to teach in bilingual schools through CLIL within the concept of the Language Triptych (Figure 3.2) proposed by Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010).

Theoretical-based knowledge is referred to as a distinct theory, with and models proposed by the following scholars: Mohan (1986), Cummin and Swain (1986), Coyle (1999) Skehan (1999) and De Graff and colleagues (2007 in Pistorio, 2009: 40). According to Pistario (2009: 40), the theory and models relate to the development of communication, thinking and language, the incorporation of cognitively demanding tasks, three aspects of learner performance (fluency, accuracy and complexity), and knowledge of focus on form. Similarly, Hu (2007 in Tong and Shi, 2012: 169) has suggested that both subject and language teachers should be provided with ‘theory of learning language’.

Methodological-based knowledge relates teaching and learning strategies and learning styles (Pistorio, 2009: 40-41). Similarly, Hillard (2011: 5) suggests CLIL methodology. Likewise, Hu (2007 in Tong and Shi, 2012: 169) has suggested that both subject and language teachers should be provided with ‘teaching methodology.’ According to Banegas (2012: 49), CLIL methodology relates to lesson planning, types and purposes of tasks in CLIL classrooms, selecting and adaptation of resources and materials for CLIL, scaffolding in CLIL, etc.

Pistorio (2009: 42) also suggested that a CLIL teacher training programme include the teaching internship in a selected school where teacher trainees are to receive feedback on their teaching from the school and university teachers. In addition to Pistario’s (2009: 42) suggestion, Bernhardt and Schrier (1992: 130) state that the field-based experience for bilingual teacher training should be established in school sites with an immersion environment because this experience will provide pre-service teachers instructional techniques and illustrates classroom disciplines particularly suitable for bilingual education. For

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⁴ Norwich Institute of Language Education in Norfolk
bilingual teacher education in China, Hu (2007, in Tong and Shi, 2012: 169) proposes an experience of ‘living abroad for one to two year.’ Finally, the involvement of ‘foreigner experts’ as lecturers or guest lecturers is suggested (Ding and Zhang, 2003; Han, 2008 in Tong and Shi, 2012: 169).

An international field based experience is put in place to prepare pre-service teachers to teach in bilingual schools (Pence and Macgillivray, 2008; Sahin, 2008). Sahin’s (2008: 1777-1784) survey research investigated the perceptions of the eight week international field based experience in high schools in the USA held by Turkish pre-service teachers (N= 11) and mentor teachers (N=7). Most participants in Sahin’s (2008) study perceived this experience useful for the pre-service teachers, in terms of gaining their self-confidence and developing English communication skills. Further, the pre-service teachers in Sahin’s (2008: 1783) study reported that the international field-based experience helped them develop better teaching skills; they could teach the subjects i.e. English, History, Biology and Turkish Language and Literature independently in front of a group of native English speaking students (Sahin, 2008: 1783-1784). It might be argued that an international field-based experience is an option for preparing pre-service teachers to teach in bilingual schools where EMI is implemented.

3.6. English Teacher Education

It is obvious that English teacher education programmes aim to enable pre-service English teachers to be proficient in English and teaching English. Based on this objective, the English teacher education programmes generally include English and methodological related-courses. In order to enable to pre-service teachers to apply English and Methodological knowledge to classroom teaching, they are provided with the opportunity of internship experience during their studies on the English teacher education programmes. This section will present the evaluative perceptions of English teacher education programmes relating to the three main components: English knowledge (3.6.1), methodological knowledge (Section 3.6.2) and internship experience (Section 3.6.3). The review of previous programme evaluation by pre-service teachers and teacher educators will hopefully suggest practical application for investigating the English teacher education in the present study.
3.6.1. **English Knowledge**

The provision of English knowledge relates to Coşgun Öğeyik’s (2009: 5) research on the perceptions of a BA programme of English teacher education held by Turkish pre-service teachers in year 3 (N=53). Coşgun Öğeyik’s (2009) found that the English teacher education curriculum was positively evaluated by most pre-service teachers who perceived that the curriculum has enabled them to engage in language skills (n=52) and language related-fields (n=39). Coşgun Öğeyik (2009: 8) reported that linguistic (English) courses included in the English teacher education curriculum were perceived as sufficient (n= 42) for teacher profession training, followed by literature courses (n= 35). In more recent research on the perceptions of an English teacher education in Turkey held by pre-service teachers (N= 55), Coskun and Daloglu (2010: 42) revealed similar results that 38 pre-service English teachers (N=55) felt being sufficiently trained in English by the English teacher education programme.

The English-related courses of the English teacher education programmes were perceived sufficient in previous studies as shown above (Coşgun Öğeyik’s, 2009; Coskun and Daloglu, 2010). However, it seems that engaging in learning those courses is the key of improving pre-service teachers’ English proficiency. Hayes’s (2010: 310) qualitative ethnographic and field research on a teacher’s life reveals that the teacher complained about the use of Thai as a medium of instruction in her teacher education programme. The teacher in Hayes’ (2010: 310-311) study stated the need of EMI to enhance her English proficiency. This is supported by Chapple and Curtis’ (2000) study in which university students (N=31) in Hong Kong felt the improvement in their English listening and speaking through the implementation of EMI in English lessons with the use of film as content (CBI). Likewise, both primary and secondary teachers (N= 102 and 65, respectively) in Dobson, Murillo and Johnstone’s (2010: 106,115) study perceived that the EMI implemented in BEP5 in Spain has developed their students’ English competence i.e. pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary and the four skills of English. Further, Dobson, Murillo and Johnstone (2010: 105,115) reported that engaging in EMI lessons has helped learners build up their self-confidence in English. Teaching using EMI also has a beneficial effect on bilingual teachers’ English ability. Most teachers in the same study (Dobson,

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5 Bilingual Education Project
Murillo and Johnstone, 2010: 107,116) perceived that they could maintain and develop their English proficiency through teaching for BEP in which EMI is implemented. However, the mixed used of L1 and L2 is found beneficial to students’ learning as proposed by Forman (2008) in Section 3.4.2.3. This is supported by Moore’s (2002: 279) case study research on the roles and functions of L1 and L2 at elementary level in a French school in Spain and a bilingual programme in French and Italian in the Aosta Valley in Italy. Moore (2002: 285) found in classroom interactions that communication between students and teachers was effective; L1 functioned as ‘a problem-solving strategy’. Moore (2002: 285-287) points out that the use of L1 also may be potential to make progress in learning L2 and develop bilingualism in students. In more recent research, Scott and de la Fuente (2008) found the mixed use of L1 and L2 beneficial to L2 learners. Through the qualitative exploratory study, Scott and de la Fuente (2008: 103) analysed French and Spanish students’ (N=12, six for each) speaking tasks, talking about English grammar. Scott and de la Fuente (2008: 105-106) found that the conversation was ‘smooth’ and ‘continuous’ within group of the students which is allowed to use L1 and they engaged equally in the talk. Scott and de la Fuente (2008: 107) point out that this group showed their ability to collaborate productively to complete the task unlike the other group. Similarly, Prapaisit de Segovia and Hardison’s (2009: 160) research on Thai EFL teachers’ perspectives of ELT demonstrates that English (L2) should be used in classrooms; however, according to the teacher’s interview, a translation is required to enhance learners’ understanding.

3.6.2. Methodological Knowledge

The provision of methodological knowledge of English teacher education programmes is evident by Coskun and Daloglu’s (2010: 28-29) study in which the questionnaire results revealed that most pre-service English teachers (N=55) perceived that the programme taught them how to adapt (84%), to use foreign language teaching material (87%), and how to teach English (85%). This is in line with the results of the focus-group interviews of the same study (Coskun and Daloglu, 2010: 31) in which the pre-service teachers (N=10) perceived that they were provided with theoretical background in English
language teaching (ELT) and they were well prepared for planning lessons and developing learning materials.

The inclusion of English and methodological knowledge in English teacher education programmes is also evident in Yavuz and Zehir-Topkaya’s (2013: 69-72) research on teacher educators’ perceptions (N=18) of the 2006 English language teaching programme introduced by the Turkish Higher Education Council (HEC). The open-ended questionnaire of this study reveals that most Turkish teacher educators from five state universities were satisfied with the English and Methodological-related courses i.e. Effective Communication Skills, Lexicology, Public Speaking and Presentation, Drama, Teaching Skills, and Public Service, Approaches and Methods in ELT.

However, the balance between English and methodological-related courses of the English teacher education programmes seems to be arguable. On the one hand, some pre-service English teachers in Coskun and Daloglu’s (2010: 31) study expressed their satisfaction with English-related courses of the programmes e.g. Writing short drama, English reading and writing. On the other hand, they complained about the absence of methodological-related courses for teaching those English-related courses. On the other hand, some pre-service English teachers in Coşgun Ögeyik (2009: 8) and Coskun and Daloglu (2010: 41) perceived that methodological-related courses have outnumbered the English-related courses of the English teacher education programmes.

3.6.3. **Internship Experience**

Beck and Kosnik (2006:11) point out that ‘knowledge is experience-based.’ The view on experience-based knowledge is in line with the ‘practical experiences’ referred by Crandall (2000: 35) as a trend on which language teacher education programme and instruction are focusing. This section presents the empirical research on the evaluative perceptions of English teacher education programmes regarding the sufficiency of internship experience held by pre-service teachers and teacher educators. This section also presents the findings of the previous study relating to challenges which pre-service English teachers might encounter. This section will close with the beneficial effect on the internship experience which is concealed in those challenges.

Teacher education programmes usually encourage pre-service teachers to engage in the internship experience (Beck and Kosnik, 2006; Brandt, 2006;
Hudson, Ngu and Hudson, 2008; Phairee et al., 2008; Tüzel and Akcan, 2009; Coskun and Daloglu, 2010; Yavuz and Zehir Topkaya, 2013). The internship experience is perceived significantly necessary for most Turkish pre-service teachers (N=55) in Coskun and Daloglu’s (2010: 31) study. They complained for the inclusion of only one school experience course in their English teacher education programme (Coskun and Daloglu, 2010: 31). They perceived the one school experience course as insufficient in terms of practice opportunities (Coskun and Daloglu, 2010: 31). In line with this, Turkish teacher educators (N=18) in Yavuz and Zehir-Topkaya’s (2013: 73) study expressed their dissatisfaction with the removal of the course of School Experience 1 from their English teacher education programme.

The internship experience provides a chance for pre-service teachers to apply their learning into practice. Richard and Crookes’ (1998 in Crandall, 2000: 41) review of an internship experience include the activities as follows: observing and being observed by mentor teachers and being responsible for teaching. Similarly, Phairee and his colleagues (2008: 656) point out that Thai pre-service teachers of Rajabhat Universities are responsible for observing their mentor teachers and classroom instruction which is observed by their mentor teachers during serving their teaching internship at school sites.

The activities during the internship mentioned by Richards and Crookes (1998 in Crandall: 2000) seem to provide the experience in the real classrooms to pre-service English teachers who are likely to fail to cope with ‘the reality of the classroom, according to Crandall (2000: 35). One reality of the classroom includes the difficulty in addressing the needs of English learners, based on Brandt’s (2006: 359) qualitative research on the perceptions of TESOL teacher preparation held by pre-service teachers (N=63) and teacher educators (N=32) from nine countries e.g. Bahrain, UK, Thailand, etc.

Further, the relationship between pre-service teachers and mentor teachers seems to be problematic during the internship experience. Brandt (2006: 357), pre-service English teachers expressed their concern about a poor relationship with their mentor teachers and stated a need for a second mentor teachers. Moreover, pre-service English teachers in Brandt’s (2006: 358) study felt that they were under pressure from the assessment in which they are expected to demonstrate competence in teaching methodology in a limited time.
Hudsons, Ngu and Hudson (2008) reported that Vietnamese pre-service teachers of English (N=97) perceived mixed-ability classrooms as a challenge during serving their teaching internship. The pre-service teachers in this study (Hudson, Ngu and Hudson, 2008: 7) indicated that this challenge resulted in the difficulty in teaching EFL writing. Likewise, Phairee and his colleagues (2008: 656) state that teaching mixed-ability classes is inevitable for Thai pre-service teachers of English because ‘Thai government schools do not have streaming for EFL.’

Further, the Turkish pre-service teachers (N= 5) and teacher educator (N= 1) in Tϋzel and Akacan’s study (2009) regarded the implementation of EMI in English lessons seems as another challenge for pre-service teachers during serving their teaching internship. The classroom observations and semi-structure interviews employed in this study (Tϋzel and Akacan, 2009: 278-281) revealed that the five pre-service teachers have struggled with implementing EMI in the situations as follows: conveying the meaning of a word to their students in English, managing classrooms, and modifying English to their students’ level. It appeared in Tϋzel and Akcan’s (2009: 278) study that the pre-service teachers gave incorrect meanings/explanations of unknown words to their students and also they performed wrong pronunciations. Further, the grammatical mistakes i.e. the omission of articles, the rules of subject-verb agreement, and phrasal verbs with incorrect particles and propositions were found when the pre-service teachers communicated in English in the classrooms (Tϋzel and Akcan, 2009: 279). The low ability to implement EMI of the pre-service teachers resulted in misunderstanding which has a negative effect on classroom management and learning lessons (Tϋzel and Akcan, 2009: 278).

The internship experience seems to prepare pre-service teachers to solve any emergent problems in their future classrooms. However, this experience is likely to offer an insight into their own teaching skills and English competence. Beck and Kosnik (2006: 11) state that pre-service teachers can come up with the specific strategies which are to support their students with limited skills of English literacy at their schools site. Particularly, the engagement in teaching content and language through using EMI seems to be a key of improving pre-service teachers’ English competence and this competence is likely to facilitate them to implement EMI in classroom. In Tϋzel and Akcan’s (2009) study, the pre-service teachers’ English proficiency underwent improvement throughout
the process of internship i.e. classroom observations, feedback sessions, discussion meetings and teaching reflective sessions. It might be argued that the teaching internship with the opportunity of teaching using EMI could improve pre-service teachers’ English proficiency and the ability to teaching through English which is required for teaching bilingual schools.

3.7. Summary

This chapter has reviewed literature concerned with four areas of critical importance in this present research. Firstly, the literature addresses bilingual education, with a particular focus on immersion bilingual education as it is implemented in Thailand under the name EP and MEP (Ministry of Education, 2003; Prasongporn, 2009; Keyuravong, 2010). CBI and CLIL are regarded as the two teaching approaches for bilingual education (Owen, 2002; Brinton, Snow and Wesche, 2003; Hu, 2008; Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols, 2008; Coyle, Hood and Marsh, 2010; Suwanarak, 2013).

Secondly, requirements for teachers in bilingual schools were described. The requirements relate to teacher's competence and their nativeness/identity (Park and Lee, 2006; Ludbrook, 2008; Tong and Shi, 2012). On the one hand, non-native English competence is less appreciated than native English competence by non-native English students, NNESTs and non-native English pre-service teachers (Thomas, 1999; Samimy and Brutt-Griffler, 1999; Timmis, 2002; Matsuda, 2003; Pavlenko, 2003; Benke and Medgye, 2005; Rajagopalan, 2005; Park and Lee, 2006; Barnes and Lock, 2010; Chen, 2010; Coskun, 2011, Jenkins, 2010; Ma, 2012). On the other hand, the identity of bilingual users helps weaken the preference for native-English competence (Pavlenko, 2003; Rajagopalan, 2005; Shibata, 2010).

Thirdly, a consideration of bilingual teacher education research then followed. CLIL teacher training programmes for preparing teachers in bilingual education were also introduced and the key features of the programme from different perspectives were examined.

Finally, this review has foreshadowed the operationalisation of the English teacher education programmes as an appropriate programme in training teachers of English. This contention is mainly based on questionnaire survey research made in early literature concerned with the programme evaluation.
English teacher education has enjoyed growing interest among language learning and teaching researchers in recent years. Factors e.g. perceived teachers' competence (English proficiency and teaching ability) and teachers' nativeness/identity have been found to play a role in bilingual education as well as bilingual teacher education. Empirical evidence has also shown that bilingual teacher identity has an impact on NNESTs’ self-esteem and the perception of their English proficiency.

Yet, it should be pointed out that, until now, very little empirical research concerning NESTs and NNESTs’ strengths and weaknesses appears to have been done using a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods (Section 3.4). A number of researchers have stressed the effectiveness of the English teacher education programmes in preparing pre-service teachers to teach English (Crandall, 2000; Beck and Kosnik, 2006; Brandt, 2006; Hudson, Ngu and Hudson, 2008; Phairee et al., 2008; Coşgun Ögeyik, 2009; Tüzel and Akcan, 2009; Coskun and Daloglu, 2010; Hayes, 2010; Yavuz and Zehir-Topkaya, 2013). However, it should be pointed out that little research appears to have been done on the effectiveness of English teacher education programme in preparing pre-service teachers to teach through EMI which is required for teaching in bilingual schools. Moreover, further research concerned with the extent and ways in which the identity of bilingual teachers plays a role in eliminating language anxiety in non-native English speakers appears to be needed.

This study is an attempt to fill these gaps by exploring pre-service English teachers’ perceptions of the effectiveness of the English teacher education programme in preparing them to teach in bilingual schools. The programme effectiveness will be also explored through firstly investigating the pre-service English teachers’ understanding of bilingual education and requirements of teachers in bilingual schools in Thailand; secondly, the participants’ perceptions of the English teacher education programme (programme evaluation); thirdly, their perceptions of their own competence for teaching in bilingual schools (self-evaluation) and finally, their perceptions of ways to improve the English teacher education programme to sufficiently prepare them for teaching English in bilingual schools where EMI is implemented.
Three main research questions (RQ1-3) and two subsidiary questions (SQ1.1 and 1.2) are thus raised, as shown in Chapter 1 (Introduction), to investigate to what extent the English teacher education programme has prepared pre-service teachers to teach in bilingual schools as well as exploring factors that might affect the increase in the programme potential to prepare pre-service English teachers to teach in bilingual schools.
CHAPTER FOUR – METHODOLOGY

4.1. Introduction

Following the introduction (Section 4.1), this chapter introduces, and contains a discussion of the research paradigm (Section 4.2), research methodology (Section 4.3) and research methods (Section 4.4) best suitable for the investigation of the research questions (RQs) and subsidiary questions (SQs) set out in Chapter 1. The three sections (4.2 – 4.4) include the justification of pragmatism as research paradigm, mixed-method methodology, mixed methods, namely online questionnaire and Facebook-chats employed in this study. The subsequent sections include a description of the research setting and research participants (Section 4.5). In addition, this chapter includes an illustration of the process of data collection (Section 4.6) and an overview of methods used for data analysis (Section 4.7), followed by ethical considerations (Section 4.8). The chapter concludes with a brief summary of the preceding sections (Section 4.9).

4.2. Research Paradigm for the Present Study

According to Mertens (2015:8), ‘a paradigm is a way of looking at the world’. In line with this, Feilzer (2010:7) defines a paradigm as ‘a deeper philosophical position relating to the nature of social phenomena and social structures’. Mertens (2015:8) claims that the philosophical assumptions of a paradigm ‘guide and direct thinking and action’. In relation to social science research, it might be argued that a paradigm directs the choice of research questions and methods. In order to identify a paradigm to conduct a research study, Guba and Lincoln (2005 in Mertens, 2015: 10-11) suggest that a researcher should answer four questions based on the ‘four basic beliefs’ i.e. axiology (the nature of ethical behaviour), ontology (the nature of reality), epistemology (the nature of knowledge and its relationship with the knower) and methodology (the approach to obtain the desired knowledge). This is in line with Biddle and Schafft (2014:2) who call the four basic beliefs ‘four fundamental concepts’ which construct ‘a philosophy of knowledge’. In the following, the consideration of the four basic beliefs (Guba and Lincoln, 2005 in Mertens, 2015: 10) or also known as the four fundamental concepts (Biddle and Shafft, 2014: 2) will be
presented to explain pragmatism as the most appropriate research paradigm for the present study.

4.2.1. Axiology

Sandelowski (2000: 247) defines axiology as a ‘view of what is valuable’. Pragmatists stress ‘an ethics of care’ (Mertens, 2015:37). According to Hall (2013 in Mertens, 2015:37), this ethical behaviour is particularly given to ‘the youngest members of society’. In addition, pragmatists care for the engagements from several groups of people to obtain understandings from different points of view. The ethics of care in the present study is given to Thai pre-service teachers who are supposed to be the youngest members of a teacher development community through highlighting their different perceptions about their learning programme. Within the pragmatic paradigm, an ethics of research goal is to obtain knowledge in order to pursue the desirable consequences (Morgan, 2007 in Mertens, 2015: 37). This ethical behaviour is also emphasised in the present study which is the practical orientation in terms of tackling problems of the English teacher education programme with a view to solve its problems.

4.2.2. Ontology

An ontological question asks what the nature of reality is (Mertens, 2015: 10). Pragmatists oppose the dualism in which the mind and the matter are set apart (Biesta and Burbules, 2003: 10). In a pragmatic approach, a single and multiple realities are possible and ‘all individuals have their own unique interpretation of reality’ (Mertens, 2015: 10; Feilzer, 2010: 8). This partly emerged from Dewey’s view on intersubjectivity (in Biesta and Burbules, 2003:12) that people construct their own individual world which is individually meaningful to themselves. From Dewey’s (1925: 40 in Feilzer, 2010:8) viewpoint, pragmatism is related to an ‘existential reality’ which sometimes is objective, subjective and mixture of the two. However, Dewey (in Biesta and Burbules, 2003: 12) argues that their ‘approaches’, ‘perspectives’ and ‘patterns of actions’ towards their individual world will be adjusted when individuals ‘act together’ with the aim of achieving ‘a common goal’ also called ‘a intersubjective world’ and finally ‘a coordinated response’ is possibly created.
This is in line with Morgans (2007:72 in Mertens, 2015:37) who claims that pragmatists emphasise on the creation of knowledge with ‘lines of action points’ in the form of ‘joint actions’ or ‘projects’ which can be accomplished by the coordination among different people. In addition, pragmatists are keen on ‘the notion of utility’ (Feilzer, 2010:8) and aim to provide the workable and useful results responding to the particular problem being of interest to researchers (Rotty, 1999: xxvi in Feilzer, 2010: 8; Mertens, 2015:37). This is supported by Feilzer (2010: 8) who claim that pragmatists are open to both singular and multiple realities with the orientation toward solving practical problems in the real world. Because of the practical orientation within pragmatism, the value of the research is judged by considering the ‘effectiveness’ (Maxcy, 2003 in Mertens, 2015: 37).

It might be argued that the present study is composed of certain ontological perspectives which are in line with the pragmatic paradigm. Firstly the study stresses the importance of both subjective and objective perceptions held by pre-service teachers of an English teacher education programme. Their perceptions will be taken into account in the data analysis so as to see how the subjective and objective perceptions ‘act together’ to achieve ‘a common goal’ which is to answer research questions of the present study. Secondly, the study has stressed the practical orientation as it is based on the assumption that the perceptions are useful to reflect the degree of the programme effectiveness. Finally, the study emphasises the notion of utility. Their intersubjective worlds and problems are examined for the purpose of the programme evaluation and improvement.

4.2.3. Epistemology

An epistemological question asks what the nature of knowledge and the relationship between the knower and the would-be-known (Sandelowski, 2000: 247; Biddle and Schafft, 2014: 2; Guba and Lincoln, 2005 in Mertens, 2015: 10). From Dewey’s epistemological perspective (Morgan, 2007; Hall, 2013 in Mertens, 2015:38), ‘research takes place in communities’. This is in line with Maxcy (2003 in Biddle and Schafft, 2014:4) who claims that the meaning of knowledge is created in the community.

The epistemological perspective of the present study is presumably in line with the pragmatic approach. Based on the view of social endeavour, the study aims
to understand context of an English teacher education programme, understand a problem and address the problem within the context. In line with pragmatism, I do not believe that a position as a distanced observer will bring the results workable with respect to the problem. I believe that a variety of methods should be employed in order to achieve the research purpose. As a result of this, I interact with the pre-service teachers of the programme through the interviews in order to add my ability to interpret the numeral results from the questionnaires.

4.2.4. Methodology

In relation to the methodological questions, a researcher asks oneself how he/she can gather ‘the desired knowledge and understandings’ (Guba and Lincoln, 2005 in Mertens, 2015:10). Feilzer (2010: 7) and Biddle and Schafft (2014: 7) claim that a pragmatic paradigm is most commonly associated with mixed methods research, in accordance with other scholars (e.g. Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998, 2010; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009; Maxcy, 2003; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Onwuegbuzie and Leech, 2005; Bryman, 2007; Biesta and Burbules, 2010; Denscombe, 2008; Greene, 2008; Greene and Hall, 2010; Johnson and Gray, 2010; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). ‘A convergence of quantitative and qualitative methods’ has grown its reputation among pragmatic researchers (Feilzer, 2010:8). This is due to a methodological question posed by pragmatists about how a phenomenon can be measured or observed if it contains ‘different layers’ (Feilzer, 2010:8). Nonetheless, pragmatists are not always constrained by the mixed methods (Feilzer, 2010:13). In fact, a methodological choice is oriented by the methods’ potential of pursuing the desired consequences. As Feilzer (2010:13) claims, ‘Pragmatists do not “care” which methods they use as long as the methods chosen have the potential of answering what it is one wants to know.’ In line with this, the pragmatic researchers allow themselves to choose a method or methods that ‘work best’ in response to their research questions (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004 in Mertens, 2015: 38) and contribute to the purpose of the research (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2010 in Mertens, 2015:38). In short, the pragmatists choose the methods which match to specific questions (Mertens, 2015:11) in order to obtain data aiming to answer those questions (Feilzer, 2010:14). The methodological notion of the present study is in line with a pragmatic paradigm.
‘Research as a social endeavour’ (Biddle and Schafft, 2014:4) is a rationale for using mixed methods. The rationale stresses the practical orientation and knowledge creation; therefore, the mixed methods are necessary to pursue the answer for each research question and the purpose of the study.

4.2.5. Summary

Section 4.2 presented the origin of the pragmatic paradigm which is concerned about axiology, ontology, epistemology and methodology. The pragmatic paradigm suggests the research design of the research in this thesis as shown in Appendix 1. The axiological perspective of this study shows an ethics of care for Thai pre-service teachers who have enrolled in an English teacher education programme of a university in Bangkok. In terms of the ontological perspective, the present study is not constrained by either singular reality or multiple realities. Rather, it is based on the assumption that singular reality and multiple realities are possible and are uniquely constructed and interpreted by each individual (Mertens, 2015:37). In the pursuit of this assumption, the focus of the study is on investigating the different perceptions held by the pre-service teachers in different year groups. In line with pragmatism, the present study stresses the practical orientation, rather than correspondence of findings realities. Each perception counts and aims for improving their English teacher education programme and shedding light into bilingual teacher education in Thailand.

This ontological position brings about an epistemological view that knowledge exists in the communities and researchers need to interact with people living there to understand and address their problems (Merten, 2015:38). I believe that subjectivism is one of the appropriate approaches to explore and understand multiple explanations and understandings. Moreover, the relationships between the pre-service teachers and their study programme are a subjective experience and the individual perception is worth a respect. As a result of this, I have decided to interact with the student teaches rather than positioned myself as a distanced observed. The interaction will enable me to deeply and clearly understand their context and problems. This is in line with Clarke and Dawson (1999: 39) who claim that researchers necessarily attach themselves to data in order to gain an insight into the participants’ perceptions toward their living experiences.
Pragmatism sheds light on the combination of research approaches in particularly between quantitative and qualitative approaches (Hoshmand, 2003 in Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004:16) based on the view that the two should be combined in a way that ‘offer the best opportunities for answering important research questions’ (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004:16). It is suggested by Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004:17) that when it comes to choose a method or methods, researchers should consider ‘their empirical and practical consequences’. In accordance with my overall belief about pragmatism, the present study is not constrained by either qualitative or quantitative methods. The effectiveness of the research method is taken into the consideration. In short, a method or methods are chosen based on its’ potential of answering the research questions. Based on the research questions, the investigation of the present study obviously involves pre-service teachers (human-beings) and their study programme of English teacher education (the environment). Each research question reflects the pre-service teachers’ perceptions about their teacher education programme in different aspects. Therefore, the convergence of quantitative and qualitative data will support each other and are thus designed to bring about the ‘best results’ for improving the teacher education programme which well prepares its pre-service teachers for teaching in bilingual schools. The most appropriate research method is chosen based on the aim of a particular question. Therefore, the present study employed a mixed methods approach which will be discussed in detail in the following Section (4.3).

4.3. Research Methodology: Mixed-methods Research

Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner (2007: 123) give the definition of the ‘mixed methods research’ as follows:

Mixed methods research is the type of research in which a researcher or team of researchers combines elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches (e.g. use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis, inference techniques) for the broad purposes of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration.

The above definition is in line with the scholars i.e. Mertens (2015: 304) and Dörnyei (2007:44) who state that mixed methods is referred to as the use of both quantitative and qualitative methods to answer research questions in a single study. According to Dörnyei (2007:43), the combination of the two
approaches occurred in the 1970s when the idea of ‘triangulation’ was introduced into the social science. Denzin (1978 in Dörnyei, 2007:43) regards ‘methodological triangulation’ as a tool of ‘validating hypotheses by examining them’ with different methods. Dörnyei (2007:43) explains that Denzin’s (1978) methodological triangulation aims to decrease weaknesses existing in a particular method by counteracting it against the strengths given from another method. This is supported by Clarke and Dawson (1999: 88) who claim, ‘the strengths of one method can be expected to compensate for the weaknesses of another’.

According to Denzin (1978 in Dörnyei, 2007:165), triangulation is referred to the use of different ‘data sources’, ‘investigators’, ‘theories’ and ‘methods’ in order to generate ‘multiple perspectives on a phenomenon’. This view results in listing triangulation into four types as follows: ‘data triangulation’, ‘investigator triangulation’, ‘theory triangulation’ and ‘method triangulation’ (Denzin, 1978 in Brown, 2014:21). Later in 1994, interdisciplinary triangulation was added by Janesick (1994 in Brown, 2014:21), followed by time triangulation and location triangulation suggested by Freeman (1998 in Brown, 2014:21). Finally, perspective triangulation and participant-role triangulation were added by Brown (2014:20). The present study has included two types of triangulation as follows: data triangulation and method triangulation. Data triangulation is referred to as ‘using multiple sources of information’ (Brown 2014:20) and in this study, data were mainly drawn from Thai pre-service teachers in different year groups. In terms of method triangulation, this study has employed two methods i.e. self-report questionnaires and Facebook chats.

Based on the order of employing the quantitative and qualitative methods, there are two options of mixed methods designs i.e. parallel form (quantitative and qualitative data are concurrently collected and analysed), and sequential form (one type of data provides a basis for collection of another type of data), according to Mertens (2015:307). It might be argued that the present study applied both forms. In terms of parallel form, both quantitative and qualitative data are collected and analysed at the same time by using open and closed ended questions contained in the questionnaires. In terms of sequential form, the additional qualitative data are collected through Facebook chats and analysed through content analysis after the data collection and analysis of questionnaire are complete.
Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007: 141) state that using both quantitative and qualitative methods enables researchers to fully interpret the complexity of human behaviour and views. Clarke and Dawson (1999: 88) claim that using different methods will make the researcher confident in the research findings. According to Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004:17), ‘a superior product’ is made of the ‘insights and procedures from both quantitative and qualitative approaches’. Based on its potential use, mixed-methods research design is employed in this present study for greater accuracy measurement. Appendix 1 shows the brief summary of the overall research design for each research procedure.

4.4. Research Methods

Online questionnaires through Google Drive and interviews through Facebook Messenger were employed to answer the research question 1-3 and subsidiary question 2.1 and 1.1 (Table 4.1). The types of instruments (online questionnaires, and Facebook chats), the types of data (quantitative and qualitative data), and data analysis that help answer the questions are shown in Table 4.1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research methods</th>
<th>Data type produced</th>
<th>Questionnaire items</th>
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<th>Research and subsidiary questions (RQs and SQs) to be answered</th>
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<td>1. Questionnaire</td>
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<tr>
<td>1.1 Open questions (OQs)</td>
<td>Word-based data</td>
<td>OQ13, OQ3-4, OQ27, OQ6</td>
<td>Content analysis</td>
<td>RQ1, RQ2, SQ2.1, RQ3</td>
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<td>1.2 Closed questions (CQs)</td>
<td>The nominal data</td>
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<tr>
<td>2 Interviews</td>
<td>Word-base data</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Content analysis</td>
<td>To illuminate and give depth to the questionnaire results for answering RQ1-3 and SQ1.1-2.1</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Table 4.1: Research Methods and Expected Results of Research Questions
4.4.1. Questionnaire

According to Brown (2001:6 in Dörnyei, 2007:102), questionnaires are defined as ‘any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to react either by writing out their answers or selecting from among existing answer’. Dörnyei (2007:101) claims, ‘the results of a questionnaire are typically quantitative, although the instrument may also contain some open ended-question that will require a qualitative analysis.’ Likewise, the questionnaire of the present study is comprised of closed and open-ended questions. Questionnaires yield two types of data about an individual respondent, namely facts and attitudes (Dörnyei, 2007:102). The construction of the questionnaire is show in Appendix 2.

4.4.1.1. Factual Questions

In the present study, the questionnaire consists of 40 questions with two parts i.e. General Information and Your History since You Studied the English Teacher Education Programme (Appendix 3). Within the first part, two factual questions are created in the form of multiple-choice questions to find out about the pre-service teachers’ genders and their year group (question number 1 and 2). The second part is comprised of three sections with a wide range of questions including open-ended questions, multiple-choice questions and rating-scales questions.

4.4.1.2. Attitudinal Questions

The first section is called ‘Your history since you started the English teacher education programme’ and contain attitudinal questions which Dörnyei (2007:102) states that the researchers uses to investigate the participants’ thoughts which is also referred to as ‘attitudes, opinions, beliefs, interests, and values’. Particularly, the questionnaire items in this study are set out to investigate participants’ perceptions of four critical importance to answer RQs and SQs. Firstly, their perceptions about what they are learning (student participants) or learnt (for graduate participants) are investigated through CQ7-12, 14-26 and OQ13 (Appendix 3). CQ7-12 are multiple-choice questions in which the participants choose one of the three options as follows: 1) Yes, I knew this from the programme, 2) I knew this but not from the programme 3) I
never knew this. These questions aim to examine whether they have learned a particular aspect of knowledge from enrolling their programme. At the same time, the multiple-choice questions are used to investigate whether the participants are acquainted with the Ministry’s order in relation to English bilingual education.

CQ14-12 are 5-rating scale questions which are used to investigate the participants’ understanding of requirements of teachers in bilingual schools. The 5 rating scales include 1 as strongly unnecessary, 2 as unnecessary, 3 as neither necessary nor unnecessary, 4 as necessary and 5 as strongly necessary. This range of responses is given to statements beginning with ‘Bilingual teachers (BTs) should be able to’. The rest of each statement is relevant to the skills and knowledge at which the teachers of bilingual programmes are expected to be competent by the Thai Ministry of Education.

OQ13 asks about all qualifications which the research participants consider important to teach bilingual programmes. The responses to all of these questions will indicate to what extent the English teacher education programme enable the participants to understand bilingual education and requirements of teachers and whether their understanding of these regards are in line with the Ministry’s order.

Secondly, their perceptions of the effective of the English teacher education programmes are investigated through OQ3-4 and CQ5 (Appendix 3). OQ3 and OQ4 allow the participants to indicate the knowledge they have gained or have not gained from the English teacher education programme by using their own words (Clarke and Dawson, 1999: 70; Johnson and Turner, 2003: 303; Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007: 321; Dörnyei, 2007: 107) either in English or Thai. Thus, they can provide free responses, apart from the existing answers of CQ5 which provides Rate 1 (being not at all useful) -10 (being very useful) as an indicator of programme effectiveness in preparing them to teach in bilingual schools. This means that I can understand their perceptions from their points of view.

Thirdly, their perceptions of their own competence are examined through OQ27 and CQ28-40 (Appendix 3). OQ27 is asked to investigate factors ensuring that the participants can or cannot teach in bilingual schools. CQ28-39 (5 rating-scale questions) are then asked to investigate to what extent they are confident in the requirements of teachers in bilingual schools established by the Ministry.
CQ40 (a 10 rating-scale question, from 1 being not prepared to 10 being well prepared) is then asked to discover how the participants self-assess, regarding their confidence to teach in bilingual schools. The data from these questions will give a wide picture of the effectiveness of the programme from the participants’ perceptions about their teaching ability and language proficiency. Finally, their perceptions of programme improvement are investigated through OQ6 (Appendix 3).

4.4.1.3. Content of Questions

The content of the closed questions of the questionnaire (CQ7-12,14-26, and 28-39) is drawn from the Thai Ministry of Education’s order, namely WorGor 65/2544 as of 9 October 2001 (Ministry of Education, 2003). This document is written in Thai and regarded as a public document. The document is translated into English because of the participants’ need of exposure to English, according to pilot participants and year group representatives.

Clarke and Dawson (1999:84) give examples of public documents as follows: ‘administrative records held by national and local governments, official statistics and reports of government select committees.’ The document is also freely accessed by visiting the Thai Educational Ministry’s website which is www.moe.go.th. The 10-page document covers the policy, principle and practice for immersion bilingual education in the form of EP and MEP regarding programme management, teaching and learning in the programme and programme evaluation.

Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998:108) have suggested that the researchers should ask themselves two questions about the quality of the document before using it to answer research questions. The first question is whether the data were recorded accurately and the second question is whether the data were kept in their entirety (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998: 109). I found the positive answers for the two questions when deciding to employ the Ministry’s order. In terms of the data accuracy, the Ministry’s order was written by a reliable department of the Thai Ministry of Education and the Ministry’s order is officially used across Thailand. Regarding the second question, the Ministry’s order was inclusive. All the important information is disclosed for both public and private schools in Thailand to follow.
Public documents are also beneficial in terms of its freely available and accessed (Clarke and Dawson, 1999: 84; Cresswell, 2009: 180). This is applied to the Ministry’s order which is on the Ministry’s website where I can access at a convenient time.

Mertens (2015:387) claims that documents are a source of the essential background of the situation and they provide ‘insights into the dynamics of everyday functioning’. This is true for the present study because the Ministry’s order enables me to understand the Thai-English bilingual education in Thailand particularly regarding the policies and guidelines of operating a bilingual programme and recruiting teachers for the programme. In addition, the Ministry’s order provides a valuable source of teacher’s qualities from the Ministry’s perspective. Without knowledge of those teacher qualities, it might be impossible for me to fully understand the situation of Thai-English bilingual education in these regards.

Patton (2002: 294) defines documents as ‘stimulus for paths of inquiry that can be pursued only through direct observation and interviewing. Patton’s (2002) claim is partly applicable to the present study because the Ministry’s order is a source of information for me to create the questionnaire items relevant to the context of the study. Through these questions, the pre-service teachers will hopefully disclose their understandings about the bilingual education, their perceptions towards teacher requirements, and their perceptions towards the effectiveness of their teacher education programme in terms of preparing them for achieving these requirements.

4.4.1.4. Concept of Questions and Answers

The questions applied in the second part of the questionnaire are called ‘retrospective methods’ within Elliott’s (2005) concept of narrative which aim to recall and record the participants’ past experience. According to Elliot (2005), this type of questions is constructed with reference to the time of event. For this research study, the time of events is from the beginning until the present (for the student participants) or the end (for the graduate participants) of studying the programme. The concept of the time of events is to facilitate them to catch their memories of learning the English teacher education programme and put their view in a chronological event which is since, during and after they enrolled in the programme. Through the retrospective methods, the participants are able to
recall what they learnt or have learnt from the programme and how they feel about the programme during their study or after the completion of the programme. This is in line with Clarke and Dawson (1999: 69) who claim that a questionnaire should consist of questions that ‘follow in a logical sequence’. In addition, the questionnaire is created based on the consideration of its length which should not be too long and the use of easy-to-follow instructions and clear wording of the questions (Clarke and Dawson, 1999: 69).

4.4.1.5. **Formats of Questions and Answers**

Three forms of questions applied in the questionnaire include multiple-choice, open-ended, rating-scales questions. This is in line with ‘intra-method mixing’ defined by Johnson and Turner (2003: 298) as ‘the concurrent or sequential use of a single method that includes both quantitative and quantitative components’.

For the present study, it is the concurrent use in the way that both open- and closed-ended questions are used in a single questionnaire (Johnson and Turner, 2003: 298).

The closed-questions used in the present study are in the form the multiple-choice questions and five-rating scale questions. They are drawn from the Ministry’s order in relation to of English bilingual education system in Thailand and its respective teacher requirements. To complete the closed questions, the participants are asked to tick only one response from the list. The multiple-choice questions (CQ7-12) are designed to capture the participants’ views on the English bilingual education system. Only three choices are given to the participants for selecting one of them because it is advisable that the response should be most closely represents the respondents’ view (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007: 324). The results of the multiple-choice questions provide the descriptive statistics which indicate the percentages of the known and the unknown issues relevant to the policies of bilingual education in Thailand (on the whole group and among each year group of the pre-service teachers and graduate participants).

A Likert scale is applied in the questionnaire. The participants are asked to choose one of five responses in correspondence to the given statements and questions in relation to the respective teacher requirements. This is supported by Codó (2008:173) who states, ‘The five-point scale covers a broad enough range of answers.’ The numbers are employed and clearly indicated what each
of them stands for as suggested by Codó (2008:173). In this questionnaire, a semantic differential is also applied to CQ5 and CQ40. According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007:326), ‘it is a variation of a rating scale’. The two questions are designed for participant to evaluate how useful their programme is and self-evaluate to what extent they prepared for teaching bilingual programmes. They are operated by putting an adjective ‘not at all useful’ (CQ5) and ‘not prepared’ (CQ40) at the left end of a scale of ten and the opposite adjectives i.e. ‘very useful’ and ‘well prepared’ at the right end.

These closed questions aim to help the research participants become aware of the Education Ministry’s order related to those two issues. The responses of these questions will inform me of the participants’ awareness of teaching knowledge and language proficiency required by the Ministry. Through their self-evaluation, I can understand whether the participants obtain the knowledge and skills in line with the Ministry’s order from their teacher education programme. In other words, the outcomes imply to what extent the programme is supportive in regard to prepare the participants for teaching a bilingual programme. The closed questions can generate frequencies of responses (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007: 321) which are easy and quick to code up and analyse (Bailey, 1994 in Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007: 321). For example, the summary of frequency will show the proportion of skills and knowledge which the participants are most and least confident. The outcomes imply to what extent the programme is supportive in regard to prepare the research participants for teaching a bilingual programme. However, these outcomes are based on my preconceptions drawn from the Ministry’s order. Thus, the open-ended questions are employed in this questionnaire due to the reason that the new information which might have been missed with completely closed-ended questions can be disclosed and give important implications of the research questions.

Clarke and Dawson (1999: 70) suggest that researchers should ‘keep open questions to a minimum’. This supported by the scholars e.g. Clarke and Dawson (1999: 70) and Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007: 322) who claim that the respondents have to spend more time in entering an open response and this discourages the respondents to complete the question. Thus, the questionnaire of the present study contains five open-ended questions. Sentence-completion is applied to question number 3 and 4. Based on
Dörnyei’s (2007:107) experience, a meaningful answer is effectively elicited by using this type of question, rather than using a simple question. For the present study, the respondents are asked to complete two unfinished sentences (OQ3 and OQ4) for example, ‘Since you enrolled this English teacher education programme, the essential skills for working as a teacher in bilingual school which you have receive from the programme are…’ Specific open questions are applied to OQ6 and OQ27. According to Dörnyei (2007: 107), ‘concrete pieces of information’ are provided by asking this type of question. Through specific open questions, preferences are disclosed (Dörnyei, 2007: 107) when the respondents complete the question ‘What can the programme do to increase the rate of usefulness?’ (OQ6). Moreover, facts are revealed when they complete the question, ‘what makes you think you can/cannot teach bilingual programmes?’ (OQ27). An open-ended question with prompts is applied to OQ13, ‘Indicate all qualifications important for you to work in an English programme or mini English programme’. According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007: 330), this type of question is useful as it supports the respondents in a way that they are informed of ‘the kind of reply being sought’. The wide implementation of questionnaire instruments is due to the fact that they are considerably ‘easy to construct’, ‘extremely versatile’ (Dörnyei, 2007: 101) and capable of collecting and producing a large amount of (quantitative) data (Clarke and Dawson, 1999: 69; Dörnyei, 2007:101). With the questionnaire, the participants’ understanding and perceptions about the English bilingual education system in Thailand and its respective teacher requirement, in accordance with the Ministry of Education are compared within the whole group and within a particular year group. However, the information obtained by questionnaires is ‘the first step of data collection,’ according to Codó (2008: 171). A questionnaire provides a general picture of information under a researcher’s investigation and for further step of research activities (Codó, 2008: 171). It is obvious that the questionnaire used in the present study mostly offers numerical response format. The nominal scale data obtained from the multiple choice and rating-scales questions are to make a comparison across groups in the sample (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007: 321). Through the questionnaire of the present study, the participants can indicate how strongly they agree or disagree with the given statements. However, they are not given an opportunity to explain the reasons for their choice with this
method. Thus, the semi-standardised open-ended interviews are carried out in order to enter into the programme participants’ perspectives and find out their feelings, thoughts and intentions towards their choices.

4.4.2. Interviews


Dörnyei, (2007:136) states researchers conduct the semi-structured interviews when they have ‘a good enough overview of the phenomenon’ which enables them to prepare ‘broad questions’ about it beforehand in order to receive ‘the depth and breadth of the respondents’ story’ (Dörnyei, 2007:136). This interview type is appropriate for the present study as I know the pre-service English teachers’ perceptions through the questionnaires and have to further investigate the reasons for their perceptions about their programme and themselves.

For the present study, the two broad questions, as listed below, are prepared in advance. The two questions are not necessarily to be asked in the same order or wording (Dörnyei, 2007:136) and this was applied in the interview sessions with my interviewees. The question 1 and 2 were asked in the different orders dependent on the interviewees’ choice.

1. Why did you give yourself ‘…’⁶ for the readiness of working in a bilingual school?

2. What experiences have you had that gave you the belief that you are well prepared/ not prepared for working in a bilingual school?

The two questions might be asked in the different wording when clarifications were needed and various probes were used. According to Dörnyei (2007:136), the main questions would be supplemented by using various probes during conducting the semi-structured interviewers. Probes may be in the form of the question oriented to detail and clarification (Dörnyei, 2007:138). In addition, probes may include mentioning what was said by the interviewees ‘as a starting

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⁶The rate which each participant marks in the question number 40 of the questionnaire
point to go further and to increase the richness and depth of the response’ (Dörnyei, 2007:138).

Patton (2002: 346) states that the standardised open-ended interviews allow the participants to answer the questions with their own words. With their own words, the pre-service teachers participated in the present study will be able to freely share their experiences of studying their programme which imply the programme effectiveness as well as shed light on programme improvement. The open-ended questions are appropriate for collecting qualitative data. According to Patton (2002: 353), this type of question does not predetermine responses. Patton (2002: 354) claims that the interviewees are allowed to ‘take whatever direction and use whatever words they want to express…’

4.4.3. Computer-mediated Communication

In the present study, the questionnaire survey was carried out through Google Drive and the interview is carried out through Facebook Messenger. Mann and Stewart (2000: 2) call internet communication ‘computer-mediated communication’ (CMC) and regard it as an acceptable method for researching online. Mann and Stewart (2000: 17) state that CMC is a practical way to collect data from the participants ‘who are geographically distant.’ Google Drive and Facebook Messenger appear to be beneficial to the present study in this regard in which the participants are living in Bangkok, Thailand, while I am living in Exeter, UK.

Mann and Stewart (2000: 18) point out that the online environment through CMC has the potential to facilitate the participants to openly speak about sensitive issues, unlike face-to-face (FTF) questionnaire or interview in which fear of judgement or shyness might be occurred. This potential seems to be very important for the present study in which the participants are asked to discuss and evaluate openly the English teacher education programme which might be involved with criticising the programme instructors.

4.4.3.1. Questionnaire through Google Drive

Google Drive is a web-page-based survey which provides practical advantages to conduct the mix-method research in this thesis. Mann and Stewart (2000: 70) states that a web-page-based survey comprises texts, colours, and graphics which help create an attractive questionnaire. The function for formatting texts,
colours and graphics appears in Google Drive which makes the questionnaire of interest to the participants in the present study. According to Mann and Stewart (2000: 70), a web-page-based survey also facilitates the participants to complete it with ease. To complete the questionnaire, the participants in the present study just choose predefined responses from the lists (CQs) or enter text in boxes (OQs) and then simply clicking a ‘Submit’ button. Mann and Stewart (2000: 70) point out that the technical knowledge is required to create the survey. However, I find Google Drive completely user-friendly. Google Drive contains ready-made graphics, question formats and response formats which I just choose by simply clicking. For the present study, I have chosen a ‘work and school’ theme for questionnaire banner and background which gives an attraction appearance to the online questionnaire. Question formats and response formats are straightforward with the terms e.g. multiple choice, check boxes, drop down, linear scale, short answer, paragraph, etc. The questionnaire created through Google Drive can be sent in different formats: email, link, or embedded HTML through different social networks: Google+, Facebook and Twitter. Google Drive also accumulates and analyses all of the responses to the questionnaire. It might be argued that Google Drive is an effective programme for creating the questionnaire and collecting data for the present study.

4.4.3.2. Interviews through Facebook Messenger

Facebook Messenger helps collect data through chats also called Facebook chats in the present study. According to Mann and Stewarts (2000: 11), ‘Chat is a generic term for real-time communication, in which messages are written or read at the same time, by using computers and networks.’ Mann and Stewart (2000: 11) explain that all messages sent to a chat room through pressing the ‘Enter’ key appear to be a conversation flow which is visible to everyone in the chat room. Mann and Stewart (2000: 24) state that CMC is participant friendly. For the present study, participants find Facebook Messenger as a form of CMC convenient, quick and available. Mann and Stewart (2000: 21) point out that CMC has potential to reduce time and travel, which increases participation rates. This potential is beneficial to the present study in which both participants and I are living in different continents. Mann and Stewart (2000: 24) indicate
that connections between individuals even in an environment of their own choice become rapid through CMC. The benefit appears in the present study in which the participant can participate in Facebook chats at their convenience from their own home. Mann and Stewart (2000: 22) point out that budget for recording equipment, transcribing equipment and transcription costs is not required for conducting research through CMC. This benefit appears in the present study in which Facebook chats produce a complete script which is immediately available for analysis (Appendix4). According to Mann and Stewart (2000: 22), the accuracy of data can be checked by the participants and the accountability to the data can be demonstrated by the researchers with complete scripts. This benefit seems to strengthen the reliability of the present study.

There are considerable difficulties with semi-structured interviews whether working online or FTF e.g. gain access to participants, make initial contact, give a rationale for the research, build trust/credibility, give clear instructions about the interview process, etc. (Mann and Stewart, 2000: 77). These difficulties were managed by following the careful procedures which will be discussed in Section 4.6.3. However, a difficulty with the semi-structure interview through Facebook Messenger of the present study includes unstable internet connection for the whole period of the interview session with one of the participants. This resulted in setting up another session of the interview.

4.5. Research Setting and Participants

The research setting was at a university in Bangkok, Thailand which henceforth will be referred to as Star University (pseudonym). The major reason for selecting the university was its reputation of teacher education. Most of pre-service teachers majoring in English graduated from Star University have been given a teaching position right away after graduation. The second reason was the possibility of access.

There were 37 research participants who completed the questionnaires and 17 of them attended an individual interview (Table 4.2) in the age range 18-26. I aimed to recruit a larger sample, but there were several limitations related to the participants’ availability, and the time frame of field work.

The Star University is located in Bangkok; however, its students are from other provinces across Thailand. I travelled to Bangkok and invited the pre-service
teachers and the graduates to participate in the present study in March 2013. Unfortunately, it was non-term time and most of students and graduates returned to their hometowns. They would not return to Bangkok until August when I myself have to return to Exeter. Data collection coincides with term-time, and the prospective participants were away during the period I was there. This led to online data collection on volunteer sampling basis.

The additional challenge relates to the change of curriculum for my study, I included graduates because they experience the entire 2004 curriculum and current pre-service teachers as they are familiar with the 2012 curriculum.

The dean of the school of education arranged a meeting for me with the representatives of the pre-service teachers in each year group at the faculty where I also met the graduates. During the meeting, I introduced myself and informed them the purposes of the research study and the activities which I would like the research participants to involve with. The representatives received my email address and they gave theirs. We contacted each other through email. I emailed the link of the questionnaire to them for passing to the rest of the pre-service teachers in their own year group.

Table 4.2: The Summary of the Participants (N=37)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year Groups</th>
<th>Male Participants (Pseudonyms)</th>
<th>Female Participants (Pseudonyms)</th>
<th>Curriculum experience</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Y2 (n=5)</td>
<td>Atichart* and Patchata*</td>
<td>Baifern*, Yayaying* and Susira</td>
<td>2012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Y3 (n=8)</td>
<td>Canin, Niroot, and Swiss</td>
<td>Jensuda*, Mint*, Pichaya*, Ramida, and Zakonrat</td>
<td>2004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Y4 (n=1)</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Yosawadee (F)</td>
<td>2004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G49 (n=9)</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Pat*, Anne, Aum, Khemupsorn, Margie, Taew, Taksaorn, Tanya, and Woonsen</td>
<td>2004</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: A star (*) refers to the research participants who participated in Facebook chats (N=17).

I indicated each year group by using ‘Y’ for pre-service teachers and ‘G’ for the graduates followed by a number. For example, the Y2 was referred to as a pre-service teacher in year 2 and G49 means about a graduate with an id beginning
with 49. As can be seen in Table 4.2, there are 14 pre-service teachers and 23 graduates majoring in English. They have studied and graduated from the Education Faculty of Star University (pseudonym). The Education Faculty of Star University made minor revisions to the curriculum every five years. As such, the pre-service teachers in year 3, year 4 and the graduates have experienced the slightly different curriculum with a modular course system in terms of learning outcomes, contents and managements. Moreover, the modular course system replaced the traditional university system in 2012. As such, only the pre-service teachers in year 2 have experienced the curriculum 2012 while the remainder of them (have) learnt the curriculum 2004. The graduate participants have obtained a teaching position as an English teacher in both public and private schools throughout Thailand. For example, all graduates with their Grade Point Average GPA over 3 were offered by the Government a teaching position after graduation and have subsequently worked as an English teacher in public schools across the country. The rest of the graduates either took a professional test which is arranged once a year in order to teach in public schools or applied for a teaching job in private schools. The differences between the 2004 and 2012 curriculum relate to shorter lecture hours and more courses given in the traditional university system (the 2012 curriculum), as presented in Chapter 2 (Section 2.5).

In this present study, a non-probability sample was taken with no attempts of generalisation. According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007:110), in the non-probability sample, ‘some members of the wider population definitely will be excluded and other definitely included’. The pre-service teachers in year 1 are not included because this group has no experience of either the curriculum 2004 or the curriculum 2012. In addition, the pre-service teachers in year 5 are not included either due to the concern of participation commitment. The schedules of the year 5 group are different from that of the other participants. Their schedules depend mainly on school sites where they are placed. Among these schools, activities during term time such as exams and sport days are arranged on different days depending on schools’ calendar. Apart from their involvement with these activities, they need to prepare themselves for the assessment of their teaching practices which are at least three times in one semester. Moreover, each of them has the assessment on different days.
Table 4.2 also presents the interviewees marked by an asterisk (*) behind the pseudonym. Each interview was conducted for approximately a two-hour length through Facebook Messenger. During the interviews, the 17 interviewees selected the language of interviews i.e. English, Thai or both. This allowed me to draw a rich picture of the specific context of research and enabled me to understand that context in depth. The interviewees examined their personal experiences and disclosed their experience of studying the teacher education programme in English, the story of internships at their school sites as well as teaching experience in their own classrooms.

I am aware of the possible impact on the process of eliciting the data and interpreting the findings due to my position as the researcher who has also been a teacher in the Star University, and had taught some of the research participants. In terms of the process of eliciting the data, the participants would probably position me as an insider who shared with them the experience of using the curriculum implemented in the English teacher education programme of the Star University. Young (2004: 187 in Al-Natour, 2009: 1) pointed out that the insider status enables researchers to gain the participants’ trust. As a teacher in the Star University, I am able to understand the participants because I know about the context of the study. This is likely to make the participants more open with me and provide a greater depth of the data gathered.

However, I myself would position as a partial outsider who listens to the participants with an open mind (Asselin, 2003 in Dwyer and Buckle, 2009: 55).

In other words, I assume that I do not know anything about the curriculum and instruction of the English teacher education programme being studied. This is required in order to elicit the data as much as possible. Being a former teacher can also pose challenges, for instance, it might be possible that only the positive answers are given in order to please me as the participants' teacher. In terms of the data collection process, it is suggested that the participants should be given ‘a level of safety and comfort’ (Watson, 1999 in Dwyer and Buckle, 2009: 58). In the present study, the level of safety and comfort was maintained through having each participant complete the questionnaire and attend the interview online. In addition to this, the confidentiality and anonymity were assured in this way.

The partial outsider status is also beneficial to interpret the findings. This status enables me to separate my own experience of the curriculum and instruction in
the English teacher education programme from that of the participants. As a partial outsider with some distance and an open mind, I could improve my ability to interpret the findings. Keeping this status in mind, I become aware that I do not have any experience of the English teacher education programme, regarding the curriculum and instruction, as a learner. With this awareness, I appreciated and analysed all data gathered which helps me answer the research questions.

4.6. Data Collection

This section includes the detail of piloting the questionnaire and interview (Section 4.6.1). It is then followed by presenting the procedures of collecting data from the questionnaire (Section 4.6.2) and interview (Section 4.6.3).

4.6.1. Piloting Questionnaire and Interviews

The questionnaire and interview were piloted by five graduates of Star University (pseudonym) in March to September 2013. I considered the five graduates as similar to the actual sample of the present study in terms of their learning experience in the teacher education programme of Star University. These graduates completed the English teacher education programme from the university which is the research setting of this study. All of them experienced the 2004 curriculum and were taught by the same lecturers. They were initially given the questionnaire in English and complete it in their own time. After completing, we met again and discussed how they felt during doing the questionnaire. Some respondents claimed that there should be the translation into Thai for certain proper names or phrases i.e. the Basic Education Curriculum, the Thai context harmonising international-being, the issues of loyalty to local, national and Thai identity, and the issues of ethic, ethos and values. The pilot group were exhausted from the wide range of choices when answering the multiple-choice questions. Then I revised the questionnaire in the light of their comments and created the online questionnaire. The same group of graduates were asked to complete the online questionnaire which was individually sent to them through email. They reported that the questionnaire link was active and they could complete the revised questionnaire at more ease. The two main interview questions (Section 4.4.2) were piloted to gain feedback on the type of questions and to check the time taken for the interview. They
stated that they preferred to interview through Facebook Messenger which permitted them either to type or to talk when answering the interview questions. Each interview lasted for approximately one to one hour and a half. They informed me that the flow of the interviews made the interviews interesting and the probes permitted them to comfortably answer the interview questions. After piloting, I implemented all of the comments from the pilot participants with the actual participants. English was used as the language of interview because some interviewees would like to practice speaking and writing in English. However, Thai was also used when the questions were unclear to them and when they would like to make their answers clearer.

4.6.2. Administering Online Questionnaire

It is suggested that the questionnaire should be delivered with a covering letter explaining the purpose of this research study (Clarke and Dawson, 1999:69), its importance, and the reason that they have been selected (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007: 339). Following this suggestion, the questionnaires were delivered with a covering letter explaining the purpose of the research as well as the contact numbers and address of mine and my supervisor (Appendix 3). In the letter, the participants are also informed of an assurance of confidentiality and anonymity (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007:340). The questionnaire link was posted on three Facebook Groups in accordance with the groups of the graduates. The three Facebook Groups were established by themselves for maintaining the close contact with each other after their graduation. I am one of the members in these three groups. The groups are closed and will remain active after the completion of the present study. For the pre-service teachers in year 2 to 4, the questionnaire link had to be sent to the representatives of the pre-service teachers whom I met in March 2013. The representatives received the questionnaire link from me through either an email or Facebook Timeline. Then they passed the link to rest of the pre-service teachers in their year group. The completed questionnaires were automatically sent back to My Google Drive account.

4.6.3. Administering Online Interview

The interviews were carried out from July to August 2013. After completing the questionnaire, each of the research participants who had given a consent to the
interview through Facebook chats received an email to confirm the date and time of the interview. Some of them were not able to attend the online interview and some of them did not reply to the email. Finally, there were 17 interviewees which included the pre-service teachers in year 2 (n=4), year 3 (n=3), graduates in year 2013 (n=9) and year 2011 (n=1). All of the interviewees were given the interview questions beforehand. The interviews lasted from one to one hour and a half. The online interviews were operated by using Facebook Messenger and took place at the individual’s convenience. Each interview got started with a personal conversation to put the interviewee at ease. It is supported by (Dörnyei, 2007:137) who claim the first few questions about ‘the interviewees’ family and job’ can establish an interview tone and ‘create initial rapport’. With these questions, the interviewees ‘feel competent’ and relaxed and consequently ‘open’ about their views (Dörnyei, 2007:137).

Moreover, all of the interviewees were informed of the nature and the purpose of the interview. They agreed that Thai and English were the language of the interview. They preferred typing the messages to video chat. They were also informed of confidentiality of the research participants for them to feel secure to talk freely. Then I moved on to my interview questions. Probes and follow-up questions were used during the interview. Patton (2002: 372) regards probes as the tool ‘to deepen the response to a question.’ This becomes clear when Peranee (an interviewee’s pseudonym) was asked to provide the reasons for the readiness of working in a bilingual school; she only mentioned the types of experience which she has considered important for teaching bilingual programme. Then I said, “That’s helpful. I’d appreciate a bit more detail.” By this probe, she provided me with the nature of her students whom she taught and finally claimed that serving the internship is the most valuable experience. According to Patton (2002: 372), the response is more rich and deep when probes are applied. It is obvious when Piyada (the pseudonym of an interviewee) states that her accent is not good. After I asked, ‘how did that come about’, she provided me with a detailed picture of her speaking class. Patton (2002: 372) also states that the interviewee will receive a cue for ‘the level of response that is desired’. This scaffolding appears relevant when Piyada expresses a need for support in improving her accent and pronunciation of English. My follow-up question is who should be involved. Her replied is both Thai and native English teachers of her speaking class and she also described
the strengths and weaknesses of learning English with Thai and native English teachers. When all the main questions were asked, I asked the final closing questions suggested by Dörnyei (2007:138) on the basis that these questions allow the interviewees ‘to have the final to say’ to ensure that I have not missed asking an important questions. These questions are for example ‘Is there anything else you would like to add?, What should I have asked you that I didn’t think to ask?’ given by Dörnyei (2007:138). At the end of each interview, I explained all of the interviewees the use to be made of the data and the ethical issues. They understood that the pseudonyms will be used throughout the paper and that the interview scripts and interpretations will be reviewed by them before getting published.

4.7. Mixed-methods Data Analysis

The strategies chosen for data analysis in this mixed method research are data cleaning, data reduction and data transformation (Greene, 2007: 144-145). Data cleaning involves the deletion of suspicious or irrelevant data (Green, 2007: 145). This also includes keeping the type of data for revision purpose at a later time (Green, 2007: 145). The present study involves data reduction and data transformation. Data reduction appears through analysing and reducing the raw data to 'descriptive form' e.g. frequencies, descriptive statistics, descriptive themes, etc. (Green, 2007:145). For the present study, frequencies are a form of analysing the closed responses of questionnaires and descriptive themes which were applied during the analysis of the open-ended responses of questionnaires and interviews. Data transformation is referred to as 'the conversion of one data type into the other' (Greene, 2007:146). This present study has quantified the qualitative data by following Cresswell (2009: 218) who explains that quantifying the qualitative data can be done by the creation of ‘codes’ and ‘themes’ focusing on their frequency of appearance in the texts. In doing so, the comparison between quantitative and qualitative data can be made (Cresswell, 2009: 218).

Data transformation can be in the form of data consolidation/merging (Greene, 2007:146) which is applied to this present study. According to Greene (2007: 146), data consolidation involves the co-revision between both qualitative and quantitative data types for creating ‘consolidate’ datasets (Greene, 2007:146). For the present study, the quantitative data from closed questions and the
qualitative data from open questions are brought into support each other. Particularly the qualitative data from open questions illuminates and gives depth to the data gained from quantitative data in order to effectively answer research questions.

The present study analysed the quantitative data through descriptive statistics with the help of SPSS and the qualitative data through content analysis which are discussed in Section 4.7.1 and 4.7.2.

4.7.1. Quantitative Analysis of Questionnaire Data: SPSS

Nominal data obtained from the questionnaire is analysed by using SPSS. The nominal data denotes the categories e.g. genders (CQ1), year groups (CQ2), sources of learning about bilingual education (CQ7-12), the requirements of teachers in bilingual schools (CQ14-26), etc. For example, as in CQ1, 1 means ‘male’, 2 means ‘female’ and 3 means ‘prefer not to answer’. The 5-point rating scale is applied to CQ14-26 with 1 being strongly unnecessary to 5 being strongly necessary and CQ28-39 with 1 being strongly disagree to 5 strongly agree. The 10-point rating scale is applied to CQ5 with 0 being not useful at all to 10 being very useful and CQ40 with 0 being not well prepared at all to 10 very well prepared. The non-parametric data derived from the close-ended questions describe the statistics in the form of summary frequencies such as the mode, range, minimum scores and maximum scores. The data are displayed in a simple cross-tabulation and graphs.

4.7.2. Content Analysis

The content analysis was carried out to analyse open-ended responses gained from the questionnaires (question number 3, 4, 6, 13 and 27) and the interviews. According to Dörnyei (2007: 245), ‘content analysis involves the counting of instances of words, phrases, or grammatical structures that fall into specific categories’. Based on the definition, its analytical process comprises four phases: (1) transcribing the data, (2) pre-coding and coding, (3) growing ideas and (4) interpreting data and drawing conclusions (Dörnyei, 2007: 246). For the present study, the first process was dismissed because data gained from the interview were originally written texts. In terms of coding in the present study, all codes were not predetermined but derived inductively during analysing the data. This is how a researcher can be ‘faithful to the data’ (Manion
According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007: 478), ‘a code is a word or abbreviation sufficiently close to that which it is describing for the research to see at a glance what it means’. For example, the codes and sub-codes employed for responses to OQ13 (RQ1) of this present study comprise ‘The basic education curriculum’, ‘English as a medium of instruction’, ‘Cooperation between Thai and foreign teachers’, ‘Qualifications’, ‘English proficiency’, ‘Codes of conduct for teachers’, ‘Pedagogy’ and ‘Being bilingual’ (Chapter 5, Figure 5.1). Following Hammersley and Atkinson (1983:177-8 in Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007: 478), I read and reread all the word-based data. All interesting and surprising contents were noted. This is in line with the ‘growing ideas’ phase by Dörnyei (2007:254) who states that this phase happens alongside coding and it is referred to as making notes of ‘all thoughts and ideas that come to mind’ during conducting the coding. This enabled me to be familiar with the data (Hammersley and Atkinson, 1983:177-8 in Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007: 478) and to ensure that all codes were consistent and refined (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007: 478). Interpreting the data and drawing conclusion relate to pinpointing major themes (Druckman, 2005: 258). The codes emerged in the responses to OQ13 indicate the participants’ understanding which comprise two key themes: their understanding of bilingual education and their understanding of the requirements of teachers in bilingual schools in Thailand. Dörnyei’s (2007: 245) process of content analysis is applied to the rest of open questions and interview scripts.

4.8. Ethical Considerations

A consent form was given to the Dean of the Education Faculty, Star University together with the Certificate of Ethical Research Approval from Graduate School of Education, University of Exeter (Appendix 5 and 6). She was informed of the research objectives as well as the potential consequences for the faculty and the research participants. Likewise, the participants gave their consent before involving with all research activities. They understood their role and that they are free to withdraw from the research study at any time.

The university had recently changed its term time corresponding to other universities and schools across ASEAN nations. In the 2013 academic year, the first term starts on August 5th and ends on December 15th for the pre-service
teachers from year 1 to 3. They will take a mid-term exam from September 30th to October 4th and final exam from November 2nd to December 6th. For the pre-service teachers in year 4, the first term starts on 10th June and ends 16th October. Their mid-term exam starts July 31st to August 2nd while final exam starts September 27th to October 4th. To avoid causing any stress to the participants, data collection will not be conducted during the period of mid-term and final exam. The participants will be also free from involvement in all research activities in order to prepare themselves for the examination. Pre-service teachers in year 2 and 3 will complete online questionnaires and interviews from August 22nd to September 14th. Year 4 pre-service teachers will complete the two research activities from June 17th to July 17th. At this stage, I work closely with the participants to avoid misinterpretation in the unlikely case that this might cause any harm to them. Moreover, any negative perspectives of the course might resonate with the quality of English teacher education programme especially teaching quality. This may cause dissatisfied relationships with instructors as well as the institution or have a negative impact on instructors’ performance evaluation. Therefore, the participants’ names as well as the name of the teachers, schools and university mentioned during the data collection process will not be disclosed to any of these parties. No research data will be given to unauthorised persons. The data will be stored in my personal computer and there is a password to access all of this information.

4.9. Summary

This chapter has outlined the research design and described the research procedure used in detail. A mixed-method approach was adopted in an attempt to fill a gap in the literature that called for the evaluation of the effectiveness of the English teacher education programme in preparing the pre-service English teachers to teach in bilingual schools. Moreover, the research design also focused on a triangulated approach to data collection on the basis of time and methods i.e. online questionnaire through Google Drive and online interviews through Facebook Messenger to allow a comprehensive analysis of the research questions. Online questionnaire was selected as the primary tool for gathering data. The data from the online questionnaire was supplemented by the semi-structure interviews through Facebook Chats. Closed questions were
analysed into descriptive analysis (frequency and percentage) through SPSS while open questions were analysed into themes by using content analysis. Data validity and reliability were achieved through the adaptation of a triangulated approach. Finally, effort was made to ensure the integration of ethical consideration into the research process.
5.1. Introduction

Chapter Four identified the methodologies that were selected to empirically investigate the research propositions. A report of the findings resulting from self-report questionnaires and Facebook chats is presented in this chapter. The findings respond to the research questions posed in this thesis:

Research question 1: To what extent do Thai pre-service teachers of English understand the English bilingual education system in Thailand and respective teacher requirements?

Inherent in the research question 1 is the assumption that Thai pre-service teachers’ understanding of the English bilingual education system in Thailand and respective teacher requirements are similar to the Education Ministry’s order in these regards. The notion of ‘similarity’ supposes that the English teacher education programme is considered effective in providing the information needed in the English bilingual education system and the teacher requirements which the Ministry expects the pre-service teachers to know for work in bilingual schools. This notion is explored in the subsidiary question:

Subsidiary question 1.1: To what extent does the participants’ understanding of bilingual education system and related teacher requirements reflect Ministry guidelines as expressed in the Ministry’s order number Wor Gor 65/2544 as of 9 October 2001?

Research question 2: To what extent do Thai pre-service teachers in a (English) teacher education programme in Thailand feel their course prepares them to teach English in bilingual schools?

Inherent in the research question 2 is the assumption that the participants’ reflections on their own competences and skills are an indicator of the programme effectiveness. This means that the self-reflections on teacher requirements stated in the Ministry’s order recognise to what extent the English teacher education programme is effective in enabling the individual participants to develop the competences and skills essential for work in bilingual schools. The participants’ self-reflections are explored in the subsidiary question 2.1:

Subsidiary question 2.1: To what extent do the participants feel they are well-prepared to teach English in bilingual schools?
Research question 3: In what way do Thai pre-service teachers of English believe their programme should be improved in order to sufficiently prepare them to teach English in bilingual schools?

The research data were collected from the pre-service English teachers (N=37) of an English teacher education programme in Bangkok, Thailand (Section 4.5). The online questionnaire through Google Drive and the semi-structured interviews through Facebook Messengers (Chats) were utilised to investigate these questions. Quantitative results were collected from the data through the closed questions (CQs) of the questionnaires. These CQs were designed for the subsidiary questions, that is, to ascertain whether or not the English education programme had provided the participants with the information concerning English bilingual education system and enabled them to develop skills vital to work in bilingual schools, in accordance with the Ministry’s order. The central questions were qualitative in nature; therefore, the open questions (OQs) of the questionnaires and the Facebook chats were used to address these questions. The original Thai quotes will be illustrated together with the translation to make their bilingualism visible.

5.2. Research Question 1

In this section, the findings relating to Thai pre-service teachers’ understanding of the English bilingual education system in Thailand and respective teacher requirements (RQ1) are reported. How their understanding reflects Ministry guidelines as expressed in the Ministry’s order number Wor Gor 65/2544 as of 9 October 2001 (SQ1.1) are also presented.

As a first step, the deductive analysis (themes, categories and codes) was used to analyse the responses to the open question 13 (OQ13) to identify to what extent Thai pre-service teachers understand the English bilingual education system in Thailand and respective teacher requirements (RQ1). Each participant’s responses were codified, categorised and thematised, as illustrated in a codes-to-themes model (Figure 5.1). As a second step, the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to calculate frequencies for closed questions (CQ) which indicated relationships between the participants’ understanding and the Ministry guidelines (SQ1.1) in relation to the English bilingual education system in Thailand (CQ7-12) and respective teacher
requirements (CQ14-26). As a third step, findings from the Facebook-chat data are added for further illustrative evidence and depth.

5.2.1. Bilingual Education System in Thailand

RQ1 illustrates the participants’ understandings of the system of Thai English bilingual education through three codes: the Basic Education Curriculum, English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI), and the Cooperation between Thai and Foreign (Native English) Teachers (Figure 5.1, 1-3) and their understanding of requirements of teachers in bilingual schools through five codes: Qualifications, English Proficiency, Codes of Conducts for Teachers, Pedagogy and Being Bilingual (Figure 5.1, 4-8).

This section illustrates their understandings of the English bilingual education system presented through nine quotes which was codified into three codes as mentioned above. Sub-codes were not established for the nine quotes because the three codes captured the quotes and were sufficient to represent the category which the quotes covered. However, sub-codes will be applied to illustrate the participants’ understanding of requirements of teachers in bilingual schools which will be explained and presented in Section 5.2.2.

I will use the nine quotes from Open Question (OQ) 13 to illustrate each code relating to the participants’ understanding of the English bilingual education system in Thailand. First, Anut (G51) was the only participant who perceived that teaching bilingual programmes was based on the national basic education curriculum.

‘Bilingual teachers plan lessons to meet curriculum goals and objectives in order to provide education opportunities to all students.’ Anut (G51)

Second, five participants, Patchata (Y2), Atichart (Y2), Susira (Y2), Ploy (G51), and Canin (Y3) perceived EMI as a component of bilingual education in Thailand:

‘Can speak English all the time, especially while teaching and giving advice.’ Patchata (Y2)

‘Can communicate (reading, speaking and reading) in English with students, can teach and explain elements of English language ‘in’ English to students.’ Atichart (Y2)

‘Everybody just talks (speaks) English’ Susira (Y2)
‘To have various activities in English’ Ploy (G51)

‘Can speak with students in English language, and use efficiently English’ Canin (Y3)

Third, three participants, Ploy (G51), Patchata (Y2) and Susira (Y2), perceived that the cooperation between Thai and foreign (native English) teachers is another component of bilingual education system in Thailand:

‘Good participation with native speaker in the classroom’ Ploy (G51)
‘Can communicate with partners (foreigners)’ Patchata (Y2)

‘Thai teachers are available for supporting students in the bilingual programmes’ Susira (Y2)

Figure 5.2 illustrates the frequency distributions for responses related to the six components of English bilingual education system in Thailand set by the Ministry. Each frequency collected from Closed Questions (CQ) 7-12 identified the relationship between the participants’ understandings and the Ministry guidelines (SQ1.1) in relation to the English bilingual education system in Thailand. In addition, whether the teacher education programme enabled them to understand the six components were disclosed through these frequencies.

**Figure 5.2: The Participants’ Reflections on the Six Component of English Bilingual Education System in Thailand Set by the Ministry**

* (Questionnaire, N=37)

- Yes, I knew this from the programme
- I knew this but not from the programme
- I didn’t know this

Responses to CQ7-CQ12 demonstrated that the six components were known to the majority of participants. The first component, the basic education curriculum, was unknown to three participants (CQ7). The second component, EMI, was unknown to seven participants (CQ8). The third component, type of bilingual schools, was unknown to nine participants (CQ9) and the same number
appeared in the responses to CQ10 relating to the fourth component, language policy of English Programme. The fifth component, language policy of Mini English Programme, was unknown to 12 participants (CQ11). The sixth component, team teaching, was unknown to five participants (CQ12). Thus, it can be believed that most participants understood the English bilingual education system in Thailand and their understanding was in line with the Ministry guidelines as expressed in its order number Wor Gor 65/2544 as of 9 October 2001.

Responses to CQ7 (the basic education curriculum), CQ8 (EMI), and CQ12 (the cooperation between Thai and foreign (native English) teachers) indicate that most participants knew from their teacher education programme that:

- learning and instructional management in a bilingual school is based on the Basic Education Curriculum announced by the Ministry of Education (n=29).
- English is used as a medium of instruction in a bilingual school (n=23).
- there must be the cooperation between Thai and foreign teachers or also called team teaching (n=21).

Less than half of the overall participants reported that they learnt about types of bilingual schools (CQ9, n=16), language policy of EP (CQ10, n=17) and language policy of MEP (CQ11, n=13) from their teacher education programme. The proportion of participants knew about the three components from other sources was 12 (CQ9), 11 (CQ10) and 12 (CQ11).

However, it appears that participants from the same year group, who experienced the same curriculum, responded to the questions differently in terms of the sources of learning the components of the English bilingual system in Thailand. This is illustrated by responses to CQ11 across the year groups (Figure 5.3). This indicates that six of the 14 participants in G51 perceived their teacher education programme as a resource of learning about language policy of MEP. However, five of them did not learn about it from their programme and three of them did not know about it. The pattern was similar for CQ9 and CQ10.
In order to find out the reasons for different perceptions of the learning sources, I looked at Facebook-chat data which brought more clarity to this finding. Through the chats with eight participants in G51, I realised that six participants (Focus, Panisara, Peranee, Anut, Hun, and Yonlada) had an internship at a school site with bilingual programmes but two (Nadech and Piyada) did not have a similar internship. The six participants who responded to CQ11 that they knew about the language policy of MEP had all had internships. On the other hand, the two participants who responded to CQ11 that they did not know about the language policy of MEP were those who had not had internships. It would appear that the teaching internship in a bilingual school was the source of learning about the bilingual education system.

Among the six participants, Hun and Yonlada’s responses to CQ11 were that they knew about it but not from their teacher education programme. On the other hand, the other four participants (Focus, Panisara, Peranee, and Anut) responded to CQ11 that they knew about the language policy of MEP from their teacher education programme. This suggests that a teaching internship was not always regarded as a part of the teacher education programme.
5.2.2. Understandings of Teacher Requirements for Teaching in Bilingual Schools

Figure 5.1 which addresses RQ1, also illustrated the participants’ understandings of the teacher requirements for teaching English bilingual education, using five codes (Qualifications, English proficiency, Codes of conduct for teachers, Teaching skills, and Being bilingual). The five codes were drawn from 48 references (See Section 4.7.2). Sub-codes were established for the first four codes to represent the code which captured the relevant references. A sub-code was not established for the last code (Being bilingual) because the code contained one reference which the code sufficiently captured. Table 5.1 illustrates codes and sub-codes established to identify the participants’ understandings of teacher requirements for teaching English bilingual education.

I will use quotes from OQ13 as the references which illustrate each code and sub-code. First, Qualifications (Table 5.1, 4) contained three sub-codes: the degree in education, the test certificates (i.e. TOEFL and IELTS), and the programme certificates (i.e. TEFL, TESOL, CELTA, and English Programme):

- ‘Must hold at least a Bachelor’s degree in Education’ Hun (G51)
- ‘Education, test (TOEFL, IELTS)’ Nadech (G51)
- ‘The programme should be certified with a TEFL, TESOL or CELTA programme’ Pat (G49)
- ‘English programme’ Baifern (Y2)
- ‘An English programme’ Kris (G51)

For the programme certificates (TEFL, TESOL, or CELTA), Pat (G49) explained during the Facebook chat that having these certificates represented a symbol of being an effective teacher and this could make her feel like being protected:

- ‘ถ้าได้เกียรติบัตรเหล่านี้ก็ดี เราจะได้มีภูมิคุ้มกัน มันจะยิ่งทำให้เรามีประสิทธิภาพ (Translation: If I obtain these certificates (TEFL, TESOL and CELTA), I feel secure because these certificates make me become an effective teacher)’ Pat (G49)
Table 5.1: Codes/Sub-codes Established for Responses to OQ13

Regarding Teacher Requirements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codes/sub-codes</th>
<th>No. of references</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4. Qualifications (6 references)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1. The degree in education</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2. The test certificates (TOEFL and IELTS)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.3. The programme certificates (English programme, TEFL, TESOL or CELTA programme)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. English Proficiency (20 references)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.1. Four skills of English (including a particular skill of English)</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2. Understandings of English</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.3. Near-native or native-like proficiency in English</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Code of conduct for teachers (10 references)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.1. Personalities</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.2. Commitment to the engagement of pupils/students and professional development</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Pedagogy (12 references)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.1. Teaching (including teaching English and teaching English in English)</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.2. Learners’ behaviours</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.3. Instructional media and learning activities</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.4. Lesson planning</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Being bilingual (1 reference; can speak two languages fluently)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Second, English proficiency (Table 5.1, 5) contained three sub-codes: Four skills of English (including a particular skill of English), Understandings of English and Near-native (native-like) proficiency in English. According to the four participants (Hun, Aum, Zakonrat and Ploy), a good command of four skills of English (listening, speaking, reading and writing) was vital for work in the English bilingual schools:

‘Good listening speaking, reading, and writing English skills.’ Hun (G51)

‘English teachers should have four skills such as listening, speaking, reading and writing in English.’ Aum (G49)

‘Have good English skills.’ Zakonrat (Y3)

‘Good at English skills’, ‘speak English well.’ Ploy (G51)
In line with Ploy who specifically mentioned the speaking skill, Ranee particularly highlighted the importance of the ability to communicate in English:

‘Can communicate in English.’ Ranee (G51)

Two participants mentioned the understandings of English. For Ziwat, the understandings of English should be perfect:

‘Understand English perfectly.’ Ziwat (G51)

For Yonlada, the understandings of English were mentioned alongside the translation skill:

‘Understanding English language and translation from English to Thai’ Yonlada (G51)

I interpreted Susira’s (Y2) response about ownership to mean that teachers of bilingual programmes should have a good command of (teaching) English equivalent to native English speakers. It would appear that Susira (Y2) and Swiss (Y3) perceived near-native or native-like proficiency in English as a requirement for work in bilingual schools (See Section 4.7.2)

‘It have [sic] English’s owner for teaching.’Susira (Y2)

‘มีความเข้าใจในภาษาอังกฤษถึงเจ้าของภาษา (Translation: having a sound understanding of English equivalent to the native English speakers).’ Swiss (Y3)

Third, the codes of conduct for teachers (Table 5.1, 6) contained two sub-codes: personalities and the commitment to the engagement of pupils/students and professional development. According to six participants, the personalities included teamwork skills:

‘Be a good co-worker.’ Urassaya (G51)

‘Team player with high level of commitment’ Hun (G51)

being moral:

‘Have … morality.’ Zakonrat (Y3)

responsibility:

‘Must have the responsibility.’ Ranee (G51)
self-confidence:

‘มีความมั่นใจ กล้าแสดงออก (Translation: being self-confident).’ Anne (G49)

and punctuality:

‘Be punctual…’ Khemupsorn (G49)

Kemupsorn exemplified the participants’ commitment to the engagement of pupils/students:

‘love students.’ Khemupsorn (G49)

Three participants mentioned the commitment to professional development. It was related to the enthusiasm about learning and personal development:

‘ตั้งใจว่าท่านมีความรู้ตลอดเวลา (Translation: be enthusiastic about learning at all times).’ Anne (G49)

‘A commitment to learning’ Margie (G49)

‘การพัฒนาตนเอง (Translation: personal development).’ Yayaying (Y2)

Fourth, Pedagogy (Table 5.4, 7) contained four sub-codes: Teaching (including teaching English and teaching English in English), Learners’ behaviours, Instruction media and learning activities, and Lesson planning.

Teaching skills were broadly mentioned:

‘Good teaching’ Taksorn (G49)

English teaching skills were highlighted by Rinlanee (G51), Focus (G51), and Ramida (Y3):

‘have the skills to teach English’ Rinlanee (G51)

‘have good skills of teaching English’ Focus (G51)

‘มีทักษะความรู้ ... เกี่ยวกับการสอนภาษาอังกฤษ (Translation: having skills and knowledge relating to teaching English)’ Ramida (Y3)

Yayaying (Y2) highlighted the importance of enabling students to speaking English:

‘ความสามารถที่จะพัฒนา น.ร. (นักเรียน) ให้พูดภาษาอังกฤษได้... (Translation: The ability to develop students to be able to speak English...’ Yayaying (Y2)
Ziwat (G51) emphasised the bilingual status of teachers which was probably perceived as an advantage over native English speaking teachers in terms of delivering the knowledge to the students:

‘A bilingual teacher must be able to transfer the knowledge to the students.’ Ziwat (G51)

Teaching English in English Teaching was mentioned by Atichart (Y2) who highlighted the importance of the ability to use English as a medium of instruction:

‘can teach and explain English language 'in' English to students’ Atichart (Y2)

The sub-code, Learners’ behaviours, was referred to as the ability to understand behaviours of learners particularly in English bilingual education. This was mentioned by Patchata (Y2):

‘Understand the behaviour ….mini English programme's students.’ Patchata (Y2)

The sub-code, Instructional media and learning activities, was evidenced in three participants. Two participants (Woonsen and Ploy) highlighted the importance of the variety in teaching methods with Woonsen justifying this as encouraging learners to learn and enjoy:

‘have a variety of teaching methods that encourage students to learn and enjoy' Woonsen (G49)

‘have various activities in English’ Ploy (G51)

Patchata (Y2) indicated that teaching media and learning activities may need to be adapted for them to be effective:

‘adapt instructional media for teaching’ Patchata (Y2)

The sub-code regarding Lesson planning was evidenced in Anut (G51) who emphasises the importance of planning lessons to meet curriculum goals and objectives. Interestingly, the bilingual status of teachers was mentioned and this suggested that bilingual teachers may have an advantage over native English speakers in terms of understanding the national curriculum. This would allow (Thai) bilingual teachers to be able to plan lessons which respond to the curriculum goals and objectives:
‘Bilingual teachers plan lessons to meet curriculum goals and objectives…’ Anut (G51)

Finally, the code, being bilingual (Table 5.1, 8) was evidenced in Taew (G49) who perceived being bilingual as the ability to speak two languages fluently:

‘Can speak two languages fluently.’ Taew (G49)

Figure 5.4 illustrates the participants’ reflections on the 13 teacher requirements for work in bilingual schools set by the Ministry corresponding to CQ14-CQ26. Each frequency collected from CQ14-CQ26 identified the relationship between the participants’ understandings and the Ministry guidelines (SQ1.1) in relation to teacher requirements for teaching English bilingual education. Responses to CQ14-CQ26 indicate that in all cases the majority of participants considered teacher requirements necessary or strongly necessary suggesting that most participants understood the teacher requirements for teaching English bilingual education and their understandings were in line with the Ministry guidelines as expressed in its order number Wor Gor 65/2544 as of 9 October 2001.

**Figure 5.4: The Participants’ Reflections on the Teacher Requirements for Working in Bilingual Schools Set by the Ministry**

(Questionnaire, N=37)

No participants selected the options: strongly unnecessary and unnecessary for CQ15 and CQ19-CQ26. Over 30 participants (N=37) considered the ability to address ethical issues and values in teachers’ teaching (CQ23, n=31) and to build up learners’ confidence and to encourage them to communicate in English strongly necessary (CQ24, n=32). Over 25 up to 30 participants selected the
option: strongly necessary for CQ15 (n=28) concerning their perceptions of English proficiency and for CQ19 (n=29) concerning having good knowledge of young learners’ behaviours and instructional management. Over 20 up to 25 participants selected the option: strongly necessary for CQ14, CQ22, CQ25 and CQ26. 24 participants perceived having a Bachelor’s degree in education as strongly necessary (CQ14). The ability to address the loyalty to local, national, and Thai identity (CQ22), the ability to become aware of learners’ Thai proficiency, their readiness and their interest in learning English (CQ25) and the ability to create pleasant learning environments through simple learning activities i.e. singing, storytelling, role playing, etc. (CQ26) were perceived as strongly necessary (n=21 for each).

Less than 20 participants perceived the ability to teach through English and to follow the curriculum announced by the Ministry (CQ20, n=14) and having the knowledge of Thai context and identity (CQ21, n=19) as strongly necessary. However, the frequencies for the option: necessary were also high in CQ20 and CQ21 (n=14 and n=13, respectively).

A minority of participants selected the options: strongly unnecessary (n=1 for CQ14) and unnecessary (n=1 each for CQ16-CQ18). The responses to CQ16 concerning the participants’ perceptions of native-like communication/pronunciation was perceived as strongly necessary (n=15) and necessary (n=18). The Facebook chat data corresponded to this finding. It appeared that the ability to communicate and pronounce like native English speakers was considered necessary for work in bilingual schools. Comparing to native English speaking teachers, Ranee (G51) described herself as a less competent user of English expressions and Piyada (G51) regarded native-like accent as the acceptable pronunciation of English:

‘...ตัวหนูเองยังมีความบกพร่องด้านการเลือกใช้คำศัพท์ภาษาอังกฤษและไวยากรณ์ภาษาอังกฤษที่เหมือนกับนักการสอนภาษาอังกฤษ ครูวัฒนธรรมสากลนักคณิตศาสตร์...ตลอดทุกครั้งที่สื่อสารกับครูวัฒนธรรมสากลนักคณิตศาสตร์...จะคอยให้คำแนะนำเกี่ยวกับการใช้ภาษาไทยที่สอดคล้องกับบางคำศัพท์ภาษาอังกฤษและไวยากรณ์ภาษาอังกฤษที่ถูกต้อง...บางไวยากรณ์ภาษาอังกฤษที่นักการสอนภาษาอังกฤษใช้ทั่วไปอาจจะไม่ได้ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษเหมือนกับภาษาอังกฤษที่ถูกต้องหรือภาษาอังกฤษที่ถูกต้องสำหรับการสื่อสารในภาษาอังกฤษ.' (Translation: ...I am weak at using the language expressions or idioms as well as native English speakers. Whenever I communicate with foreign teachers [Native English speakers], they suggest me the more appropriate expressions. To me, some of expressions and idioms I use do not sound like real English but Thai.' Ranee (G51)
'I think my English accent is not good. It will make the students in bilingual programmes disrespect me...สำนักเรียนสุด ออกเสียงไม่เหมือนกับเจ้าของภาษาที่สุด เช่น Final sound ขัดเจตนี มี tone สูง-ต่ำ ตามลักษณะของแต่ละประโยค มี Linking sound ทำให้เจ้าของภาษาที่สุด ฟังจะถูกต้องหรือไม่ก็ยอมรับก็ได้ค่ะ (Translation: ...The good accent is the pronunciation equivalent to native English speakers i.e. the recognition of final sounds, intonations of different types of statements, linking sounds, etc. These make English accents beautiful to be listened to. The native speakers are Farangs i.e. British or American'. Piyada (G51)

The frequencies for the option: neither necessary nor unnecessary regarding the importance of English language qualifications were slightly higher in CQ18 (n=11) followed by CQ17 (n=10). The 11 and 10 participants are from all year groups (Figure 5.5 and 5.6).

**Figure 5.5: The Participants' Perceptions of Having 5.5 in IELTS for Teaching Bilingual Programme** (Questionnaire, N=37)
The Facebook-chat data corresponded to this finding. Through the chats with Nadech (G51) and Jensuda (Y3), it appeared that TOEIC results were considered necessary for work in bilingual schools:

‘They [TOEFL and IELTs] are important. I heard that the International College of Star University [pseudonym] requires its students to pass the TOEIC exam before graduation. It is a good idea to arrange a preparation course [for TOEFL, IELTS and TOEIC] but the scores are not meant for the graduation.’ Nadech (G51)

‘Important, all skills [of English] as well as tests such as TOEIC, IELTS, etc.’ Jensuda (Y3)

In summary, the participants understood the English bilingual education system in Thailand and teacher requirements respective for work in bilingual school (RQ1). Their understandings in these regards were largely in line with the Ministry guidelines as expressed in the Ministry’s order number Wor Gor 65/2544 as of 9 October 2001 (SQ1.1). Further, responses to OQ13 addressing RQ1 were in line with responses to CQ7-12 (regarding the six components of English bilingual education system (Section 5.2.1), and CQ14-CQ26 regarding the 13 teacher requirements addressing SQ1.1 (Section 5.2.2).
5.3. Research Question 2

The question (RQ2) considered to what extent the participants feel their course prepares them for work in bilingual schools (Programme evaluation, Section 5.3.1). As a first step, SPSS was used to calculate frequencies for CQ5 which asked the participants to give a rate from 0 to 10 indicating their programme effectiveness in enabling them to work in bilingual schools (Section 5.3.1.1). As a second step, the deductive analysis (themes, categories and codes) was used to analyse the responses to the open questions to identity the knowledge and skills essential for work in bilingual schools which the participants believed they obtained (OQ3) or did not obtain (OQ4) from their teacher education programme (Section 5.3.1.2). As a third step, findings from the Facebook-chat data are added for further illustrative evidence and depth (Section 5.3.1.2). Relevant comments on this data are integrated into the reporting of OQ3 and OQ4 (Section 5.3.1.2).

In this section, the question (SQ2.1) examined the participants’ evaluation of their feelings, competences and skills enabling themselves to work in bilingual schools (Self-evaluation, Section 5.3.2). As a first step, SPSS was used to calculate the frequency distributions for CQ40 (their overall feelings of preparedness for work in bilingual schools, Section 5.3.2.1). As a second step, SPSS was also used to calculate the frequency distributions for CQ28-CQ39 (the evaluation of their competences and skills based on the Ministry’s teacher requirements, Section 5.3.2.2). In the third step, the deductive analysis (theme, categories and codes) was used to analyse the responses to the open question (OQ27) to identify any particular factor on making the participants more or less able to work in bilingual schools (Section 5.3.2.3). As a final step, findings from the Facebook-chat relevant to data are added and integrated as above (Section 5.3.2.3).
5.3.1. Programme Evaluation

5.3.1.1. Rates of Programme Usefulness

In order to consider RQ2, it was necessary to look at each participant’s feelings of their programme usefulness for enabling them to work in bilingual schools. On the horizontal axis, Figure 5.7 illustrates the rate from 0 (being not useful at all) to 10 (being very useful) indicating the programme effectiveness given by the number of participants on vertical axis (N=37). Rate 10 was a rate selected by most participants (n=9), followed by Rate 7 (n=8), Rate 8 (n=7), Rate 6 and 9 (n=6 for each). Rate 5 was the smallest rate and selected by one participant. This suggested that most participants considered their teacher education programme effective in preparing them to work in bilingual schools, however, to varied degrees.

Figure 5.7: The Participants’ Rating for Their Programme Usefulness for Enabling Them to Work in Bilingual Schools (Questionnaire, N=37)
5.3.1.2. Perceptions of Knowledge and Skills through Enrolling in the English Teacher Education Programme

Table 5.2, which addresses the second step of the analysis of RQ2, illustrates the participants’ perceptions of knowledge and skills through enrolling in the English teacher education programme using four codes (English, Pedagogy, Experience, and Not taught skills and knowledge). Data from the open questions revealed that English was predominantly perceived as 'learnt' with 39 references (OQ3) while 'not learnt' had 19 references (OQ4) from the participants’ teacher education programme. Seven sub-codes of English (Productive skills, Receptive skills, Grammar, Four skills, English ability in general, Pronunciation, and Translation) were established. The responses to OQ3 (learnt) covers all the seven sub-codes while the responses to OQ4 (not learnt) covers only the first three sub-codes. It appeared that the responses to OQ4 were not associated with the last four sub-codes.

Productive skills (Table 5.2, 1.1) comprise speaking and writing. Eight participants (Ranee, Hun, Atichart, Baifern, Yayaying, Niroot, Pichaya, and Susira) perceived the productive skills as learnt (OQ3). Hun and Ranee mentioned both speaking and writing skills:

'speaking and writing’ Ranee (G51)

'speaking….and writing skill…' Hun (G51)

Atichart, Baifern, and Yayaying highlighted the speaking skills:

‘Skill of communication (…, speaking…) in English.’ Atichart (Y2)

‘…, dare to speak with foreigners’ Baifern (Y2)

การสื่อสารกับเจ้าของภาษาได้อย่างเข้าใจตรงกัน…(Translation: I learnt how to communicate understandingly with native English speakers…) Yayaying (Y2)

Niroot, Pichaya, and Susira highlighted the writing skills:

‘…writing skill’ Niroot (Y3)

‘…and writing skill’ Pichaya (Y3)

‘Writing and …’ Susira (Y2)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Codes/sub-codes</th>
<th>which the participants believed they obtained from enrolling in their programme (OQ3)</th>
<th>which the participants did not believe they obtained from enrolling in their programme (OQ4)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1. English | 1. English (39) | 1. Productive skills (10)  
1.2. Receptive skills (8)  
1.3. Grammar (4)  
1.4. Four skills (9)  
1.5. English ability in general (4)  
1.6. Pronunciation (3)  
1.7. Translation (1) | 1. English (19)  
1.1. Productive skills (11)  
1.2. Receptive skills (6)  
1.3. Grammar (2) |
| 2. Pedagogy | 2. Pedagogy (23) | 2.1. Teaching (including teaching English and teaching English through English, 12)  
2.2. Instructional media (5)  
2.3. Nature of learners (5)  
2.4. Measurement and evaluation (1) | 2. Pedagogy (7)  
2.1. Teaching (including teaching English and teaching English in English, 4)  
2.2. Instructional media (3) |
| 3. Experiences | 3. Experiences (8) | 3.1. Teaching internship (6)  
3.2. Doing research (2) | 3. Experience (5)  
3.1. Teaching practice (1)  
3.2. Interaction in English (including interaction with foreign/native English teachers (4) |
| 4. Not taught skills and knowledge | 4. Not taught skills and knowledge (8) | 4.1. Social skills (2)  
4.2. Study skills (2)  
4.3. Personality (2)  
4.4. Teacher’s ethics/ethos (2) | 4. Not taught skills and knowledge (1)  
4.1. Social skills (1) |
However, productive skills were perceived as not learnt (OQ4) by ten participants (Jensuda, Urassaya, Nadech, Kemupsorn, Woonsen, Pichaya, Ramida, Focus, Ziwat and Niroot). Jensuda highlighted both speaking and writing skills:

‘I have not been writing and speaking skills. First, it has a grammatical problem when I write essays. Secondly, sometimes grammar makes me have no confidence when I speak English’ Jensuda (Y3)

Speaking was specifically mentioned by Urassaya, Nadech, Kemupsorn, Woonsen, Pichaya, and Ramida:

‘…also conversation’ Urassaya (G51)

‘Speaking English naturally’ Nadech (G51)

‘Speaking’ Kemupsorn (G49)

‘I think I’m not successful in speaking…’ Woonsen (G49)

‘…and speaking skill (I didn’t mean the teachers never let us speak English but… sometimes not often)’ Pichaya (Y3)

‘อยากให้เน้นเรื่องการพูดภาษาอังกฤษได้เรียนแค่วิชาเดียวเองอยากฝึกฝนวิชาการพูดมากกว่านี้ ... (Translation: Speaking should be stressed. I had learnt only one English speaking course. I would like to practise English speaking more.’ Ramida (Y3)

Writing was particularly mentioned by Focus, Ziwat, and Niroot:

‘about writing’ Focus (G51)

‘In my opinion, … writing skill…’ Ziwat (G51)

‘Writing skill’ Niroot (Y3)

Receptive skills (Table 5.2, 1.2) comprise listening and reading. Niroot perceived both skills as learnt (OQ3):

‘Listening, reading,…’ Niroot (Y3)

Only Kemupsorn specifically mentioned listening as learnt:

‘I got a lot of things…listening…’ Kemupsorn (G49)

Five participants (Pichaya, Atichart, Swiss, Susira and Woonsen) perceived reading as learnt:

‘Reading skill and…’ Pichaya (Y3)
‘Skill of communication (reading…) in English.’ Atichart (Y2)

‘สามารถวิเคราะห์เนื้อหาบทความภาษาอังกฤษต่างๆได้ (Translation: Able to analyse English journals) Swiss (Y3)

‘…reading’ Susira (Y2)

‘reading skill’ Woonsen (G49)

However, receptive skills were perceived as not learnt (OQ4) by five participants (Ranee, Pichaya, Hun, Ploy, and Woonsen). Ranee highlighted both listening and reading:

‘reading and listening’ Ranee (G51)

The rest of them particularly mentioned listening skills:

Listening skill…” Pichaya (Y3)

‘listening skill in English’ Hun (G51)

‘I think that it's about listening…” Ploy (G51)

‘…I 'm not successful in…and listening skills.’ Woonsen (G49)

Grammar (Table 5.2, 1.3) was perceived as learnt (OQ3) by Yonlada, Kemupsorn, Baifern and Yayaying:

‘Grammar for teaching’ Yonlada (G51)

‘… and grammar’ Kemupsorn (G49)

‘…correct in grammar,…’ Baifern (Y2)

‘ความรู้ทางไวยากรณ์ (Translation: grammatical knowledge)’ Yayaying (Y2)

On the other hand, grammar was perceived as not learnt (OQ4) by Urassaya and Jensuda. Urassaya believed that English grammar was insufficiently taught while Jensuda believed that she would encounter a grammatical problem when writing essays:

‘I have got a little grammar. I need much more grammar.’ Urassaya (G51)

‘… Firstly, It's has a problem grammar when I write essays… Jensuda (Y3)
Figure 5.8 illustrates that productive skills, receptive skills, and grammar (Table 5.2, 1.1-1.3) were perceived as both learnt (OQ3) and not learnt (OQ4). The number of references regarding the learnt are higher than that of the not learnt in writing, reading and grammar. There was only a small difference between the learnt and the not learnt for writing and grammar (n=1 and n=2, respectively) but a relatively big difference between them for reading (6 against 1). There were a higher number of the references for both speaking and listening skills for the not learnt category (n=8 and N=6, respectively) than the learnt category (n=5 and n=2, respectively).

Figure 5.8: The Distribution of References Regarding the Productive/Receptive Skills and Grammar Learnt and Not Learnt from the Programme

The Facebook-chat data adds illustrative evidence to these findings. Pichaya perceived writing as the skill which she learnt a lot from her teacher education programme:

‘หนูรู้สึกมีความสุขที่ได้เรียนเรื่องการทำหน้าที่อาจารย์… หลักการเขียนที่ถูกต้องตามหลักภาษา, การอ่านเรื่องทำความเข้าใจ, การสรุปเรื่องที่อ่าน… ที่หนูได้มักที่สุดจากการเรียนที่มหาวิทยาลัย ’ (Translation: I am happy when studying writing at the university…writing principles with correct grammar, reading for main ideas, summarising,…Writing is the skill I have gained from learning in the classroom the most.)’

Pichaya (Y3)
This was in line with Nadech who mentioned through the chat that the topic of writing in English was contained in the programme more than that of English speaking:

‘I think I learnt writing more than speaking English from the programme.’ Nadech (G51)

Four skills, English ability in general, pronunciation, and translation (Table 5.2, 1.4-1.7) were perceived as learnt (OQ3) only. The four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) was specifically mentioned by Swiss, Mint, Pat, Tanya, Anne, Anut, and Margie:

‘สามารถฟังพูดอ่านเขียนภาษาอังกฤษได้ในระดับที่ดีขึ้น (Translation: Able to listen, speak, read and write English better at a certain level)’ Swiss (Y3)

‘ได้รับทักษะการฟังการพูดการอ่านการเขียน (Translation: I was trained in listening, speaking, reading and writing)’ Mint (Y3)

‘to improve 4 skills.’ Pat (G49)

‘ฟังพูดอ่านเขียน (Translation: Listening, speaking, reading and writing)’ Tanya (G49)

‘ทางด้านการเรียนได้ทั้ง 4 ทักษะคือฟังพูดอ่านเขียน (Translation: They are four skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing)’ Anne (G49)

‘When I studied at SSRU I learned … speaking, listening, reading and writing skill.’ Anut (G51)

...the knowledge of English language...listening, speaking, reading and writing... Margie (G49)

Four skills category (Table 5.2, 1.4) sometimes seemed to be understood simply as communication in English. Patchata seemed to view communication as specifically related to oracy:

‘Communications (listening and speaking), writing, and reading comprehension’ Patchata (Y2)

Peranee does not specify her understanding of communication, simply mentioning it:

‘Communication’ Peranee (G51)
English ability in general (Table 5.2, 1.5) as learnt was related to knowledge, according to Margie:

‘Knowledge of the English language’ Margie (G49)

Baifern, Canin and Aum understood English ability in general as relating to using English with Baifern and Canin indicating their hope to improve their overall competence:

‘Use English well…’ Baifern (Y2)

‘Can use English language properly…’ Canin (Y3)

‘…how to use English and etc.’ Aum (G49)

Pronunciation (Table 5.2, 1.6) was mentioned by three participants. Mint and Zakonrat who perceived this as learnt, specifically mentioned pronunciation emphasising practice:

‘การออกเสียงแต่ละคำในภาษาอังกฤษ (Translation: the pronunciation of each English word)’ Mint (Y3)

‘Pronunciation skills Zakonrat (Y3)

Panisara does not mention pronunciation specifically, referring to ‘phonetics’ and ‘linguistics’ i.e. using a more theoretical or abstract term (however, see below):

‘I have received from the programme are Linguistics or Phonetics.’ Panisara (G51)

The Facebook-chat data further illustrates the extent to which pronunciation is perceived as learnt (OQ3). According to Panisara, learning English pronunciation also included speaking tests which enable her to receive comments from her instructor and build up her confidence to speak English:

‘...เริ่มจากเรียนการออกเสียง...ตลอดจนได้มีการสอบพูด และได้รับการ comment จาก อ. [อาจารย์] ผู้สอน ทำให้เรารู้ว่าต้องปรับหรือแก้ด้านใด เพราะได้เรียน... ทำให้ หนูมีความมั่นใจในการพูด (Translation: I have begun to learn English pronunciation... When taking a speaking test, I received comments from my instructor who suggested me how to improve my pronunciation. Because of learning this, I am confident to speak English).’ Panisara (G51)
Translation (Table 5.2, 1.7) was perceived as learnt by Kempusorn:
‘…translation and…” Kemupsorn (G49)

Some participants referred to the imbalance between English and pedagogy in the Facebook-chat data. Jensuda notes the emphasis on education, rather than English, reflects the nature of the programme:
‘...หนูแอบเอาไปเปรียบกับคณะมนุษย์... เราเรียนเพื่อไปสอนโดยเฉพาะ เราต้องสอนเป็นด้วย เราต้องมีวิชาครู' (Translation: I secretly compared the programme of humanity faculty with mine... We particularly learn to teach. We must be able to teach. That’s why the programme contains teacher professional subjects)’ Jensuda (Y3)

Ranee in more critical of the imbalance, noting the lack of opportunity to deepen her knowledge of English:
‘…พวกหนูเรียนเอกภาษาอังกฤษก็จริงแต่รายวิชาส่วนใหญ่จะเน้นไปทางด้านการศึกษามากกว่าไม่ค่อยได้เรียนด้านภาษาลึกซึ้งสักเท่าไหร่คะ (In fact, our major is English. However, most of the learning subjects are heavily related to education. I have seldom studied the language deeply)’. Ranee (G51)

Pedagogy (Table 5.2, 2) was perceived as learnt with 23 references (OQ3) and not learnt with seven references (OQ4) from the participants’ teacher education programme. Four sub-codes of pedagogy: Teaching (including teaching English and teaching English through English) Instructional media, Nature of learners, and Measurement and evaluation were established. All four sub-codes were used to identify the responses to OQ3. However, it appeared that the responses to OQ4 cover only the first two sub-codes.
First, teaching (Table 5.2, 2.1) contains 12 references relating to techniques, skills, strategies, and managements of teaching (including teaching English and teaching English in English). Yosawadee, Taew, Kemupsorn, Kris, and Piyada specifically perceived teaching techniques as learnt (OQ3):
‘เทคนิคในการเรียนการสอน... (Translation: techniques for learning and teaching) Yosawadee (Y4)
‘teaching technique’ Taew (G49)
‘I got a lot of things…techniques of teaching…’ Kemupsorn (G49)
‘เทคนิคการสอน... (Translation: teaching technique…) Kris (G51)
Atichart, Focus, and Taksaorn highlighted teaching skills and strategies as learnt:

‘Skill of teaching…’ Atichart (Y2)
‘I received from programme are about … skills to teach …’ Focus (G51)
‘I have studied many strategies for teaching in class’ Taksaorn (G49)

Anut and Margie, perceived teaching and learning management as learnt:

‘Especially instructional management…’ Anut (G51)
‘… Design and management of learning…Margie (G49)

Aum and Urassaya specifically mentioned teaching English as learnt:

‘English teaching skills,…’ Aum (G49)
‘How to teaching [SIC] English I mean the process, and method’ Urassaya (G51)

However, Panisara perceived techniques and Rinlanee perceived methods as not learnt (OQ4):

‘I would like teachers to focus on the techniques of teaching.’ Panisara (G51)

‘Skills and teaching methods’ Rinlanee (G51)

Further, two participants (Atichart and Kris) particularly mentioned skill of teaching English through English as not learnt. Atichart clearly stated that he has not yet received this skill from his programme:

‘Skill of teaching ‘in’ English, teaching in English is necessary… But the English teacher education program is [SIC] not provide the skill of teaching in English (Such as how to explain the meaning of the word for a 12 years old kid).’ Atichart (Y2)

Kris specifically mentioned a training of using English as a medium of instruction as not learnt:

‘การฝึกอบรมการใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในการสอน (Translation: A training of using English for teaching’ Kris (G51)
Data from the Facebook chats illuminate the importance of training in teaching English through English. It appeared that teaching or teaching English skills were not considered as adequately preparing some participants to teach English through English. Comments from Atichart revealed that these skills enable him to teach but not to teach English through English:

‘Education methodology is provide [SIC] to me regarding how to teach. BUT not [teaching] in English…’ Atichart (Y2)

Comments from Yayaying and Atichart believed that they could teach English partly through English or through their native language (Thai):

‘ถ้าต้องอธิบายเนื้อหาทั้งหมดให้เด็กเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ หนูทำไม่ได้ มันยากเกินไป แต่ถ้าสอนเป็นภาษาไทยไปด้วยก็ได้ Translation: If I have to explain everything in English, I cannot. It is too difficult. If using partly Thai, I can’ Yayaying (Y2)

‘I know how to teach English in Thai and I’m very sure that I can do it well’ Atichart (Y2)

Second, instruction media (Table 5.2, 2.2) was perceived as learnt by five participants. Yayaying and Margie highlighted the different types of teaching media as learnt:

‘…การสื่อสารด้วยสิ่งต่างๆไม่ว่าจะคำพูดลักษณะทางกายการมองด้วยสายตาสื่อการสอน… (Translation: communication through speech, eye contact, teaching media…’ Yayaying (Y2)

‘Media for teaching various subjects in English’ Margie (G49)

Ramida highlighted the creation of teaching media:

‘…การทำสื่อการสอน… (Translation: creating teaching media)’ Ramida (Y3)

Kris and Yosawadee highlighted the use of media for teaching:

‘เรียนรู้ทักษะการใช้สื่อ… (Translation: learning skills of using teaching media…’ Kris (G51)

‘…การสอนโดยใช้สื่อต่างๆ ที่จะทำให้ผู้เรียนเข้าใจง่ายมากขึ้น… (Translation: teaching through different kinds of media for making learners have better understandings).’ Yosawadee (Y4)

On the other hand, Yonlada, Taksaorn, and Piyada perceived instructional media as not learnt (OQ4). Yonlada mentioned teaching media:

‘the media of teaching.’ Yonlada (G51)
Taksaorn did not believe that she has learnt about using modern media from her teacher education programme:

‘How to make the new media’ Taksaorn (G49)

Piyada highlighted the usage of teaching media relating to electronic innovations as not learnt (OQ4):

‘การใช้สื่อหรือนวัตกรรมอิเล็กทรอนิกส์ในการสอน เช่น การใช้โปรเจคเตอร์ (Translation: Using media or electronic innovation for teaching e.g. using a projector)’
Piyada (G51)

Finally, nature of learners and measurement and evaluation (Table 5.2, 2.3-2.4) were only perceived as learnt (OQ3). Nature of learners-category (Table 5.2, 2.3) seems to be understood simply as the category title mentioned by Kris and Piyada:

‘…ธรรมชาติผู้เรียน (Translation: …nature of learners)’ Kris (G51)

‘ธรรมชาติของผู้เรียน (Translation: nature of learners)’ Piyada (G51)

This category seems to be related to education psychology mentioned by Margie:

‘…Knowledge of psychology…’ Margie (G49)

Yayaying seems to view education psychology connected a strategy of classroom management by mentioning:

‘จิตวิทยาที่ต้องคุมนักเรียนในห้องให้มีสมาธิในการเรียน (Translation: Psychology for controlling students in classrooms, having them focus on lessons)’
Yayaying (Y2)

Measurement and evaluation (Table 5.2, 2.4) as learnt was specifically mentioned by Margie:

‘Measurement and evaluation’ Margie (G49)

Experiences (Table 5.2, 3) was perceived as obtained with eight references (OQ3) and not obtained with five references (OQ4) from the participants’ teacher education programme. Experiences as learnt comprise two sub-codes: teaching internship and doing research. Comprising the same number of sub-codes, experience as not learnt was however related to teaching practice and interaction in English with foreign/native English teachers.
Experiences relating to teaching internship (Table 5.2, 3.1) were perceived as obtained (OQ3) by six participants (Canin, Ramida, Rinlanee, Margie, Taew, and Focus). Canin, Ramida, and Rinlanee believed that their teacher education programme would provide them an opportunity to teach English:

‘...have experiences to teach students for the future’ Canin (Y3)
เรียนวิชาครูได้ลงพื้นที่ปฏิบัติงานจริง (Translation: Enrolling in the teacher education programme, I can practise teaching in the real classrooms).’ Ramida (Y3)

‘Used to teach the English language...’ Rinlanee (G51)

Margie (G49) specifically mentioned that the teaching internship allowed her to observe classroom environments:

‘...the environment in the classrooms’ Margie (G49)

Perceiving experiencing of teaching internship as obtained, Taew specifically mentioned that she has taken a role of teacher assistant during her teaching internship and communicated with foreign teachers:

‘...communicate with foreign teachers, as a teacher assistant’ Taew (G49)

The Facebook-chat data add information to this finding. Yonlada reported that she had co-taught with foreign teachers. It appeared that teaching internship was an opportunity for her to practise English and receive advice on teaching English:

‘I was a co-worker with foreign teachers and we taught together. They spoke English all classes and I did too. It's terrible the first time because I was exited but foreign teachers suggested me how to teach English. After that my teaching skill has been improved.’ Yonlada (G51)

Focus perceived that teaching internship as learnt (OQ3) and this experience allowed her to observe students:

‘Observing students’ Focus (G51)

The Facebook-chat data illuminate what student teachers could gain from observing students during teaching internship. Peranee (G51) reported that she learnt about students’ behaviours and was keen on developing positive behaviours for her students:

‘ส่วนประสบการณ์ทำงานก็ได้มีเกือบ 1 ปี ได้เรียนรู้พฤติกรรมเด็ก และมีความคิดที่อยากพัฒนาเด็กให้มีความรู้และมีนิสัยที่ดี นร. [นักเรียน] (Translation: During one year internship, I learnt about young learners’ behaviours. I think I would...}
like to improve their knowledge and make them well-behaved.’ Peranee (G51)

It appeared that Peranee had learnt that the socio-economic status could influence her students’ learning behaviours and motivations during her teaching internship. According to Peranee, children from broken homes would not concentrate on lessons as well as children from intact homes:

‘…เคยสอนโรงเรียนสุภาพบุรุษ [นามสมมติ] ซึ่งเป็นโรงเรียนที่เด็กมีปัญหาครอบครัว ไม่มีคนใส่ใจดูแล พฤติกรรมเด็กค่อนข้างจะแย่ คือ ไม่สนใจเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ เพราะคิดว่ายาก และไม่จ่ายเป็น และประจำบันสอนที่ร. จุฑาเทพ [นามสมมติ] เด็กมีพื้นฐานครอบครัวดี บ้านราย พอแม่ใส่ใจดูแลเด็ก นโยบายนักเรียนอย่างเด็กตั้งใจเรียนทุกวิชา และไม่มองข้ามภาษาอังกฤษ (Translation: I taught at Suparpburoot School [pseudonym] where students have family problems. They are ignored. Their behaviours are quite disruptive. I mean that they did not pay attention to English lessons. They think it is too difficult and unnecessary to study. Now I have been teaching at Jutatep School [pseudonym] where students are from a good family. They are rich. Their parents take good care of them and always support them. These students pay attention to all lessons and never overlook English subjects.)’ Peranee (G51)

The Facebook-chat data also reveal that a teaching internship especially in a bilingual school seems to be a resource for learning the bilingual curriculum and instructions. Anut reported that he learnt about curriculum and instructions of bilingual programmes implemented in his school site:

‘ผมเคยได้มีโอกาสไปสังเกตการสอน เรียนรู้ถึงหลักสูตรและวิธีการสอนแบบต่างๆ ผมเคยไปฝึกที่โรงเรียนเจป๊อป [นามสมมติ] เป็นโรงเรียนสองภาษาในระดับประถม (Translation: I had an opportunity to observe classroom teaching and learnt a variety of instruction and curriculum. I served my internship at J-pop School [pseudonym] with a bilingual programme for primary students.)’ Anut (G51)

Experiences relating to doing research (Table 5.2, 3.2) were perceived as obtained (OQ3) by two participants (Ramida and Margie). Ramida believed that the teacher education programme would provide her an opportunity to learn how to do and conduct a research. Similarly, Margie specifically mentioned research on teaching English:

‘…ทั้งการทําวิจัย… (Translation: …Research as well…)’ Ramida (Y3)

‘…Research on teaching of English’ Margie (G49)
Experiences as not obtained (OQ4) were related to teaching practice (Table 5.2, 3.1) mentioned by Canin:

‘Teaching and practice…’ Canin (Y3)

However, it appeared in the Facebook-chat data that teaching practice was perceived as the obtained by Pat and Focus. They were in the older year group (G49 and G51, respectively) than Canin (Y3). This suggested that teaching practice would be available for student teachers in Year 3 onwards and it may be perceived as too late for Canin.

The Facebook-chat data illuminate the experience gained from teaching practice. Pat reported that she practised teaching, observing her friends’ teaching and speaking simple English e.g. giving classroom instructions and complements to her friends as pretend students:

‘บางครั้งสอนภาษาอังกฤษทั้งคาบในการสอนสอน…การดูเพื่อนสอนก็สามารถนำมาปรับใช้ พูดภาษาอังกฤษง่ายๆ เช่น คำสั่งในห้อง คำชมนักเรียน…’ (Translation: Sometimes I taught English for the whole learning periods. In teaching practice,…observing my friends’ teaching, I could adapt. I spoke simple English. For example, classroom instruction, complements to students…)’ Pat (G49)

Pat reported that teaching practice was an opportunity to practising teaching, sharing teaching experience among cohorts, and receiving feedback from her instructors. She believed that this experience would enable her to work in bilingual schools:

‘การสอน, การ Share ประสบการณ์กับเพื่อน, การได้รับความรู้คำแนะนำจากอาจารย์ในการเรียนการสอน, …ทำให้เราสร้างศักยภาพในการสอนและมีความพร้อมในการสอนแบบผสมผสานภาษา (Translation: Teaching practices, sharing teaching experiences with friends, and receiving advice on teaching from instructors… enabled me to bravely speak and stand in front of the classrooms…All of these experiences prepared me to teach bilingual programmes)’ Pat (G49)

Focus confirmed that teaching practice was a part of learning her teacher education programme. In line with Pat, Focus perceived that teaching practice allowed her to received comments from instructors:

‘การเรียนที่คณะมีการสอนสอนซึ่งมีการคอมมันเน็ทจากอาจารย์ทำให้เราสร้างศักยภาพ และมีประสบการณ์ในการสอนมากขึ้น ตลอดจนมีความมั่นใจ ทำให้นักเรียนได้เรียนได้มากขึ้นเท่าต่ำ (Translation: Learning at the school of education, there were teaching practices. Advice from the instructors made me know the mistakes. They encouraged me to speak English as much as I could, not to have any concerns of errors, and to be confident

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to speak English. Therefore, I think the more I do teaching practices, the better I am confident.’ Focus (G51)

Experiences as not learnt (OQ4) related to interaction in English (including interaction with foreign/native English teachers, Table 5.2, 3.2) were mentioned by Zakonrat, Nadech, Patchata, and Ploy. Zakonrat and Nadech specifically mentioned speaking English:

‘Courage to speak English’ Zakonrat (Y3)

‘Speaking English naturally’ Nadech (G51)

Patchata and Ploy specifically mentioned communication in English with foreign or native English speakers. Patchata reported that he hardly communicated in English with them but he learnt English communication from media instead:

‘Communication with foreign teachers (now with recorded sound only)’ Patchata (Y2)

Ploy reported that there were not native English speakers teaching the programme. She perceived that the lack of native English speakers had a negative impact on listening skills:

‘…native speaker, that is really not in English…they [students]…take so long time to listen…that is not [because] enough…in vocabulary, [but] listening experience…’ Ploy (G51)

The Facebook-chat data illuminate the perceived lack of native English speaking teachers in the programme and the importance of native English speaking teachers. Piyada, Ranee, and Anut complained that the school of education should have recruited and employed native English speakers:

‘น่าจะมีครูเจ้าของภาษามาสอนบ้าง … (Translation: There should be native [English] speakers teaching us sometimes)’ Piyada (G51)

‘ทางคณะควรจะหาอาจารย์ที่เป็น native speaker … (Translation: The Faculty should recruit teachers who are native [English] speakers…)’ Ranee (G51)

‘ควรเพิ่มเจ้าของภาษาที่มีความรู้ความสามารถในการสอนภาษา มาสอนในคณะ … (Translation: The Faculty should employ more native [English] speakers)’ Anut (G51)
The native English speakers were considered a resource of English idioms and culture, according to Ranee:

‘…แม้อยู่เพื่อเป็นการเรียนรู้คืนส่วนภาษาที่แน่นอนและรวมถึงวัฒนธรรมต่างๆ (Translation: …teach [students] to learn accurate English idioms and cultures)’ Ranee (G51)

The Facebook-chat data revealed that native English speakers were perceived as necessary because they are a model of English pronunciation, according to Piyada and Patchata:

‘…เพื่อให้ [นักศึกษา] ชินกับส่วนเหล่านี้ เหมาะกับการเรียนรู้ถึงส่วนภาษาที่แน่นอนและรวมถึงส่วนวัฒนธรรมต่างๆ (Translation: …for students to be familiar with accents, able to imitate their native accent and regularly practise speaking English)’ Piyada (G51)

‘การที่ได้เรียนกับอาจารย์ต่างชาติ ไต่เค ส่วนเหล่านี้ทำให้เราได้เรียนรู้ส่วนเหล่านี้ มีเรียนดีเพื่อให้สามารถเรียนรู้ได้ในที่จริง ทำให้เราได้เรียนรู้ถึงส่วนที่แท้จริง (Translation: Learning with Ajarn Farangs [foreign teachers], OK. Their accents are good, allows us to experience authentic [English] accent. Imitating their accent makes my speaking better (a little bit)...’) Patchata (Y2)

Further, it appeared in the Facebook-chat data that only British and American speakers were perceived as native English speakers. Speakers of British English were esteemed more highly by five participants (Hun, Focus, Peranee, Piyada and Ranee).

‘…อยากให้มีครูเจ้าของภาษามาสอนบ้าง เหมาะกับชาวอังกฤษ (Translation: I would like them [native English speakers] to be British and American)’ Hun (G51)

‘…เจ้าของภาษามาสอนบ้าง เหมาะกับชาวอังกฤษ (Translation: real native speakers is British or authentic users of English...’) Focus (G51)

‘…อยากให้มีครูเจ้าของภาษามาสอนบ้าง เหมาะกับชาวอังกฤษหรืออเมริกา... (Translation: I would like to have native (English) teachers who are British or American...)’ Peranee (G51)

‘…จะมีครูเจ้าของภาษามาสอนบ้าง คือชาวอังกฤษ แต่ถ้าไม่ได้เกียรติ... (Translation: ...There should be native [English] teachers who are British. If it is impossible, Americans can be replaced)’ Piyada (G51)

‘…อาจารย์ต่างชาติควรมาสอนจากอังกฤษ หรือไม่เกียรติ... (Translation: ...foreign teachers should come from England or America...)’ Ranee (G51)
Pichaya preferred American English to British English:

‘...ครูเจ้าของภาษา... คือชาวอเมริกาหรือพวกที่พูดอังกฤษสำเนียงอเมริกัน ไม่ยอมเน้นถึง
สระเสียงที่ที่ต้องออกเสียงถูก...’ (Translation: Foreign teachers mean native [English]
speakers who are American or speak American English. If not, British
English)’ Pichaya (Y3)

It appeared in the Facebook-chat that foreign teachers who come from other
countries, rather than Britain or America were perceived as non-native English
speakers. Four participants (Pichaya, Piyada, Baifern, and Panisara) perceived
that non-native English teachers are not good a role model of English
pronunciation. They possess incorrect pronunciation, according to Pichaya:

‘อาจารย์คนต่างชาติสอนเราไม่ใช่เจ้าของภาษาแท้ๆ สระเสียงบางคำให้
ไม่ถูก เนื่องจากเน้นบางคำ ทำให้เราฟังไม่ออก...’
(Translation: current foreign teachers of the programme are not real
native speakers. Their accents are not quite right so that students
do not understand what is said or do not know how it should be
pronounced)’ Pichaya (Y3)

Non-native English speakers produce distorted accent, according to
Piyada:

‘ถ้าเป็นชาติอื่น สระเสียงฟังแล้วเพี้ยนๆค่ะ...’ (Translation: If they are from
other countries, their accents sound distorting...)’ Piyada (G51)

Baifern specifically mentioned Japanese teachers as non-native English
speakers and she perceived that she would learn wrong English
pronunciation from them:

‘If I want to learn English speaking and conversation, I should learn
with native speakers. If I learn with Japanese teacher, I may have
wrong pronunciation.’ Baifern (Y2)

Panisara specifically mentioned Filipino teachers as non-native English
speakers. She reported that it took long time to accustom to certain
consonant sounds produced by Filipino teachers:

‘ถ้าเป็น偾ิปิลิปันต้องปรับตัวนานเพราะการออกเสียงของพยัญชนะบางตัว เราไม่
คุ้นเคย’ (Translation: If teachers are Filipino, it takes time for
accustom myself to their pronunciation of certain
consonants).’ Panisara (G51)
However, it appeared in the Facebook-chat data that native status was not the only requirement of teaching English to the participants. Anut suggested that native English speakers should have knowledge and skills of teaching English:

‘...เจ้าของภาษาที่มีความรู้ความสามารถในการสอนภาษา (Translation: ...a native [English] speaker who has sound understanding and ability to teach a language [English]).’ Anut (G51)

Panisara highlighted the ability to communicate in English clearly, develop students’ speaking skills, and understand nature of learners, and learning and teaching management:

‘เจ้าของภาษาควรสามารถพูดภาษาอังกฤษได้ชัดเจน เข้าใจ มีความรู้ในด้านการพัฒนา น.ศ. ในการทำพุธ มีความรู้ด้านการจัดการเรียนการสอน เข้าใจธรรมชาติผู้เรียน... (Translation: Native [English] speaking teachers should speak clear English. They should understand and have knowledge of developing students’ speaking. They should have knowledge of learning and teaching management. They should understand nature of learners...’) Panisara (G51)

Ranee suggested that native English speaking teachers should have a degree in Education:

‘ยิ่งเป็นnative speakerที่จบทางด้านการสอนจะดีมาก (Translation: Native English teachers who have a degree in teaching will be very fantastic)’ Ranee (G51)

Not taught skills and knowledge (Table 5.2, 4) were perceived as learnt (OQ3) and not learnt (OQ4). Responses to OQ3 were categorised into four sub-codes (Social skills, Study skills, Personality, and Teacher’s ethics/ethos) while responses to OQ4 were related to one sub-codes (Social skills).

Social skills (Table 5.2, 4.2) were perceived as learnt (OQ3) by Ramida and Nadech. Ramida mentioned having fun classes and lovely friends while Nadech highlighted working with other people:

‘...ชั้นเรียนสนุกสนาน เพื่อนในห้องน่ารัก... (Translation: …fun classrooms, lovely classmates…)’ Ramida (Y3)

‘…Working with others...’ Nadech (G51)
However, it appeared that social skills were perceived as not learnt (OQ4) by Susira:

‘I think it is... Because it is common thing that I will meet new people. So they have many feelings and I don’t know who [SIC] are sincerity for me. Just it is difficult that I will receive that skill from this programme.’ Susira (Y2)

Study skills, personality and teacher’s ethics/ethos were perceived as learnt (OQ3) only. Study skills (Table 5.2, 4.2) as learnt comprise solving problems and seeking information by Anne and Peranee:

‘…having social intelligence and skills of solving simple problems’ (Translation: …having social intelligence and skills of solving simple problems)’ Anne (G49)
‘Problem solving…finding information’ Peranee (G51)

Personality (Table 5.2, 4.3) as learnt comprises assertiveness mentioned by Yayaying and behaving mentioned by Anne:

‘...be confident…’ Yayaying (Y2)
‘...behave oneself…’ Anne (G49)

Teacher’s ethics/ethos (Table 5.2, 4.4) as learnt comprise morality mentioned by Margie and psychology for teaching professions mentioned by Anne:

‘Being a good teacher, morality’ Margie (G49)
‘...Most importantly, it is psychology of being a teacher’ Anne (G49)

In summary, the participants felt their course prepared them for work in bilingual schools (RQ2). Most of them gave Rate 10 indicating that their programme is useful for enabling them to work in bilingual schools (OQ5, Section 5.3.1.1). The participants reported that they learnt English and pedagogy and gained internship and research experience from enrolling in the programme. They considered the knowledge and experience useful for enabling them to work in bilingual schools (OQ3, Section 5.3.1.2). However, it appeared in responses to OQ4 (Section 5.3.1.2) that oracy skills (English listening and speaking) were perceived as not learnt more than literacy skills (English reading and writing). Furthermore, the participants reported that they did not learn any subjects related to teaching English in English and they considered the subjects in this
regard necessary for preparing them to work in bilingual schools (OQ4, Section 5.3.1.2), where they have to teach English and probably other subjects through English. Finally, the participants reported that they had insufficient contact with NESTs who they considered would be most useful to improve their English communication skills (OQ4, Section 5.3.1.2).

5.3.2. Self-evaluation

The previous section (5.3.1) reported the programme evaluation reviewed by participants regarding the programme’s potential for preparing them to work in bilingual schools (RQ2). In this section, the participants’ evaluation of their feelings of preparedness, and their evaluation of competences and skills enabling them to work in bilingual schools are examined by CQ40, CQ28-39 and OQ27 (SQ2.1).

5.3.2.1. Rate of Self-preparedness

The following data relate to the CQ40 designed to investigate the participants’ overall feelings about the preparedness for work in bilingual schools. On the horizontal axis, Figure 5.9 illustrates the rate from 0 (being not prepared) to 10 (being well-prepared) indicating the participants’ feelings of preparedness given by the number of participants on vertical axis (N=37). Rate 5, 7 and 8 were selected by the most participants (n=8 for each), followed by Rate 9 (n=5), 10 and 6 (n=3 for each). The smallest rate was ‘1’ (n=1) and no participants selected Rate 2 and 3. This suggested that most participants felt that they were prepared for work in bilingual schools.
5.3.2.2. **Self-evaluation Regarding the Competences and Skills Established by the Ministry**

The following data relate to the CQ28-CQ39 designed for the participants to self-evaluate regarding the competences and skills for work in bilingual schools required by the Ministry. Figure 5.10, which addresses the second step of the analysis of SQ2.1, illustrates that most participants considered themselves competent at the Ministry’s teacher requirements as stated in CQ28-35 but unsure to achieve in certain of them as stated in CQ36-39.
No participants selected the options: strongly disagree and disagree for CQ28-CQ29, CQ31-32 and CQ34. 20 participants strongly agreed that they can create pleasant learning environment through simple learning activities i.e. singing, storytelling, role playing, etc., teaching pre-primary and primary students (CQ28). Over 20 participants (N=37) selected the option: agree indicating that they possess the ability to become aware of learners’ Thai proficiency, their readiness and their interest in learning English (CQ29, n=22), the ability to build up learners’ confidence and to encourage them to communicate in English (CQ30, n=21) and the ability to address ethical issues and values in teachers’ teaching (CQ31, n=21). Over 15 up to 20 participants agreed that they are able to add the issues of loyalty to local and national and Thai identity when designing learning activities (CQ32, n=20), followed by the ability to teach based on the Thai context harmonising with the international culture (CQ33, n=18), the sound understanding of young learners’ behaviours and instruction management (CQ35, n=16), and the ability to follow the Thai curriculum (CQ34, n=15).

Less than half of the participants selected the option: strongly agree or agree for CQ36-CQ39. The ability to have 5.5 in IELTS (CQ36) was perceived as agree by 3 and strongly agree by 2 participants. Similarly, the minority of participants agreed (n=5) and strongly agreed (n=2) that they can have 550 in TOEFL.
The ability to communicate in English as well as native English speakers (CQ38) was perceived as agree by 11 and strong agree by 3 participants. The minority of participants agreed (n=14) and strongly agree (n=2) that they have a good command of English (CQ39). Instead, the frequencies for the option: neither agree nor disagree were high in these questions (n=18, n=15, n=16, and n=17, respectively). This suggested that most participants were likely to be more confident and capable of meeting teacher requirements regarding pedagogy than those regarding English proficiency.

5.3.2.3. The Participants’ Perceptions of Factors Supporting/Hinderin g them to Work in Bilingual Schools

This question (SQ2.1) also considered what makes the participants think they can or cannot teach bilingual programmes through the analysis of responses to OQ27. The participants revealed factors enabling them to work in bilingual schools. Besides, some participants clearly stated whether they believe they can teach bilingual programmes or not. Some of them mentioned both that they are or are not able to do so while some of them mentioned neither one nor the other.

Figure 5.11 illustrates the frequency distributions of a comparison between their feeling that they are, or their feeling that they are not able to work in bilingual schools. As a first group (Can), 15 participants felt they can teach bilingual programmes. Six of them (Susira, Canin, Pat, Focus, Anut and Ranee) clearly stated that they can teach bilingual programmes:

‘I think I can teach bilingual programmes because…’ Susira (Y2)

‘I can teach bilingual programmes, if…’ Canin (Y3)

‘I … so I believe I can teach bilingual programme’ Pat (G49)

‘I can teach bilingual programme because …’ Focus (G51)

‘I think I can teach bilingual programmes and …’ Anut (G51)

‘I can teach bilingual programmes because…’ Ranee (G51)
Six participants (Jensuda, Anne, Peranee, Panisara, Ziwat and Taksaorn) clearly mentioned that they can teach. I interpreted their responses as being able to teach bilingual programmes:

‘I think I can do it in the future because…’ Jensuda (Y3)

‘ฉันสามารถสอนได้ถึงแม้ว่า…’ (Translation: I can teach even though …) Anne (G49)

‘I can teach by …’ Peranee (G51)

‘I can teach the students by …’ Panisara (G51)

‘…These factors result I can teach bilingual programmes’ Ziwat (G51)

Taksaorn considered teaching not difficult. I interpreted her responses as that teaching bilingual programmes is not difficult for her and she thought that she could do it:

‘It is not difficult to teach’ Taksaorn (G49)

Three participants (Woonsen, Patchata, and Baifern) specifically mentioned subjects that they can teach. Woonsen thought she can teach all subjects and she is more confident in teaching English than the others:
‘I… so I can teach every subject, especially, English subject’ Woonsen (G49).

Baifern believed that she would be able to teach grammar. Baifern stressed the fundamental to grammar:

‘I think I can teach basic grammar,…’ Baifern (Y2)

Besides, oracy skills were perceived as can by Baifern and Patchata. The skills seemed to be understood as conversation by Baifern:

‘I think I can teach …, and conversation but …’ Baifern (Y2)

The skills were also regarded as communication by Patchata:

‘Can teach basic communication skills in English…’ Patchata (Y2)

Literacy skills were also perceived as can by Baifern and Patchata. Baifern believed that she could teach reading while Patchata believed that he could teach writing:

‘I think I can teach … reading,…’ Baifern (Y2)

‘… Can teach necessary writing for their diary’ Patchata (Y2)

Apart from English lessons, Patchata believed that he could give an advice on learning English to his students:

‘…Can give advice about English studying problem’ Patchata (Y2)

Figure 5.11 also illustrates that five participants (Atichart, Swiss, Niroot, Taew, and Nadech) had no belief in being able to teach bilingual programmes, as the second group (Cannot). Atichart, Swiss and Niroot clearly stated that they could not teach yet:

‘I cannot teach BP yet. It is because…’ Atichart (Y2)

‘ผมคิดว่าตัวเองยังไม่พร้อมสําหรับการสอนในโรงเรียนสองภาษาในตอนนี้เพราะ … (Translation: I think I am not ready yet for teaching in bilingual schools because…)' Swiss (Y3)

‘cannot’ Niroot (Y3)

Taew and Nadech stressed their feelings relating to teaching bilingual programmes. Confusion and uncertainty were to describe Taew’s feelings:

‘… made me confuse and unsure to teach’ Taew (G49)
Low confidence was held by Nadech:

‘Sometimes, I have no confident enough to teach them because …’
Nadech (G51)

Figure 5.11 illustrates four participants (Yayaying, Aum, Kemupsorn and Margie) with both belief and disbelief in being able to teach bilingual programme, as the third group (Both can and cannot). Yayaying and Aum clearly stated that they could teach particularly primary students. Yayaying seemed to view teaching bilingual programme for primary students as using both Thai and English as a medium of instruction:

‘I think I can ...1. สอนประถมได้ อธิบายเนื้อหาเป็นภาษาไทย แล้วค่อยยกตัวอย่าง
ภาษาอังกฤษ…’ (Translation: ‘...1. teach primary students, explain the contents in Thai and then give examples in English’) Yayaying (Y2)

Aum considered learning contents in primary simple to teach:

‘I can teach primary students because it’s the basic of knowledge.’ Aum (G49).

Kemupsorn and Margie clearly stated that they could teach English. Kemupsorn highlighted grammar and the extent of her teaching performance:

‘I can teach about grammar well…’ Kemupsorn (G49)

Margie highlighted the four skills which she believed she could teach and create learning contents:

I can teach English to my students. The skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing … I can create content for teaching English…’ Margie (G49)

These four participants also stated that they could not teach bilingual programme. Aum had a concern of speaking:

‘...I can't teach in bilingual programmes … I can't communicate in English as well as native English speakers can’ Aum (G49)

Yayaying perceived that she had low level of English grammar and that could not teach through English especially to secondary students:

‘I think I cannot...1. ไม่กล้าสอนมัธยม เพราะยังไม่แม่นเรื่องไวยากรณ์’ แล้วถ้าให้อธิบายหรือพูดทุกอย่างเป็นภาษาอังกฤษคงยากเพราะไม่รู้จะเริ่มยังไง…’ (Translation: ‘...1. I have no courage to teach secondary students because I am not fluent in English grammar. If I need to explain or speak English all the...’ Yayaying (Y2)
time, it might be difficult because I do not know how to start’) Yayaying (Y2)

Kemupsorn dissatisfied with her performance of teaching speaking:
‘…But I can't teach about speaking well’ Kemupsorn (G49)

Margie had a concern of classroom management:
‘I cannot fit the environment in the classroom teaching.’ Margie (G49)

Figure 5.11 illustrates that 13 participants (Mint, Piyada, Ramida, Zakonrat, Yosawadee, Tanya, Hun, Kris, Piyada, Ploy, Rinlanee, Yonlada, and Urassaya) did not clearly state whether they could teach bilingual programmes or not in responses to OQ27, as the fourth group (Neither can nor cannot). Similar to the rest of the participants presented earlier, they provided factors which they felt could enable or hinder them as teachers on the bilingual programmes. Table 5.3 which addresses the analysis of SQ2.1 illustrates the participants’ perceptions of factors in being able to work in bilingual schools (OQ27) using seven codes (Personal preferences and efforts, Qualifications, Nativeness, English, Pedagogy, Experience and Trust). Data from OQ27 revealed that the first two codes (Personal preferences and effort and Qualification) were perceived as positive factors for work in bilingual schools. No participants perceived that they would be able to teach in a bilingual programme without personal preferences and effort, and qualifications.

The personal preferences and efforts (Table 5.3, 1) were perceived as a positive factor enabling five participants (Jensuda, Taksorn, Focus, Ziwat and Canin) to work in bilingual schools. Jensuda was passionate to learn English and showed her effort by mentioning:
‘I think I can do it … because I love the English language… I like to share the thinking with foreigner and I try to practice’ Jensuda (Y3)

Taksorn kept her mind on teaching bilingual programmes by mentioning:
‘It is not difficult to teach’ Taksorn (G49)

Focus believed that her attempts result in ability to work in bilingual schools:
‘I can … because I practice and develop myself always.’ Focus (G51)
Table 5.3: Codes/Sub-codes Established for Responses to OQ27

Regarding the Factors Enabling/Hindering the Participants to

Work in Bilingual Schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-codes (No. of ref)</th>
<th>Factors provided by the participants who believed they can teach bilingual programmes (Can)</th>
<th>Factors provided by the participants who did not believe they can teach bilingual programmes (Cannot)</th>
<th>Factors provided by the participants who did not state whether they can teach or not (Neither can nor cannot)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1. Personal preferences and efforts (5)</strong></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2. Qualifications (2)</strong></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>3. Nativeness (5)</strong></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>4. English (12)</strong></td>
<td>4.1 English education (1) 4.2 Speaking skill (2)</td>
<td>4.2 Speaking skill (1) 4.3 Pronunciation (1)</td>
<td>4.4 English ability in general (2) 4.5 Four skills (2) 4.6 Ability to use English (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>5. Pedagogy (10)</strong></td>
<td>5.1 Learning activities (4) 5.2 Morality as a teaching supplement (1)</td>
<td>5.3 Teaching through English (2)</td>
<td>5.3 Teaching through English (2) 5.4 Concerns of teaching (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>6. Experience (4)</strong></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6.1 Teaching experience (1) 6.2 Experience abroad (1)</td>
<td>6.1 Teaching experience (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>7. Trust (1)</strong></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ziwat described his efforts which he believed that would enable him to work in bilingual schools:

‘Additional study before teaching, the accuracy of the content before teaching, and knowledge around...’ Ziwat (G51)
Canin highlighted his attempts to speak English enabling him to work in bilingual schools:

I can teach…, if I intend and regularly speak English.’ Canin (Y3)

Qualifications (Table 5.3, 2) were also perceived as a positive factor enabling two participants (Susira, and Woonsen) to work in bilingual schools. Susira considered her teacher education programme reliable to prepare her to work in bilingual schools:

‘I think I can … because I …have qualification to do this’ Susira (Y2)

Woonsen emphasised that her teacher education programme in English would enable her to teach any subjects, especially English taught in bilingual programmes:

‘I graduated in English, so I can teach every subject, especially, English subject’ Woonsen (G49).

Nativity (Table 5.3, 3) was mentioned by five participants (Pat, Baifern, Aum, Ploy and Hun). Pat believed that she could work in bilingual school because of being native Thai speakers:

‘I know Thai and ... so I believe I can…’ Pat (G49)

The Facebook-chat data from Patchata, Pat and Yonlada illuminate the detail of knowing Thai and its importance. Patchata emphasised that teachers of bilingual programmes should be skilful at communication in Thai:

‘ครูสอนโปรแกรมสองภาษาควรมีความรู้ภาษาไทยด้วย ความรู้ในที่นี้หมายถึงทักษะด้านการสื่อสาร … ถึงการพูดได้ดี …’ (Translation: Bilingual programme teachers should have knowledge of Thai. I mean communication skill…the art of speaking, perhaps?...)’ Patchata (Y2)

Pat highlighted knowing of two languages (Thai and English) and mentioned that explaining in Thai make students understand better:

‘สอนสองภาษา ครูต้องรู้สอง-ภาษา ถึงสามารถสอน2 ภาษาได้ วิชาภาษาจะทำให้เราอธิบายได้ดีที่สุด เราไม่สามารถสอนได้ถูกต้อง ครูจะต้องมีทักษะที่จะสื่อสารได้ดี (Translation: Teaching bilingual programmes, teachers must know two languages so they can teach through two languages. Knowing two languages enables us to explain things to students better) Pat (G49)
Similarly, Yonlada specifically mentioned translation as a strategy to facilitate students’ understandings of learnt lessons:

‘สมมติสอนภาษาอังกฤษไป เด็กไม่เข้าใจในคำสอนของเรา เราถึงแปลเป็นไทย…’
(Translation: For example, students do not understand what I teach through English, I can translate it into Thai…) ’Yonlada (G51)

However, Baifern who believed that she could teach bilingual programme had a concern of her non-native English accent:

‘…but it not [SIC] good as native speaker because the accent’s Asia has influence in our life’ Baifern (Y2)

In line with this, Aum and Ploy seemed to be less confident about working in bilingual schools because of perceived lack of native-like speaking proficiency by mentioning:

‘…Something that I can’t teach … is my confident [SIC], I can’t communicate in English as well as native English speakers can’ Aum (G49)

‘..Not have self-confidence as well as the native English speaker’ Ploy (G51)

Hun seemed to understand that non-native English speakers have a restriction on topics to teach:

‘In bilingual programmes, NNETs can teach only English Grammar subject, Reading and Writing English subject as well as English Foundations Subject. On the other hand, NNETs cannot teach Listening and Speaking English subject but NES can teach every subject in bilingual programmes’ Hun (G51)

English (Table 5.3, 4) comprise 12 references using six sub-codes (English education, Speaking skill, Pronunciation, English ability in general, Four skills, and Ability to use English). English education (Table 5.3, 4.1) was perceived by Pat as a factor enabling her to work in bilingual schools:

‘I know…and educational English so I believe I can teach…’ Pat (G49)

Speaking skill (Table 5.3, 4.2) was mentioned by three participants (Anne, Anut and Swiss). Despite her lack of fluency and confidence in English, Anne believed that she could work in bilingual schools by mentioning:

‘ฉันสามารถสอนได้ ถึงแม้ว่าฉันยังพูดภาษาอังกฤษยังไม่ค่อยคล่อง เนื่องจากฉันยังขาดความมั่นใจในตัวเองและไม่ค่อยพูดด้วยช้า’ (Translation: I can teach even though I
Am not quite fluent in speaking English. This is because I am not confident and do not speak English regularly’ Anne (G49)

Anut believed that without a good command of speaking English, he cannot teach bilingual programmes. Anut seemed to be confident in his speaking skill (however, see below):

‘I think I can teach bilingual programmes and I think speaking skill is very important for teaching English in bilingual programmes. If I am not good at speaking skill I cannot teach bilingual programmes’ Anut (G51)

The Facebook-chat data from Anut revealed that speaking skill had a negative impact on his confidence in work in bilingual schools. He regarded his conversation as his weak skill:

‘…ด้านการสนทนาเป็นปัญหาสำหรับผมมาก ถึงผมจะเป็นผู้สอนอังกฤษแต่บางครั้งผมก็ยังไม่มั่นใจในการพูดเลย… (Translation: Conversation is a big problem for me. Even though I am an English teacher, sometimes I am not confident in speaking [English] at all)’ Anut (G51)

Likewise, Swiss did not believed that he could not work in bilingual schools for the present without proficiency in English speaking:

‘ผมคิดว่าตัวเองยังไม่พร้อมสำหรับการสอน…เพราะยังไม่สามารถพูดภาษาอังกฤษได้ดีพอและ… (Translation: I think I am not ready yet for teaching…because I am not yet able to speak English well enough and…)’ Swiss (Y3)

Pronunciation (Table 5.3, 4.3) was mentioned by Taew. She believed that her pronunciation was distorted resulting in being unconfident to teach bilingual programmes:

‘My weak pronunciation skill made me confuse and unsure to teach’ Taew (G49)

Data from the Facebook-chat revealed that making wrong pronunciation was a concern for Mint, Piyada, Atichart, and Baifern). English pronunciation and accent had emotional impacts (less confidence and nervous) on Mint who mentioned:

‘ยังรู้สึกไม่มั่นใจ เพราะตื่นเต้น กลัวการออกเสียง หรือ สำเนียงไม่ถูกต้อง (Translation: I am still not confident because I am nervous to the pronunciation or incorrect accent)’ Mint (Y3)

Piyada and Atichart considered their accent and pronunciation as ‘not good’ and ‘wrong’. Piyada reported that ‘not good’ accent results in being disrespected:
‘I think my English accent is not good. It will make the student in bilingual program unrespect...’ Piyada (G51).

Atichart reported that he would make students mispronounce because of his ‘not good pronunciation’:

‘...My pronunciation isn't good enough. If I said anything wrong in class, the students would remember it and do it wrongly as I did...I know that my pronunciation is wrong...’ Atichart (Y2)

Likewise, Baifern highlighted careful pronunciation:

I think sometimes you must teach your students to read some words and speak English. You should be careful with your reading. Otherwise your students may get it wrong and remember it. Baifern (Y2)

English ability in general, Four skills and Ability to use English (Table 5.3, 4.4-4.6) were mentioned by Kris, Yonlada, Tanya, Mint, Piyada and Rinlanee and Ranee. English ability in general (Table 5.3, 4.4) included English skills simply mentioned by Kris:

‘The skills in English’ Kris (G51)

and English proficiency mentioned by Yonlada:

‘Build to confident for command of English language’ Yonlada (G51)

Four skills (Table 5.3, 4.5) comprise listening, speaking, reading and writing in English. Tanya was dissatisfied with her four skills of English:

‘ทักษะฟัง พูด อ่าน เขียน ยังไม่แน่นพอ (Translation: Listening, speaking, reading and writing are not perfect enough)’ Tanya (G49)

Together with the four skills, Mint emphasised the ability to make a connection between teaching contents and principles. She believed that she had to learn more about this:

‘ทักษะการฟัง การพูด การอ่าน และการเขียน และเนื้อหาในการเรียนสอนให้สอดคล้องกับหลักคติที่นั้น ถึงถึงเพิ่มเติมให้มีความรู้มากยิ่งขึ้น ... (Translation: Listening, speaking, reading and writing. Also, teaching contents relevant to principles. I must learn more to know more...)’ Mint (Y3)

Ability to use English (Table 5.3, 4.6) was highlighted by Piyada, Rinlanee and Ranee. Piyada emphasised the ability to use English:

‘ความสามารถในการใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ (Translation: capability in using English)’ Piyada (G51)
Rinlanee emphasised knowledge and understanding of English usage particularly in work or workplace:

‘Knowledge and understanding of its [English’s] use in the work’ Rinlanee (G51)

Ranee highlighted the ability to communicate in English:

‘I can teach...because I can...and communicate in English.’ Ranee (G51)

Pedagogy (Table 5.3, 5) comprises ten references using four sub-codes (Learning activities, Morality as teaching supplement, Teaching through English and Concerns of teaching). Learning activities (Table 5.3, 5.1) were mentioned by Peranee, Ranee, Panisara, and Margie who believe that they can work in bilingual schools. Peranee and Ranee simply mentioned that because of the ability to create simple learning activities, they would be able to work in bilingual schools:

‘I can teach by using simple learning activities...'Peranee (G51)

‘I can teach ... because...I can use simple learning activities and …’ Ranee (G51)

Learning activities or also called activities in short by Panisara include storytelling, role playing, songs and games:

‘I can teach the students by activities such as stories, role plays, songs and games, etc.’ Panisara (G51)

Likewise, Margie mentioned instructional activities which include games, music, dramas, and short stories:

‘...To design instructional activities that are interesting, fun, like games, music, drama, short stories, etc. ..Margie (G49)

Morality as a teaching supplement (Table 5.3, 5.2) was mentioned by Margie who believed that she could work in bilingual schools with the ability to add morality and ethics to her teaching:

‘...In addition, I also supplemented my morals and ethics to children as well’ Margie (G49)
Teaching through English (Table 5.3, 5.3) was mentioned by perceived Swiss, Yayaying, Ramida and Piyada. Swiss and Yayaying clearly stated that they could not teach for lacking of the skills of teaching through English. Teaching through English seemed to be understood as delivery of knowledge in English mentioned by Swiss:

‘...ไม่สามารถถ่ายทอดความรู้ต่างๆเป็นภาษาอังกฤษให้ผู้เรียนเข้าใจได้ (Translation: ... could not deliver knowledge in English, making them understand)’ Swiss (Y3)

Likewise, Yayaying seemed to view teaching through English as explaining and interacting in English:

‘I think I cannot...ถ้าให้อธิบายหรือพูดต่ออย่างเป็นภาษาอังกฤษคงยากเพราะไม่รู้จะเริ่มยังไง... (Translation: I think I cannot...If I need to explain or speak English all the time, it might be difficult because I do not know how to start)’ Yayaying (Y2)

Ramida stressed that the ability to teach through English would be developed alongside learning to teach English and English teaching skills:

‘[หลักสูตร] สามารถช่วยพัฒนาการสอนภาษาอังกฤษ และการพัฒนาทักษะการสอนเพื่อให้สอนความรู้ในภาษาอังกฤษ (Translation: [The programme] could help develop English teaching and English teaching skills for being able to teach through English)’ Ramida (Y3)

Piyada perceived that explaining and speaking in English as difficult for her:

‘I can't explain [in English] to other people understand anything easily or I'm unable to speak [English] intelligibly’ Piyada (Y3).

Data from the Facebook-chat with Atichart, Peranee and Hun revealed that they struggled with teaching through English. These findings illuminate how the participants felt teaching through English difficult for them. Atichart was concerned about the register of English communication for telling the meaning of vocabulary:

‘If I have to teach in English, I cannot do that effectively, when I have to explain the meaning of the word... If I have to explain something in English, I have to think: 1. Who am I talking to? child, primary school or high school 2. What word should I use’ Atichart (Y2)
Peranee considered herself less competent at teaching through English than native-English speakers:

‘...สิ่งที่คิดว่าสอนไม่ได้คือการถ่ายทอดความรู้ การสื่อสารด้วยภาษาอังกฤษ ถ้าสื่อสาร ธรรมดาคุยกันรู้เรื่อง แต่ถ้าสอนโดยใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ มันยากที่จะอธิบายให้ได้ดีเหมือน เจ้าของภาษา ... (Translation: What makes me believe that I cannot teach is about delivering knowledge through communicating in English. I can communicate in English but not teaching through English. It is difficult to explain as well as native English speakers do... ’ Peranee (G51)

Hun seemed to understand that being fluent in classroom language results in the ability to teach through English:

‘...เวลาไปสอนใน EP เราจะไม่คุ้นเคยและเคยชินกับการใช้Classroom language ในบางครั้งเรายังไม่fluency ในการใช้classroom language ...อาจมีติดขัด บาง...Translation: ...Teaching EP [English Programme], I am not familiar and get used to using classroom language. Sometimes I am not fluent in using classroom language...This makes my teaching stuck... ’ Hun (G51)

Concerns of teaching (Table 5.3, 5.4) were perceived by Zakonrat mentioned it as a factor in hindering her to work in bilingual programme:

‘Concerned that teaching is wrong’ Zakonrat (Y3)

Experience (Table 5.3, 6) comprises four references using two sub-codes: Teaching experience (6.1) and Experience abroad (6.2). Atichart reported that without experience, he could not teach bilingual programme:

‘I cannot teach ... yet. It is because I don't have any necessary experience ...’ Atichart (Y2)

Yosawadee simply mentioned teaching experience:

‘ประสบการณ์ในการสอน (Translation: teaching experience) ’ Yosawadee (Y4)

Ploy highlighted that having little teaching experience results in less opportunity to work in bilingual schools:

‘Not good enough experience. Must require much teaching practicing...Less opportunity to welcome who are inexperienced’ Ploy (G51)

Data from the Facebook-chat made significant additions to teaching experience which the participants considered useful and what they would gain from the experience in order to work in bilingual schools. Seven participants (Hun,
Patchata, Piyada, Pichaya, Atichart, Nadech, and Panisara) suggested a school site with bilingual programmes. Hun mentioned that a bilingual school as a school site should have well-designed curriculum, qualified staff, and sufficient teaching media:

‘ควรจะไปฝึกประสบการณ์ในโรงเรียน ที่มีความพร้อมในด้านหลักสูตรสถานศึกษา บุคลากร และกิจกรรมในการเรียนการสอน...ควรจะมีหลักสูตรในโรงเรียนที่มี EP หรือ MINI EP ครับ (Translation: should have a teaching internship at a school with well-design curriculum, qualified staff and teaching media. Should have a teaching experience at a school with EP or Mini EP) Hun (G51)

Patchata considered a top rank school with EP very useful:

‘...ถ้าต้องการผลิตครูให้สอนได้ทั้งใน EP และ Mini EP และ normal programme น่าจะให้นรไปฝึกสอนที่โรงเรียนสองภาษา (Translation: ...If the production of teachers who can teach both in bilingual and monolingual schools i.e. EP, Mini EP and normal programme is an objective, student teachers should be sent to a school site with bilingual programmes) Piyada (G51)

Similarly, Piyada and Pichaya perceived a school site with bilingual programmes useful. Piyada stressed that the school site with bilingual programme is a must when the teacher education programme aims to prepare its student teacher to work in bilingual schools:

‘...ถ้าต้องการผลิตครูให้สอนได้ทั้งใน EP หรือ MINI EP น่าจะให้นรไปฝึกสอนที่โรงเรียนสองภาษา (Translation: ...If the production of teachers who can teach both in bilingual and monolingual schools i.e. EP, Mini EP and normal programme is an objective, student teachers should be sent to a school site with bilingual programmes) Piyada (G51)

Pichaya and Piyada believed that they would obtain learning opportunities relating to classroom observations, teacher assistants, teaching practice and administration from teaching internship at bilingual schools:

‘...หนูคิดว่า ควรเป็นโรงเรียนที่มีระบบอีพี หรือ Mini EP ครับ (Translation: ...I think it should be a school with EP where I can observe and assist teachers and practise teaching before graduation) Pichaya (Y3)

‘ประเภท โรงเรียนที่มี bilingual school น่าจะเป็น EP หรือ MINI EP ครับ (Translation: A school site should be a bilingual school with Mini EP or EP...There, I begin my teaching internship with observing curriculum, administration, teaching and practising teaching) Piyada (G51)
Atichart and Nadech highlighted teaching practise in bilingual schools. Atichart mentioned that he could learn how to teach bilingually from the problems occurring while he teaches in class.

‘Well, I also need an experience teaching EP. I'll receive the exp [experience] for sure, then after I taught through English, I'll notice what I did wrong, ... Is there any problems such as the kids don’t understand what I said, I spoke too fast, or my pronunciation is quite bad? after I know what the problem is, I'm sure that I can fix it’
Atichart (Y2)

Nadech mentioned that he could understand bilingual students’ behaviours and needs. With the understandings of these, he believed that he could be able to present himself as a teacher of bilingual programmes properly:

‘If I have experienced [being serving an internship in bilingual schools]...At least, I … know their behaviours. I think they are different from students in normal classes. I can act myself to be right way...’ Nadech (G51)

Panisara mentioned that teaching internship at a bilingual school would allow her to use English:

‘...เห็นดีกว่าการฝึกสอน ป [โปรแกรม] 2 ภาษาทำให้เราได้ใช้ภาษา และได้มีการพัฒนาตัวเองตลอดเวลาค่ะ ... (Translation: ... I think teaching internship at bilingual programme allows me to use English, practise or self-develop all the time)’ Panisara G51)

Further, the Facebook-chat data revealed that two participants (Peranee and Anut) were satisfied with practising teaching in monolingual schools. Both stressed that the schools sites should be well managed, with good leadership.

Peranee perceived that a well-qualified school site is a successful school providing effective learning and teaching management.

‘...อยากให้เป็นโรงเรียนที่มีการจัดการเรียนการสอนดีๆ ...ที่โรงเรียนขนาดใหญ่...ชาวต่างชาติที่มาสอนคัดอย่างดี...เราได้ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษเพราะต้องคุยกับครูต่างประเทศ... (Translation: ... At a big school, it is very selective in recruiting foreign teachers...I can use English because I must talk to them all the time. We co-teach...)’ Peranee (G51)
A nut described a well-qualified school as a school with effective learning management. However, he suggested that a school site with bilingual programmes could be available for student teachers to have a classroom observation:

‘คุณควรจะจัดโรงเรียนที่มีการจัดการเรียนรู้ที่ดีให้นักศึกษา ...ไม่ถึงกับไปสอนสองภาษา...แต่ไปสังเกตการสอนก็ได้ ได้เรียนรู้เยอะ ๆ (Translation: The Faculty should arrange school with good learning management for student teachers. It is not a must to practise teaching bilingual programmes...but only to observe teaching. Then I can learn a lot)’ Anut (G51)

The Face-book chat data also revealed that both types of schools (monolingual and bilingual programmes) should be available for student teachers mentioned by two participants (Focus and Ranee). Similar to Anut, Focus did not perceived bilingual schools as a must school site:

‘อาจจะสอนโปรแกรมสองภาษาได้เพื่อให้เรียนรู้... (Translation: Practise teaching bilingual programmes is an option for me to learn...)’ Focus (G51)

Ranee suggested that bilingual schools should be in arrangement for student teachers who are keen on teaching bilingual programme after graduation.

‘สถานที่ฝึกควรให้ตรงกับความต้องการของนักศึกษามากกว่าคะ นักศึกษาบางคนอาจจะต้องการที่โรงเรียนสองภาษา...ควรเปิดโอกาสให้นักศึกษาได้มีทางเลือกที่หลากหลาย และตรงกับความต้องการ... (Translation: A school site should be arranged to respond to student teachers’ need. For example, I would like to work in bilingual schools, I should be allowed to have classroom observation there...[The Faculty] should provide student teachers an alternative which meets their need)’ Ranee (G51)

Experience abroad (Table 5.3, 6.2) seemed to be understood as a factor in enabling some participants to work in bilingual school. Responding to OQ27, Nadech seemed to view experience abroad as necessary for building up his confidence

‘I think I study English major. I wish I must go abroad once, like stay a month or six months. It increases my confidence’ Nadech (G51)

Further, experience abroad seemed to be perceived by students as necessary for English teacher which was mentioned by Nadech:
‘Go abroad. My students always ask me, ‘have you [ever] gone abroad?’ They think I am an English teacher I must have gone abroad’ Nadech (G51)

The Facebook-chat data also indicated that experience abroad was perceived as necessary for Panisara. She mentioned that she might be allowed to practise teaching students of bilingual programmes during her internship if she has experience abroad:

‘...หนูฝึกโรงเรียนมี Eng program แต่หนูได้สอนห้องธรรมดา หากรักได้ก็จะไป ต่างประเทศมีประสบการใช้ภาษาอาจจะได้สอนเอนกในโปรแกรมละ หนูคิดเองนะครับ…’ (Translation: …I served my internship at a school with Eng [English] Programme. However, I was assigned to teach normal [non-EP] classrooms. If I had experience abroad, I would have been allowed to teach English programme. That’s what I think…)’ Panisara (G51)

Trust (Table 5.3, 7) was mentioned by Urassaya. She regarded trust as factor in enabling her to teach bilingual programme by simply mentioning it:

‘trust’ Urassaya (G51)

The Facebook-chat data from Patchata and Piyada revealed that it was not easy for student teachers to gain trust from school sites especially those schools with bilingual programmes. Patchata reported his instructor’s view on the low possibilities to have bilingual schools as school sites for teaching internship:

‘พวกผมเคยถามเรื่องการฝึกสอนจากอาจารย์ดาวิกา [นามสมมติ] แอบบอกว่า ขนาดห้องธรรมดาในโรงเรียนธรรมดา ก็ยังถ้าได้ยาก ยิ่งถ้าเป็นโรงเรียนแบบระดับท็อปที่ มีอีพ แล้วให้เราไปสอนด้วย คงได้ยาก…’ (Translation: We used to ask Ajarn Davikar [pseudonym] about teaching internship. She mentioned that it is now difficult to get a normal classroom from a normal school as a school site. It will be even more difficult, if it is a top rank school with EP…)’ Patchata (Y2)

Piyada clearly stated that the bilingual schools do not trust in student teachers’ teaching ability. They will be allowed only to observe classrooms and assist foreign teachers:

‘...โรงเรียนเหล่านี้ที่กล่าวไป [Bilingual school, Mini EP and EP] จะไม่เคย ไว้ใจ เรา ให้เรารูรักก่อน ถ้าให้เข้าไปสังเกตการสอนเราจะได้… หรือว่าไปช่วย อาจารย์บางครั้ง…’ (Translation:…These schools [bilingual schools, Mini EP and EP] do not quite trust student teachers to teach. They might possibly allow us to observe teaching…or assist foreign teachers)’ Piyada (G51)
In summary, this section (5.3.2) which addresses SQ2.1 firstly presented that most participants considered themselves well prepared for work in bilingual schools by giving Rate 5, 7, 8 (n= 8 for each), 9 (n=5), 10 and 6 (n=3 for each) in responding to CQ40 (Section 5.3.2.1, Figure 5.9). Secondly, the participants also evaluated themselves regarding competences and skills required by the Ministry in order to work in bilingual school (Section 5.3.2.2). Responses to CQ28-39 indicated that most participants were likely to be more confident and capable of teacher requirements regarding pedagogy than those regarding English proficiency (Figure 5.10). Finally, the participants responded to CQ27 and identified seven factors (Personal preferences and efforts, Qualifications, Nativeness, English, Pedagogy, Experience and Trust) in making them feel able (or not) to work in bilingual schools (Section 5.3.2.3, Table 5.3). These factors seemed to be related to RQ3 regarding the participants' perception of ways to improve their teacher education programme which will be presented in the section (5.4).

5.4. Research Question 3

The question (RQ3) considered the participants' perceptions of ways to improve their teacher education programme in order to sufficiently prepare them for work in bilingual schools. OQ6 was employed to consider this question and findings from the Facebook-chat data were added for further illustrative evidence and depth. Table 5.4 illustrates the codes and sub-codes established for OQ6. The four codes comprise English, Education, Instructors and Instruction. Sub-codes were established to represent the four codes which captured the relevant references.
### Table 5.4: Codes/Sub-codes Established for Responses to OQ6 Regarding the Participants’ Perceptions of Ways to Improve Their Teacher Education Programme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codes (no. of references)</th>
<th>Sub-codes (no. of references)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. English (17)</td>
<td>1.1 Oracy skills (8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.2 Four skills (5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.3 Skills of using English (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.4 Advanced translation (1)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.5 Critical thinking and stereotype of English (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.6 Grammar (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Education (14)</td>
<td>2.1 Subjects relating to teaching including teaching English, teaching through English and teaching bilingual programmes (7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.2 Subjects relating to educational and bilingual curriculum (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.3 Subjects relating to instructional media (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.4 Subjects relating to research study (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Instructors (7)</td>
<td>3.1 Involvement of native English speakers/foreigners as a teacher or exchanged student (5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.2 Instructors teaching through English (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Instruction (8)</td>
<td>4.1 Learning through activities (5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.2 Inclusive education (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.3 Fair assignment and evaluation (1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 5.4.1. English

Data from OQ6 revealed that English was identified as a topic that most participants desire to learn more about, apart from the existing courses provided by their teacher education programme (Table 5.4, 1). Six sub-codes of English (Oracy skills, Four skills, Skills of using English, Advanced translation, Critical thinking and stereotype of English, and Grammar) were established. Oracy skills (Table 5.4, 1.1) were mentioned by eight participants (Peranee, Ramida,
Taew, Mint, Ploy, Niroot, Kemupsorn, and Swiss). Oracy skills were perceived as oral communication mentioned by Peranee:

‘...oral communication’ Peranee (G51)

The oracy skills seemed to be understood as conversation skills mentioned by Ramida:

‘Add conversation workshop’ Ramida (Y3)

The oracy skills were also regarded as English speaking and listening mentioned by Taew and Mint:

‘promote students to develop themselves for listen-speaking skill’ Taew (G49)

‘วิชาที่เพิ่มเติมทักษะการพูดและการฟัง... (Translation: A topic as a supplement to listening and speaking skill)’Mint (Y3)

Further, the oracy skills were specifically perceived as speaking skills by Ploy, Niroot, Kemupsorn and Swiss:

‘To increase chances on English speaking by…’ Ploy (G51)

‘Speaking Skill’ Niroot (Y3)

‘Speaking’ Kemupsorn (G49)

‘โปรแกรมที่ส่งเสริมทักษะการพูดภาษาอังกฤษได้... (Translation: A programme which improves English speaking…)’ Swiss (Y3)

Swiss stressed that most students struggle in the speaking skill:

‘...เพราะเป็นทักษะที่นักเรียนส่วนใหญ่มีปัญหามากที่สุด (Translation: …because it [speaking skill] is the skills with which many students struggle the most)’ Swiss (Y3)

Four skills (Table 5.4, 1.2) were mentioned by five participants (Pat, Jensuda, Baifern, Aum, and Panisara). The four skills were simply mentioned by Pat:

‘Help me improve 4 skills’ Pat (G49)

and English skills by Jensuda and Baifern:

‘Knowledge, skills, ... of English’ Jensuda (Y3)

‘...need in skills of English’ Baifern (Y2)
The four skills were also specifically mentioned as listening, speaking, reading and writing by Aum and Panisara:

‘…programme [that] can help me many thing such as listening, speaking, reading and writing in English’ Aum (G49)

‘A good 4 skills of the English language (listening, speaking, reading and writing)’ Panisara (G51)

The sub-codes: Advanced translation, Critical thinking and stereotype of English, and Grammar contain one reference for each mentioned by Yonlada, Jensuda, and Urassaya (Table 5.4, 1.4-1.6). Yonlada expressed her need in a topic related to English translation:

‘Advance translation’ Yonlada (G51)

Jensuda mentioned critical thinking and stereotype of English:

‘…critical thinking and stereotype of English’ Jensuda (Y3)

Urassaya expressed the need to learn English grammar:

‘need the instructor teaching many more grammar or need one subject that teaching only grammar...’ Urassaya (G51)

Data from the Facebook-chat illustrate the participants’ experience of learning English listening and speaking (oracy skills) which was perceived as useful. Panisara considered herself confident in her speaking because of speaking tests with her instructors’ feedback and teaching practice in English:

‘…มีการสอบพูด และได้รับการ comment. จาก อ. ผู้สอน ทำให้เรารู้ว่าต้องปรับหรือแก้ ด้านใด เพราะได้เรียน และสอบสอนเป็นภาษาอังกฤษจะด้วยเหตุนี้ทำให้หนูมีความมั่นใจใน การพูดคะ...’ (Translation: There were speaking tests and I got comments on them from my instructors. These made me aware of what I should correct. Because learning and have teaching practice in English, I am confident in speaking)’ Panisara (G51)

The Facebook-chat data from Piyada clarified that pre-service teachers practised speaking English and received feedback through the activities as follows: impromptu speech, symposium and debate. Piyada considered these activities useful for improving her English speaking:

‘...พูด impromptu speech Symposium นำเสนอหน้าชั้นเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ Debate พูดได้เรียนเกี่ยวกับคุณค่า รู้สึกว่าทำให้พูดภาษาอังกฤษดีขึ้น...’ (Translation: …After learning these: doing impromptu speech, symposium, speaking...
English in front of the classroom and debate, I feel my English speaking is better; Piyada (G51)

while Anut considered the above activities insufficient for his need in improving his speaking skill. He suggested extracurricular activities:

‘...activities for improving students' speaking skill should be arranged regularly. For example, the activity relevant to mock job interviews. Or attending conferences. Practical activities which could be applied to daily life or different situation. I hardly practise speaking English unless I enrol on the speaking courses. I suggested that these activities should be arranged as a supplementary to the curriculum' Anut (G51)

The Facebook-chat data also reveal how student teachers learn English listening. Focus reported that she learnt it through CDs and doing listening comprehension exercises:

‘I did a listening test, listening to a CD track and choosing the right answer. I tried to understand the main idea of the listened story' Focus (G51)

Further, Panisara reported through the Facebook-chat that she practised her English listening from native English speakers and Thai instructors using English as a medium of instruction:

‘...listening to instructors teaching through English and to native English speaking teachers allowed me to practise listening skills' Panisara (G51)

5.4.2. Education

The responses to OQ6 revealed that the participants proposed four topics relating to Education that should be included in their teacher education programme (Table 5.4, 2). The four topics were represented through four sub-codes (Table 5.4, 2.1-2.4). First, subjects relating to teaching include teaching English, teaching through English and teaching bilingual programmes (Table 5.4, 2.1) were mentioned by six participants (Atichart, Rinlanee, Canin, Anut, Yosawadee, and Focus). Atichart emphasised teaching methods:
‘Teaching "How to do" not teaching "What in the book"’ Atichart (Y2)

Rinlanee mentioned teacher training:
‘Teacher training Programs’ Rinlanee (G51)

Teaching English was mentioned by Canin and Anut:
‘Learning principles that focus about how to teach English’ Canin (Y3)

I can get many methodologies in teaching English form the English teacher education programme... Anut (G51)

Aanut further suggested a topic relating to teaching bilingually:
Moreover, this [a] programme [that] helps me to understand how to teach English language for bilingual school Anut (G51)

Similarly, Yosawadee expressed her need to learn about this topic:
‘ควรจะเพิ่มเติม วิชาการสอน ที่เกี่ยวกับการสอนแบบสองภาษา... (Translation: A topic relating to teaching relevant to teaching bilingually...)’ Yosawadee (Y4)

Focus specifically mentioned a topic relevant to teaching by using English as a medium of instruction:
‘Teaching in English’ Focus (G51)

Focus explained the need in the topic relating to teaching English through English through the Facebook-chat data. She believed that this topic would enable her to use English as a medium of instruction appropriately to her students:

 คนที่เรียนครูอยู่แล้วจะรู้วิธีการว่าต้องถ่ายทอดออกมาอย่างไร แต่ถ้าหากเป็นครูภาษาอังกฤษอีกก็จะรู้ได้ว่า ภาษาอังกฤษมีความเหมาะสมกับนักศึกษา...ตัววิชาที่สอน (Translation: Student teachers basically know how to teach. However, student teachers of English would be able to know how to use English appropriately to their students... [when learning] the topic [relevant to teaching English through English])’ Focus (G51)

The Facebook-chat data from Atichart revealed that he also expressed a need in learning this topic. Atichart perceived that learning this topic would enable him to teach through English:
‘I suggest that Faculty should have a new class for teaching through English... the words I should use to explain to the primary school students. Teaching through English methodology. If I know how to do, I can get it done’ Atichart (Y2)
Secondly, Subjects relating to educational and bilingual curriculum (Table 5.4, 2.2) were mentioned by three participants (Piyada, Margie, and Taksaorn). Piyada emphasised that teaching contents should be practical for her future teaching:

‘...การสอนโดยเน้นเนื้อหาที่จะใช้ในภาคสนามเรียนได้จริง... (Translation: teaching should be stressed on the content that will be really taught to the students...)’ Piyada (G51)

Margie specifically mentioned a topic related to the national curriculum:

‘Basic Education Curriculum’ Margie (G49)

Taksaorn specifically mentioned a topic related to the curriculum of bilingual programme:

‘[the curriculum of] bilingual program’ Taksaorn (G49)

Thirdly, Subjects relating to instructional media (Table 5.4, 2.3) were mentioned by three participants (Kris, Peranee, and Ziwat). Kris expressed their need to study using electronic media for instruction:

‘...และการใช้สื่ออิเล็กทรอนิกส์ (Translation: ...and using electronic media)’ Kris (G51)

Peranee mentioned skills of using computer:

‘develop the essential skills such as computer use...’ Peranee (G51)

Ziwat expressed the desire to have a programme suggesting instruction media which are ready to be adopted:

‘Instruction programmed because this program is finished and very easy for teach many students. Importantly, teachers don’t have to waste time make an instructional media’ Ziwat (G51)

Finally, Subjects relating to research study (Table 5.4, 2.4) were perceived by Piyada who expressed the desire to learn, conduct a classroom research and any software relevant to doing research:

‘...สอนการกำกับวิจัยในชั้นเรียน การใช้โปรแกรมต่างๆ ที่เกี่ยวข้องกับการวิจัยอย่างเจาะลึก... (Translation: ...teaching how to conduct a classroom research and how to use different software relevant to research, deeply)’ Piyada (G51)
Instructors

The responses to OQ6 revealed that the participants’ perceptions of improving their teacher education programme were associated with instructors (Table 5.4, 3) comprised two sub-codes. First, Involvement of native English speakers or foreigners as an exchange student or teacher (Table 5.4, 3.1) was mentioned by five participants (Ploy, Woonsen, Piyada, Zakonrat, and Susira). Ploy suggested that there should be more exchange students because she believed that the student teachers would practise English with them:

‘Student exchange may be have more and more in class in order to practice them in the same time’ Ploy (G51)

Woonsen clearly stated that foreign teachers teaching her teacher education programme should be British or American:

‘Teaching by foreigners in English (British or American)’ Woonsen (G49)

It was believed that foreigners could improve two participants’ oracy skills (listening and speaking). Pichaya suggested foreigners associated with learning because she believed that her English speaking and listening would be improved:

‘Often should invite some foreigners to involve in our learning, so we can improve speaking and listening’ Pichaya (Y3)

Zakonrat desired to be taught by foreigners because she believed that she could practise speaking English with them:

‘Practice speaking with foreigners.’ Zakonrat (Y2)

Further, Susira perceived foreigners as necessary and she identified them as a consultant who gave an accurate advice on teaching English:

‘Now it make me can communicate with foreigners and then I can consult with them about how to learn and teach English correct for my children. My children just have the best base skill from me. Because I think this programme give the thing for me and for my children’ Susira (Y2)

Despite the above findings (Section 5.4.3) that many participants desire to be taught by British and American as native English speakers, data from the Facebook-chat with Baifern (Y2) revealed that she considered the native English speaking teachers as important as Thai teachers:
‘I think native English speakers aren’t more important than Thai teachers. Everybody is equally important but native English speakers help you develop your [English speaking & pronunciation] skill.’ Baifern (Y2)

Secondly, Instructors teaching through English (Table 5.4, 3.2) were mentioned by two participants (Urassaya and Hun). Urassaya expressed her desire to be taught by an instructor using English as a medium of instruction:

‘...need the instructor teaching in English all class.’ Urassaya (G51)

Similarly, Hun expressed the need in using English as a medium of instruction and he suggested that teaching through English should be applied to all major subjects (English) and then to subjects relating to curriculum and research study:

‘I think that this programme should teach in English language more and more and then every subject must teach in English such as ‘Curriculum' or ‘Research' subject’ Hun (G51)

The Facebook-chat data revealed that eight participants (Anut, Patchata, Atichart, Mint, Nadech, Peranee, Pat, and Pichaya) were pleased with Thai teachers who use English as a language of instruction. Anut highlighted the opportunity to learn how to explain teaching contents in English and classroom language from his instructors teaching through English:

‘ผมพอใจกับอาจารย์ที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษสอนในระดับมาก อย่างที่เห็นได้ชัดเจนที่สุดคือ การพัฒนาการฟังและการพูด อืม... ถึงโดยทั่วไปสิ่งที่มีผลต่อพัฒนาการพูด พัง เช่น การพูดอธิบายเนื้อหาการเรียน และการใช้ classroom language แบบง่ายๆเพื่อให้นักเรียนเข้าใจ (Translation: I am very pleased with Ajarns who teach through English. Obviously, it improves my speaking and listening skill. Umm…in general, it has a vital influence on speaking, listening e.g. explaining the teaching contents and using simple classroom language in order to facilitate learners’ understanding)’. Anut (G51)

Patchata highlighted the opportunity for active learning when English is used as a medium of instruction:

‘From my thinking, [that] lecturers speak English while they teach is good. It makes students in class use English more especially when they have to think and share their opinions’ Patchata (Y2)

Atichart believed that learning through English would improve his English speaking and listening:
‘Some of Ajarns\(^7\) did it. They teach both in Thai and English. I love it. I love to learn through English. It can improve my skill very fast. I guess I better learn through listening and speaking…’ Atichart (Y2)

Likewise, Mint perceived English as a medium of instruction useful to improve English speaking:

‘โดยปกติอาจารย์ก็จะใช้ภาษาอังกฤษสื่อสารกับนักเรียนอยู่แล้ว...หนูคิดว่าอาจารย์ช่วยฝึกพัฒนาการพูดของนักเรียน… (Translation: Actually, Ajarns communicate in English with students…I think they instructors using English as a language of instruction) help students improve English speaking’ Mint (Y3)

Nadech believed that his English would sound more natural when he speaks and listens to English more and learning through English would help:

‘Teach through English at all times. Like we must talk in English every time. Everyone speaks. Only English major students. When I want to see you (instructors), I must use English. At home, another places, we don’t use English and it makes us speak unnaturally’ Nadech (G51)

Peranee encouraged instructors teaching through English because this would help pre-service teachers experience different accents of English and get used to them. She also mentioned that pre-service teachers would improve their English through either learning with Thai or native English speakers:

‘ครูไทยพูดอิ้งกับนศ.ก็ดีค่ะ ช่วยฝึกการฟังแต่ต้องให้เด็กได้ฟังหลายๆสําเนียง จะได้คุ้นเคย… (Translation: That Thai instructions communicate in English with students is good. This helps student practice English listening to different accents. We will get used to them…If I listen to English more often, either from Thai or foreign [Native English speakers] instructors, my English should be improved to some extent)’ Peranee (G51)

Peranee further mentioned that teaching through English should be applied to all subjects:

‘ความเป็นไปได้เต็มที่ก็คงจะเฉพาะวิชาเอกแต่ถ้าได้ทุกวิชาจะดีมาก... (Translation: Teaching through English might be possible for English subjects. It will be very good, if this applies to all subjects)’ Peranee (G51)

Similarly, Pat expressed her desire to learn all major subjects through English:

‘หนูอยากให้มีการเรียนการสอนเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ...ทุกวิชาวิชาอิ้งค่ะ...วิชาเรา...วิชาเอก...วิชาอื่นสอนในแบบอังกฤษบ้าง(Translation: I wish I learn through

\(^7\)A pronoun and a title for an instructor in Thailand
Likewise, Yayaying suggested that Thai instructors of major subjects (English) should teach through English and also she perceived Thai as necessary when students do not understand:

‘อย่างง่ายควรให้อ.ไทยที่มีอยู่สอนเป็นอังกฤษหมด เฉพาะวิชาอังกฤษ  หากไม่เข้าใจก็อาจจะ มีอธิบายเป็นไทยนิดๆ... (Translation: Simply, Thai instructors should teach through English, only English subjects. If students do not understand, they can explain in Thai a little bit)’ Yayaying (Y2)

Mint did not believe that English as a medium of instruction would be appropriated to a topic related to education because of the complexity of the contents:

‘...วิชาครูเป็นค่อนข้างยาก อธิบายเป็นภาษาไทยให้นักเรียนเข้าใจน่าจะดีกว่า... (Translation: courses of education are quite difficult. Explaining in Thai to students would be better for them to understand…)’ Mint (Y3)

5.4.4. Instruction

The responses to OQ6 revealed that the participants’ perceptions of ways to improve their teacher education programme associated with Instruction (Table 5.4, 4) which consists of three sub-codes: Learning through activities, Inclusive education and Fair assignment and evaluation. The first sub-code (Table 5.4, 4.1) was mentioned by five participants: Baifern, Ranee, Mint, Ploy, and Anut. Learning through activities should be done regularly, according to Baifern:

‘...practice in everyday...’ Baifern (Y2)

Ranee emphasised the quantity of learning activities which she felt should be increased:

‘Make more learning activities’ Ranee (G51)

Mint highlighted the interaction between instructors and pre-service teachers while doing learning activities which she believed that could build up their confidence in speaking and communication:

‘มีการจำกลั่นเอาที่ปรึกษากับครู มีความกล้าที่จะพูด และ สื่อสารมากยิ่งขึ้น (Translation: Pre-service teachers should do activities more often together with instructors. This enables them to have courage to speak and communicate more)’ Mint (Y3)
Similarly, learning activities were perceived as an opportunity for Ploy to practise English speaking:

‘To increase chances on English speaking by activities...’ Ploy (G51)

Anut highlighted that learning activities applied should enhance skills and knowledge of teaching English:

‘English teacher education programme [that] have a lot of activities for preparing students to become an English teacher’ Anut (G51)

Table 5.4, 4.2 illustrates the second sub-code of Instruction (Inclusive education) was mentioned by two participants (Nadech and Baifern). Nadech highlighted that an arrangement of any workshop should be set up and for all students of all majors:

‘should hold the seminar to all programme students to let them have more confident’ Nadech (G51)

Baifern perceived student teachers as a human and each individual deserves an attention:

‘...Interested of human...’ Baifern (Y2)

Table 5.4, 4.3 illustrates the third sub-code of Instruction (Fair assignment and evaluation) mentioned by one participant. Yayaying expressed the need in sufficient examples for doing assignments. To her, teaching seemed to be less useful when little examples for doing an assignment were given:

‘...แค่ยกตัวอย่างให้เยอะๆเวลาสั่งงานเด็ก...ตอนหนู...เรียนการเขียนทางวิชาการ กับ อ.ชาติโยดม [นามสมมติ]... เสร็จก็สอนดีนะ มีตัวอย่างให้ดูแต่มีแค่1-2 ตัวอย่าง...’ Yayaying (Y2)

Yayaying further highlighted the fairness of marking the assignments:

‘...ไม่ควรหักคะแนนเด็ดขาดไว้...เวลาสั่งงานถ้าเขียนผิดไวยากรณ์ หักได้ครึ่งคะแนน ถ้าทำงานเน็ตเต็ม10 หนนก็ดีประมาณ3-4... ถ้าควรจะเขียนเยอะได้มีอยู่คนที่เขียนเนียนได้เยอะ...’ Yayaying (Y2)

In summary, this section (5.4) addresses RQ3 through presenting the responses to OQ6 using four codes: English, Education, Instructors and
Instruction (Table 5.4). Further, findings from the Facebook-chat data were added for further illustrative evidence and depth. Firstly, the findings revealed that English was identified as a topic especially relating to oracy skills that most participants would like to develop more during their programme. Secondly, the participants perceived Education as a topic that should consist of subjects relating to teaching through English, teaching bilingual programmes, and subjects relating to bilingual curriculum. The third was related to instructors and the participants expressed their need in learning with native English speakers and in learning with Thai instructors using English as a medium of instruction. Finally, regarding instruction, the participants expressed their desire to learn through activities, in an inclusive classroom and receiving fair assignment and evaluation.
CHAPTER SIX – DISCUSSION

6.1. Introduction

Answers to the research questions (RQs) of this dissertation based on relevant findings have been provided in Chapter 5. To summarise these, RQ1 focussed on the extent to which the English teacher education programme facilitated knowledge about the system and the requirements of teachers of bilingual education in Thailand (See definition in Section 3.3.2). RQ2 and SQ2.1 were concerned with the competence and skills which pre-service teachers require to teach in bilingual schools. RQ3 focussed on the extent to which the English teacher education programme could be improved from the pre-service teachers’ perspectives and through the consideration of their knowledge as presented in RQ1 and their competence as presented in RQ2.

In response to RQ1, the English teacher education programme has a potential to prepare its pre-service teacher to work in bilingual schools, in terms of providing information of bilingual education system and the requirements of teachers which are in line with the Ministry’s order as investigated through SQ1.1. The pre-service teachers gained an understanding in these regards above all through serving an internship in a bilingual school, rather than through the engagement with the programme content as presented in the course construction (Section 2.5).

Concerning RQ2 and SQ2.1, the pre-service teachers in this study thought more training in English and EMI especially for English-related courses are required, rather than Thai as a medium of instruction. There is nothing “wrong” with the programme as the programme aims to train English teachers. However, the study has shown that the programme is not perceived as adequate for training bilingual teachers. Findings show that pre-service teachers have low confidence in their English skills, believing that their own non-native English competence is inadequate for teaching content through English. This perception appears to be exacerbated by the fact that they are expected to assist NESTs or observe their teaching in bilingual schools, rather than being offered an opportunity to teach.

RQ3 supported this general conclusion that this is not a bilingual teacher education programme. The increase in the programme’s potential to prepare its
pre-service teachers for bilingual education relates to the development of knowledge, competence and skills. Relating to the knowledge, the pre-service teachers expressed the desire to learn about bilingual education, the theory and teaching (English) through English. Relating to the competence and skills, the pre-service teachers suggested that English should be used as a medium of instruction for the English teacher education programme. This, they believed, would improve the pre-service teachers’ English skills and develop the competence of teaching English through English which are perceived as necessary for working in bilingual schools.

In the following sections (Section 6.2 - Section 6.6), supports for these arguments will be provided through a discussion of the findings. This will incorporate references to the literature reviewed in Chapter 3 to show how the findings of the present study are supported by or challenged by previous research.

The critique of the programme based on perceptions served as a basis for a possible model to develop a bilingual teacher education programme which will be discussed in Section 6.7. The last section is a brief summary of the chapter (Section 6.8).

6.2. Value of Internship

The results addressing RQ1 and SQ1.1 revealed that the English teacher education programme has provided the information about teaching and learning in bilingual educational contexts above all through serving an internship in a bilingual school. This section presents the discussions of the key findings of the value of internship from the participants’ perspectives relating to the potential gains from the internship in either a mainstream school where subjects are taught only in the majority language (Thai), see Baker (2006: 216) as presented in Section 3.3.1 (Section 6.2.1), or those who did their internships in a bilingual school (Section 6.2.2), as well as the participants’ recommendation for doing an internship in a bilingual school (Section 6.2.3).

6.2.1. Potential Gains from the Internship More Generally

The present study found that the internship in mainstream schools could provide an opportunity of classroom observations, teaching practice, and experience of acting as teaching assistant to NESTs. The findings of classroom
observations and teaching practice as a gain from the teaching internship in the present study are consistent with those of previous studies: Crandall (2000), Beck and Cosnik (2006) and Phairee and his colleagues (2008). Crandall (2000) and Beck and Cosnik (2006) argue that the engagement in teaching internship facilitates pre-service teachers to experience the real teaching situations. Phairee and his colleagues (2008) report that the teaching internship provides an opportunity for Thai pre-service teachers majoring in English of Rajabhat Universities to teach English, observe their mentor teachers’ teaching and be observed by their mentor teachers.

The findings of this study confirms the potential gains from the teaching internship in Thailand (Phairee et. al, 2008) and wider contexts (Crandall, 2000; proposed by those previous studies and supports the conclusion that experience-based knowledge in the form of teaching internship plays a vital role in the development of teachers. In addition, this present study extends beyond previous studies by identifying an additional benefit which is a role of teacher assistant to NESTs which the Thai pre-service teachers in this study perceived as an opportunity to practise English and receive advice on teaching English.

6.2.2. The Potential Gains Particularly from the Internship in Bilingual Schools

In addition, this study identifies the potential gains particularly from the internship in bilingual schools. Nine participants in this study specifically recommended doing an internship in a bilingual school and revealed two potential gains particularly from this opportunity. First, it appeared that an internship in a bilingual school provides information and experience specifically relating to bilingual education which includes information about the curriculum, teaching methodology, pedagogic concerns, and the behaviours and needs of students in bilingual education. Similarly, Beck and Kosnik (2006) found that pre-service teachers could create teaching strategies specifically for students with low English literacy when they were assigned to teach these students. The findings of the present study combined with those of Beck and Kosnik (2006) seem to indicate that direct experience leads towards greater expert skill and knowledge in that particular experience.
Secondly, one of the participants (Panisara) in this study thought that an internship in a bilingual school increases the exposure to English which helps improve her English. One possible explanation is that the pre-service teachers are supposed to teach English and potentially other subjects through English during the internship experience in bilingual schools. The findings of the improvement in English through EMI during the internship support those of Tüzel and Akcan (2009) which indicate that their participants’ English proficiency improved through the experience of using EMI during the following internship activities: classroom observations, feedback sessions, discussion meetings and teaching reflective sessions. These activities proposed by Tüzel and Akcan (2009) appear to be supported by the findings of the potential gains from the internship presented earlier in Section 6.2.1.

However, the findings of the benefit of the experience in teaching English through English in teacher education programmes are dissimilar to those of Moate (2014) which revealed the absence of positive impact on their participants’ English proficiency. This would make the findings of the present study not compatible with those of Moate (2014). This might be because the participants in Moate’s (2014) study are in-service teachers and they are not language teachers. Unlike Moate’s (2014) study, the findings of this study and those of Tüzel’s and Akcan’s (2009) were drawn from pre-service teachers majoring in English who were supported by their mentor and university teachers during their internship. The findings of this study support those of Tüzel and Akcan (2009) and lead towards the conclusion that the internship in bilingual schools, which offers an opportunity to practise and receive advice on teaching content and language (English) through English, results in the improvement in English proficiency, especially for pre-service teachers.

6.2.3. Recommendation for Doing the Internship in Bilingual Schools

Nine participants in the present study recommended doing an internship in bilingual schools. Their recommendation for this is consistent with Bernhart and Schrier (1992) who suggest field-based experience at immersion schools for training teachers of bilingual education. In addition, the findings of the recommendation for this experience strengthen those of Pistario (2009) which
proposed the internship experience for training teachers of bilingual education without specifying a particular type of school for training them. While the present study found support for the recommendation of doing an internship in bilingual schools, it also found that it is difficult to access an internship, particularly in bilingual schools. One of the participants (Patchata) in this study noted that the mainstream and bilingual schools as school sites for internships are limited. The findings of the limited access to internships seem to be an additional challenge to the internship experience of English teacher education which is proposed by Brandt (2006), Hudson, Ngu and Hudson (2008) and Sahin (2008). Additionally, these scholars found that it is hard to build a relationship between pre-service teachers and their mentors during internships.

Hudson, Ngu and Hudson (2008) and Tüzel and Akacan (2009) also mention learning to teach English through English in an EFL context as a challenge of serving teaching internship for Vietnamese pre-service English teachers. Pre-service EFL teachers in Hudson, Ngu and Hudson’s (2008) study perceived that they lacked confidence and knowledge for teaching writing at secondary level. Tüzel and Akacan (2009) found that pre-service EFL teachers had difficulty in certain aspects of English grammar when they delivered lessons in English; they struggled with using English for managing classrooms and conveying the meaning of a word to students in English. In spite of this, Phairee and his colleagues (2008) reveal teaching mixed ability classrooms as a challenge during the internship served by Thai pre-service teachers of Rajabhat Universities. The problem of teaching mixed ability classrooms also appear in Hudson, Ngu and Hudson’s (2008) study. It might be argued that the limited access an internship in bilingual schools found in this study is a new problem for developing teachers especially teachers of bilingual education.

In this study, Panisara noted that she would be allowed to teach bilingual programme during her internship if she had experience of going abroad. In this study, experience abroad is required to be accepted for an internship in a bilingual school in Thailand. This could be based on findings such as those by Sahin (2008) indicating that experience abroad have shown to increase self-confidence, communication skills, and increase the awareness of foreign culture, as found by Sahin (2008), which may be an advantage in teaching content and language in English.
The participants in the present study perceived that the limited access to the internship in bilingual schools is perhaps caused by the distrust of non-native English competence of pre-service teachers owned by school staff responsible for managing the internship. In this study, one participant (Piyada) thought that the school staff responsible for this do not trust non-native pre-service teachers and do not allow them to teach, and their only opportunity during the internship there would be to support NESTs' teaching. This finding of the schools' attitude toward native and non-native competence support those of Watson-Todd (2006) revealing that NESTs are perceived as superior to NNESTs in schools in Thailand. This relates to the findings of the appreciation of native-English competences and the assumed inferiority of the non-native English competence which will be discussed in Section 6.5.1.

This section presented the discussion of the key findings of the value of internship in mainstream and bilingual schools. The findings of this study presented in Section 6.2.1 and Section 6.2.2 support the conclusion that the internship in a bilingual school provides more benefits than that in a mainstream school. Further, the findings suggest that an internship in bilingual schools may be required to prepare pre-service teachers to teach in bilingual programmes. However, the present study found evidence of the limited access to such internships because of the schools' negative attitude towards non-native English competence. The findings of participants’ recommendations for doing the internship in bilingual schools relate to those of their interest in teacher education for bilingual programmes which will be discussed in Section 6.3.

6.3. Towards Teacher Education Tailored for Bilingual Programmes

The results of RQ1 revealed the statement of interest in teacher education for bilingual programmes. The findings addressing RQ1 indicated that two participants (Kris and Baifern) in the present study demand a qualification of teacher education as a requirement to teach in an English Programme in Thailand. This is a requirement not all NESTs seem to meet. The demand for the qualification for teaching bilingual education programmes was not directly stated in the literature reviewed in Chapter 3. However, the empirical studies reviewed in the literature (Chapter 3) i.e. Pistario (2009) Hillard (2011) and Banegas (2012) revealed the teachers’ interest in learning about CLIL as a
teaching approach bilingual education. This would make the findings above partly support those of Pistario (2009), Hillard (2011) and Banegas (2012) who indicated that the achievement in CLIL teacher development programme is regarded as a qualification required by both pre-service and in-service teachers to teach bilingual education programmes. The findings of this study confirmed by those of Pistario (2009) Hillard (2011) and Banegas (2012) support the conclusion that teachers of bilingual teachers require a preparation programme specifically prepare them to teach in bilingual schools. Moreover, the findings of the interest in teacher education for bilingual programmes in the present study are consistent with those of Prapaisit de Segovia and Hardison (2009) which revealed Thai teachers’ demand for learning how to teach through English. The findings of Prapaisit de Segovia and Hardison (2009) appeared to be supported by the findings of the preparation for teaching English through English in the present study which will be discussed in Section 6.6. In this study, the need in learning how to teach through EMI and/or CLIL is regarded as a content area relevant to develop teachers in bilingual education (Section 6.7, Figure 6.1).

This section presents the findings of the participants’ interest in teacher education for bilingual programme which are confirmed by the above previous studies. Further, the present study manages to specify the learning content and the engagement in the learning content necessary to develop teachers of bilingual programmes which will be discussed in Section 6.4 – 6.5, respectively.

6.4. English-teacher Programme Not a Comprehensive Preparation of Bilingual Teachers

The results addressing RQ2 revealed that the English teacher education programme in its 2004 and 2012 formats is perceived as unable to fully serve as a programme for developing bilingual teachers. The pre-service teachers in this study explained that this programme does not contain specific knowledge, training and experience necessary to teach in a bilingual school. The experience relates to a teaching internship which was previously discussed (Section 6.2). This section presents the discussion of the key findings of the specific knowledge and training relating to understanding bilingual education (Section 6.4.1) and the preparation of using EMI and/or CLIL (Section 6.4.2).
6.4.1. Understanding Bilingual Education

I found that the English teacher education programme was considered inadequate to prepare the pre-service teachers to work in bilingual schools. Some participants view bilingual education as a means to deliver the national curriculum through EMI and team teaching while other mentioned the lack of the course content relating to the bilingual education curriculum and teaching approaches for bilingual education. Similar to Pistario (2009) and Banegas (2012), these participants in the present study expressed a wish to study content relating to those topics. Similarly to the findings in Section 6.3, the findings in this section supported Pistario (2009) and Banegas (2012) which strengthens my argument that a specific knowledge and training are required to develop bilingual teachers.

Furthermore, the findings of this study add to those of Pistario (2009) and Banegas (2012) by identifying the participants’ wish for their English teacher preparation programme to be taught through English as a preparation of teachers in bilingual schools and this will be discussed in Section 6.6.

6.4.2. The Preparation for Using EMI and CLIL

The present study found that using EMI for teaching English was perceived as difficult for seven pre-service teachers. They reported that the difficulty of using EMI for teaching English includes conveying the meaning of vocabulary and explaining lessons in English. The finding of the perceived difficulty of teaching English through English in this study is similar to that of Tüzel and Akcan (2009) in which the classroom observations revealed that the Turkish pre-service teachers struggled with giving accurate meanings and explanations of unknown words to their students in English during their teaching internship.

The participants are of the opinion that the preparation for using EMI for teaching English ought to involve more exposure to English through learning and practising more English oracy skills, learning English with NESTs and learning in EMI classrooms themselves. The findings appear to support Pistario’s (2009) suggestion for a CLIL teacher training programme which is to develop bilingual teachers with three areas of competence: language competence, theoretical competence, and methodological competence. The findings of the preparation for using EMI for teaching English found in this study
confirmed by Pistario (2009) support the conclusion that skills of teaching through English are not developed solely by learning English. Thus, practice in EMI and CLIL methodology training may be of benefit to future bilingual teachers.

It appeared in the findings that that the pre-service teachers would feel well-prepared to teach through English with more exposure to English during learning the English teacher education programme. The findings of the exposure to English through learning more English oracy skills reveal that the subjects relating to education are more emphasised than those relating to English in the English teacher education programme. The findings appear to support those of Yavuz and Zehir Topkaya (2013) in which the open-ended questionnaire indicate that some courses relating to pedagogic knowledge should be reduced or removed from the English teacher education investigated in their study for fully training English teachers. The findings of the present study and those of Yavuz and Zehir Topkaya (2013) support the conclusion that more general pedagogic content should be replaced or complemented by theory related to content-based language learning and pedagogy.

Regarding the exposure to English through learning with NESTs, six participants in this study felt that NESTs could greatly improve the pre-service teachers’ English listening, pronunciation and provide them English culture and idiom. This supports Ma’s (2012) study that NESTs are considered useful as they have improved learners’ English speaking, English listening and English pronunciation. The findings of NESTs benefits in facilitating understanding and appreciation of English culture in this study are consistent with those of Benke and Medgyes (2005) which indicate that NESTs are considered useful in terms of providing the cultural information.

Park and Lee (2006), Barnes and Lock (2010), Chen (2012) and Tong and Shi (2012) proposed English competence and methodological competence as a requirement for teaching in bilingual schools. Similarly, the findings in this study that sound understanding and ability to teach English are necessary for all teachers are in line with those studies’ acknowledgement of methodological competence required to teach English in Korea (Park and Lee, 2006; Barnes and Lock, 2010), in Thailand (Chen, 2012) and China (Tong and Shi, 2012). The findings relating to the exposure to English through learning with NESTs demonstrate the pre-service teachers’ perceived need for NESTs which lend
support to Watson-Todd’s (2006) and Chen’s (2012) acknowledgement of demand for NESTs in Thai education. The findings also reveal that according to the participants’ perceptions, there are insufficient NESTs teaching in the English teacher education programme. This is consistent with Kirkpatrick’s (2010) argument of the NESTs shortage in Thailand. However, I argue that NESTs may be less important if Thai teachers have better English education provided by more competent Thai English teacher educators or near-NESTs. This would respond to the NESTs shortage in Thailand and challenge the native-English speaker norm.

This section presents the discussion of key findings indicating that the English teacher education programme is perceived as being unable to fully serve as a bilingual teacher education programme. This is due to the lack in the preparation for understanding bilingual education from a pedagogic perspective and that for teaching English through English from a linguistic perspective. To prepare the pre-service teachers to understanding bilingual education, the provision of learning content mentioned in Section 6.4.1 is suggested. To prepare them to use EMI for teaching content and English includes more learning courses relating to oracy skills, learning with NESTs and in EMI and/or CLIL classrooms, as discussed in Section 6.4.2. In this section, the findings relating to learning with NESTs reveal that native-English status was perceived as a teacher quality which will be discussed in Section 6.5. Learning in EMI classrooms will be discussed in detail in Section 6.6.

6.5. Development of Bilingual Teacher Identity

This study investigated the pre-service teachers’ perceptions of the requirements of teachers in bilingual schools (RQ1) and their self-evaluation of competences and skills required to teach bilingual education (SQ2.1). The results of RQ1 and SQ2.1 reveal the appreciation of native-English competences which is associated with the lack of appreciation of non-native English competences (Section 6.5.1). This is followed by a suggestion of the need to shift from ‘nativeness paradigm’ (Shibata, 2010) to bilingual identity which is presented in Section 6.5.2.
6.5.1. Appreciation of Native-English Competence

The findings of this study found that the appreciation of native-English competences relate to the native-like pronunciation and accent, and are consistent with those of Timmis (2002) Shibata (2010) and Chen’s (2012) findings of the preference for native-English pronunciation given by non-native English teachers and students. However, the findings of the present study refine the findings of the above empirical studies by indicating that native-like pronunciation and accent are defined in terms of the pronunciation and accent specifically of British/American varieties of English.

The findings of the preference for British/American pronunciation and accent in this study are consistent with Jenkins’ (2010) study regarding what are considered the two best accents and pronunciation, from the NNESTs and non-native English students’ perspectives. Moreover, in line with Jenkins (2010), the current study found that the British pronunciation and accent are preferred to the American pronunciation and accent. However, the findings of the preference of British pronunciation and accent in this study are not in line with those of Coskun (2011) which reports that Turkish pre-service teachers preferred American pronunciation and accent to British counterparts. The findings of the present study confirm the previous studies discussed above and lead toward the conclusion that NNESTs and non-native English students particularly the participants in my study, appreciate native-English competences especially relating to (standard US/UK) English pronunciation and accents.

Similar to Pavlenko (2003), Jenkins (2010) and Ma (2012), the current study found that native English pronunciation was perceived as the only correct pronunciation. In addition, like Timmis (2002 and Pavlenko (2003), the pre-service teachers in this study are keen to achieve native-like competence. Like Pavlenko (2003), the findings of the perceptions of native-like pronunciation as the authentic pronunciation result in the participants’ low confidence in their English competence. However, the findings of the present study add to those of Pavlenko (2003) by indicating that the appreciation of native English competences also results in the participants’ low confidence in teaching English through English. The findings of this study confirmed by Pavlenko (2003) support the conclusion that the appreciation of native-English competence is
associated with low self-esteem for English competence and teaching (English) competence.

I found that the pre-service teachers in this study would prefer to learn English with British or American teachers who are regarded as NESTs. This finding lends support to Chen’s (2012) acknowledgement of Thai learners’ perceived need for being taught by NESTs. This finding also support an argument that the nativeness and native-English competence as a main qualification of English teachers in Korean (Canagarajah, 1999), in Thailand (Watson-Todd’s, 2006) and in Japan (Shibata, 2010).

As discussed earlier in Section 6.2.3, this general appreciation of native-English competence relates to the perceived restrictions on teaching in bilingual education and during internships in a bilingual school. I found that there was a limited opportunity during the internship in a bilingual school and zero opportunity to teach English speaking and listening by the participants in the present study, based on their being NNESTs. This would make the findings of this study extensible to those previous studies discussed above since this study found that the nativeness and native-English competence were also perceived as a qualification necessary for an internship in a bilingual school and teaching English speaking and listening there. In addition, the findings of the perceived need of nativeness as a main English teacher quality in this study go beyond those of the previous studies discussed above by indicating that having high-level proficiency in English is not the only qualification but teachers are also required to have knowledge and skills of teaching English and also understand (language) learners’ behaviours.

In contrast, Seidlholder (2011) argues that NESTs are considered ‘legitimate users’ of English. However, the findings of this study also reveal the lack of appreciation of non-native English competences among the participants, especially relating to non-native English pronunciation. The findings are confirmed by Pavlenko (2003), Benke and Medgye (2005) and Ma (2012) who found that non-native English pronunciation was perceived as wrong, distorted, and bad. The findings also lend support to Matsuda’s (2003) acknowledgement of the negative attitudes towards the non-native (Japanese) English pronunciation because native English speaker norms were recognised as a criterion of successful learners and teachers of English. However, this study showed that the NNESTs were perceived useful and helpful by some because it
could enable the participants to get used to another non-native English pronunciation. This finding adds to those by Samimy and Brutt-Griffler’s (1999) in which particularly NNESTs were perceived as helpful, regarding their sensitivity to their learning needs. The findings of this study are confirmed by the previous studies which propose that both NESTs and NNESTs own strengths and weaknesses as English teachers. To reduce the reliance on NESTs in teacher education in Thailand, it might be argued that Thai teachers and teacher educators should have greater competence in English and teaching content and language by EMI and/or CLIL.

6.5.2. A Suggestion to the Shift from ‘Nativeness Paradigm to Bilingual Paradigm

In this study, five participants noted that qualified bilingual teachers are required to teach in bilingual schools. Their suggestions of bilingual teachers being part of bilingual education is confirmed by Baker’s (2006) and Meier’s (2010) arguments that the teachers in the immersion model should be a competent bilingual themselves. However, the five participants in this study managed to define bilingual teachers as those who can speak and teach through two languages fluently. It has been cited in the literature that bilingual teachers of English are beneficial to their students’ English learning (Benke and Medgye, 2005; Ma, 2012). Like Forman (2008) and Ma (2012), this confirms the views expressed by the participants in the present study, who found that bilingual teachers were better placed to enhance students’ learning than monolingual teachers by using L1 and L2.

The present study reveals the association between the awareness of the bilingual teacher identity and the confidence in teaching in bilingual education. In this study, there were five participants who stressed the bilingual teacher’s ability and indicating his/her advantage in teaching in bilingual programmes. Four of them were aware of their own bilingual teacher identity, and expressed confidence to teach in bilingual schools. Thus, the present study supports findings by Pavlenko (2003) revealing that the non-native English Master students in TESOL viewed their own linguistic competence more positively and they have greater self-esteem when they were aware of and appreciated their bilingual identity. The participants’ awareness and appreciation of bilingual
teacher identity is associated with Pavlenko’s (2003) and Shibata’s (2010) findings, who suggest the shift from a nativeness paradigm to a bilingual identity, or the bilingual/multilingual paradigm. However, the present study managed to extend the benefits gained from the development of bilingual teacher identity proposed by the above empirical studies indicating the importance of building up the pre-service teachers’ confidence to use EMI for teaching content and/or English in bilingual programmes.

As discussed in this section, the present study offers evidence for the existence of the appreciation of native-English competence (Section 6.5.1) and the points towards the need to shift from the nativeness paradigm to bilingual teacher identity (Section 6.5.2). Based on the findings of the present study, it appears that the pre-service teachers who appreciate bilingual competence are more confident in teaching in bilingual education than those who appreciate native-English competence as the required qualification. The findings discussed in this section were largely confirmed by the empirical studies and contribute to bilingual education and bilingual teacher education in Thailand, especially in relation to the need to change towards a bilingual paradigm.

6.6. English-Medium Teacher Education Programme

This study investigated the extent to which the English teacher education programme could be improved based on the pre-service teachers’ perspectives (RQ3). The findings reveal the pre-service teachers’ perceived need for an English-medium teacher education programme. The implementation of EMI in the English teacher education programme is regarded as a suitable preparation for using EMI for teaching English, as discussed earlier in Section 6.4.2. This section presents the discussion of the findings of the participants’ wishes include implementation of EMI and/or CLIL pedagogy in the teacher education programme (Section 6.6.1) and the perceived benefits of English-medium teacher education programme (Section 6.6.2).
6.6.1. The Implementation of EMI in English Teacher Education Programme

In the present study, ten participants requested an English-medium teacher education programme. The findings of the participants’ request for this regard reveal their feeling of the insufficient exposure to English during learning in the English teacher education programme. The findings are consistent with those of Hayes (2010) who proposed that most courses of the English teacher education programme investigated in his study were taught in Thai.

The present study reveals two possible ways of implementing EMI in the programme. Firstly, EMI was recommended by four participants (Baifern, Kris, Peranee, and Urassaya) for all courses of the English teacher education programme. Secondly, EMI was recommended by Hun, Nadech and Pat for major (English) subjects only. The findings of English as the only language of instruction indicate the participants’ desire for the exposure to English and are consistent with those of Ma (2012) who reported that communication in L1 in the classrooms caused less opportunity to practise English.

However, Pichaya perceived that Thai as a medium of instruction is sometimes required to bridge the gap in understanding the lessons. This perception lends support Scott and de la Fuente’s (2008) study in which the use of L1 (English) facilitates L2 (French/Spanish) learning (n=12, N=24) during the interaction and contribution to the speaking task relating to a specific grammar structure. The perceived need of L1 in this study also supports Moore (2002) who states that the use of L1 ensures the interaction and engagement in the L2 classroom and this enhances learners’ ability to learn and use L2. The perceived need of L1 (Thai) in this study also support Prapaisit de Segovia and Hardison (2009) who point out that English should be spoken and translated into Thai for making students understand what is spoken or taught.

In line with Pichaya, Mint perceived that English as the only instructional language is inappropriate to topics relating to educational subjects because the topics contain complex and complicated contents. The perception held by Pichaya and Mint indicates the perceived necessity of using L1 and its role in facilitating EFL learners’ learning. The findings of the two participants’ perceptions appear to support those of students in Ma’s (2012) study which reported that L1 in the classrooms enhance the effectiveness in communication.
between students and teachers. The findings of the present study also support those of Forman (2008) in which the mixed use of Thai and English provided Thai university students majoring in English with more accurate meaning than the exclusive use of English. The findings of the implementation of EMI and/or in this study confirmed by the previous studies (Ma, 2012; Scott and de la Fuente, 2008; Moore, 2002; Prapaisit de Segovia and Hardison, 2009), who support my argument that a careful plan is required either to implement only L2 only or mixed use of L1 and L2 in the English teacher education programme.

6.6.2. Benefits of English-Medium Teacher Education Programme

Six participants in this study perceived English-medium teacher education programme beneficial to improve English proficiency, promote active learning and engaging in the experience of learning/teaching English through English. Firstly, they felt that an English-medium teacher education programme would help improve their English speaking, English listening and English pronunciation. Similar results appeared in Chapple and Curtis’ (2000) study which found that university students in Hong Kong felt the improvement in their English listening and speaking after learning through English. The perceived benefit of EMI to improve learners’ English in this study also lends to support those of Dobson, Murillo and Johnstone (2010) who report that the Spanish students have improved their English pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary when learning through English. In addition, this finding is confirmed by Suwanarak’s (2013) findings in which classroom observations indicate that learning through English has enhanced Thai students’ English communication skill. Suwanarak (2013) points out that an English-medium class enables the students to retell a story being told by using their own words and speak English with correct intonation. The findings of this study are confirmed by the above empirical studies and allow the conclusion that the participants may be right in assuming that the great use of EMI has a beneficial effect on English proficiency of EFL and ESL pre-service teachers in Thailand.

Secondly, the current study found that EMI has promoted active learning. In this study, Patchata is of the opinion that EMI would facilitate students to think in English which enhances their ability to share their opinions in English. This
finding is confirmed by Suwanarak (2003) who points out that the Thai students in an English-medium classroom engaged in lessons through asking questions. The perceptions that EMI benefits active learning are also consistent with Owen’s (2002) findings of EMI through CBI facilitating Thai university students to become aware of their language problems and set their own personal goal to overcome their problems. The perception of EMI as beneficial to promote an active learning in this present study support Suwanarak (2003) and Owen’s (2002) conclusion that Thai students are more active when learning in an EMI classroom. However, this study adds to those findings in both general context and the context of this study, which were associated with the results of the implementation of EMI i.e. ability to ask questions, the awareness of English problems and solutions of English problems, by demonstrating that EMI reinforces thinking (in English) skills which seems to initiate active learning. Finally, the current study found that an exposure to EMI would offer the pre-service teachers an opportunity to learn how to teach English through English. In this study, Anut perceived that engaging in EMI classrooms as a learner would enable him to learn how to teach English through English from seeing his teachers’ teaching. The finding appears to support that of Dang, Nguyen and Le (2013) in which the teacher education programme, using EMI, encouraged and facilitated Vietnamese pre-service teachers majoring in English to teach content and language in English. The findings of the present study and those of Dang, Nguyen and Le (2013) support the conclusion that self-experiencing EMI in the classroom as a learner and, observing teaching English through English helps pre-service teachers develop skills of teaching English through English. Based on this, I conclude that teaching content and language through English is a specific skill which is not developed solely through training in English and training in teaching English which they have received from their English teacher education programme. In order to develop the skill of teaching English through English, the pre-service teachers need to learn about teaching approaches for bilingual education (Section 6.4.1), developing English oracy skill and interacting with NESTs or other near-native speakers of English (Section 6.4.2) and situating themselves in EMI classrooms. The arguments are all supported by literature discussed earlier in this section.
6.7. A Possible Model of Bilingual Teacher Education Programme

This section presents a possible model of bilingual teacher education programme which is suggested by considering the results of the present study and previous research discussed in Section 6.2 (Internship), Section 6.4 (Knowledge and Skills), Section 6.5 (The Development of Bilingual Identity) and Section 6.6 (The Implementation of EMI).

Figure 6.1 demonstrates a model for a bilingual teacher education programme, appropriate for Thailand or elsewhere. The model consists of five areas of content. The findings of the programme evaluation suggest that the English teacher education programme is perceived as not being able to fully prepare the pre-service teachers. In addition to what is included in the English teacher education programme, the findings suggested the inclusion of theory of bilingual education, methodology of bilingual education, internship experience in bilingual schools and awareness of bilingual (teacher) identity.

**Figure 6.1: The Content Areas of the Bilingual Teacher Education Programme**
The inclusion of English or a target language as well as theory of language learning for training bilingual teachers is consistent with a bilingual teacher training programme proposed by Ludbrook (2008), Pistorio (2009), Hillard (2011), Banegas (2012) and Tong and Shi (2012).

The findings of this study demonstrated that the pre-service teachers perceived theory and methodology of bilingual education, such as EMI and CLIL, significantly necessary to prepare them to teach in bilingual schools. The perceived inclusion of the theory and methodology of bilingual education for training bilingual teachers supports Pistorio (2009), Hillard (2011) and Banegas (2012) who proposed CLIL teacher training programme for bilingual teachers including theoretical-based knowledge and methodological-based knowledge. However, these are not part of the current English teacher education programme (Section 6.4). Based on the participants’ perception of this regard and the proposal relating to bilingual teacher training programmes by previous studies, the theory and methodology of bilingual education are suggested to be included in the English teacher education programme for the preparation of bilingual teachers.

The findings of this study demonstrated that the pre-service teachers perceived the internship experience in bilingual schools as significant to prepare them to teach there. The perceived need of this opportunity confirmed Bernhardt and Schrier (1992) who suggest the internship experience in bilingual schools. Based on this, the model of bilingual teacher education programme includes this experience.

In line with Pavlenko (2003) and Shibata (2010), the findings of this study demonstrated that the development of bilingual teacher identity was associated with the pre-service English teachers’ confidence in their English proficiency and teaching ability. This seems to enhance their confidence to use EMI for teaching English is bilingual schools. Based on this, my model of bilingual teacher education programme also includes awareness of bilingual (teacher) identity. In order to raise awareness of this, Pavlenko (2003) and Rajagopalan (2005) suggest reflective teaching for identity reflection; while, Baker (2011b) suggest the application of international cultural awareness in classroom teaching. However, this appears to be another area of further research which will be presented in the last chapter of this thesis (Chapter 7, Recommendations and Conclusion).
6.8. Summary

This chapter has presented the key findings of the present study and discussed them with reference to research questions (RQ1-RQ3) and their subsidiary questions (SQ1.1 and SQ2.1). The results have also been considered in relation to relevant previous studies. The study confirmed that the English teacher education programme in Thailand is unable to fully serve as a programme for developing teachers for bilingual education in its current form. In order to prepare the pre-service English teachers to use EMI in bilingual schools, the participants in this study proposed that they should learn about content relating to theory and methodology of bilingual education (Section 6.4.1). The proposal for the preparation of teachers of English in bilingual schools includes the internship experience in bilingual schools (Section 6.2) and the awareness of bilingual teacher identity (Section 6.5). Additionally, the medium of instruction used in teacher education for bilingual teachers in Thailand should be reconsidered, namely in what language they learn in content courses. Thus, I propose greater use of EMI, and judicious use of Thai, to successfully prepare them to teach content and English through English. This includes interacting with NESTs or near-native speakers of English (Section 6.4.2), learning in EMI classrooms to a greater extent (Section 6.6) as part of their bilingual teacher education programme.
CHAPTER SEVEN – RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

This chapter firstly restates the aims of study and key features of research methodology and methods (Section 7.1), followed by a summary of the key findings of the research undertaken in this thesis (Section 7.2). A consideration of the study’s contribution for theory development and practical application is presented subsequently (Section 7.3). The limitations of the study are then assessed (Section 7.4). The thesis will close with a brief summary of the main arguments I developed in this thesis (Section 7.5).

7.1. Aims of the Study

The primary objective of this study was to investigate the Thai pre-service English teachers’ understanding of the English bilingual education in Thailand and their understanding of requirements of teachers in bilingual schools (RQ1) and to what extent their understanding of these two regards reflect the Thai Ministry of Education’s guidelines (SQ1.1). The secondary objective of the study was to examine the pre-service teachers’ perceptions of English teacher education programme’s effectiveness in view of preparing them to teach English in bilingual schools through programme evaluation (RQ2) and self-evaluation (SQ2.1). The final objective of this study was to explore the Thai pre-service English teachers’ perceptions of ways to improve their English teacher education programme in order to sufficiently prepare them to teach English in bilingual schools (RQ3).

7.2. Methodological Approach and Key Findings

The study was conducted among the pre-service teachers majoring in English (N=37) from different years of study at a school of education of a university in Bangkok. A mixed-methods approach was adopted in order to collect data by means of multiple instruments: online questionnaire including both open questions and closed questions, and Facebook chats.

A preliminary finding from this research was that the English teacher education programme has a potential to prepare the pre-service English teachers to teach English in bilingual schools, in terms of providing an understanding of the
Based on the pre-service English teachers’ perceptions, the English teacher education programme appears to provide additional knowledge and skills relevant to teaching English in bilingual schools where EMI is implemented. However, this was not perceived as sufficient. The additional knowledge and skills, perceived as important by participants, included the engagement with relevant theory, methodology and teaching approaches for bilingual education. Furthermore, internship experiences in bilingual schools, EMI lessons and interactions with NESTs were also perceived as factors enhancing the pre-service English teachers’ knowledge and skills of teaching English in bilingual schools (Section 5.3.1, RQ2 and Section 5.4, RQ3).

The study shows the importance of building up the pre-service English teachers’ confidence to teach English in bilingual schools, which currently seems not to be the case. It appears that their confidence to teach English is linked to the awareness, development and appreciation of a bilingual teacher identity (Section 5.3.2, SQ2.1 and Section 5.4, RQ3).

Based on this, there are three particularly important points to which I will return in the final section: the value of internships, the problematic status of NESTs, the development of bilingual teacher identities, rather than deficit NNEST identities and the English teacher education’s role in developing the pre-service teacher’s English competence.

### 7.3. Study’s Contribution for Theory Development and Practical Application

The present study shows that the pre-service English teachers require knowledge, skills and teaching experience in teaching English for bilingual education. The pre-service English teachers construct and acquire knowledge and skills in this regard through the engagement in the teacher education courses. They perceived that they could learn how to teach English in bilingual schools through engaging themselves in EMI classrooms as a learner and an observer. They perceived that the interaction with NESTs is beneficial to their English speaking and pronunciation. They also perceived that the internship experience in bilingual schools would allow them to apply the university-based
knowledge to the real classrooms. The perceptions revealed in the present study support the conclusion that knowledge is experience-based and constructed by learners which are in line with Vygotsky’s socio-constructivism (Beck and Kosnik, 2006).

However, it seems that the knowledge, skills and internship experience suggested by the present study would not help pre-service English teachers fully overcome their low confidence of teaching content and language through English in bilingual schools unless they appreciate their bilingual teacher identity to a greater extent. The findings from the investigation of the development of bilingual teacher identity point to a pedagogical implication, a need to shift from nativeness paradigm (Shibata, 2010) to bilingual identity, and that teacher education could play a role in this.

The findings of the present study also contribute to the development of the English teacher education programme for bilingual education. This study has revealed the pre-service English teachers’ understanding and perception indicating that the English teacher education programme has the potential to prepare them for teaching English in bilingual schools. Clearly, an increased potential to train English teachers for bilingual schools through the English teacher education programme is perceived to be coupled with a need to reform the curriculum of the teacher education programme, the languages used for teaching and the programme management of this.

At the level of the curriculum design, there is an indication that the theoretical part in the teacher education programme is useful as it is appreciated by the pre-service English teachers. Regarding the medium of instruction, the programme teachers are encouraged to use EMI to a greater extent for teaching either English or non-English lessons. They should also help the pre-service English teachers become aware of and appreciate bilingual teacher identity as part of the course. At the level of programme management, the present study recommends greater use of EMI, there should be clearer guidance for teachers on the advantages and disadvantages of using Thai and/or English as languages of teaching and learning. Additionally, there should be staff training which should encompass the implementation of greater use of EMI either in English lessons or non-English lessons. Another recommendation regards the policy relating to the recruitment of NESTs, which
should be reviewed to ensure teaching qualification and ability are taken into consideration, and not just nativeness.

**7.4. Limitations of the Study**

The most obvious limitation in this research was that of a small sample size, a limitation that prevented a clear generalizable statement about the potential of English teacher education programmes to prepare the pre-service English teachers to teach English in bilingual schools in Thailand. The number of participants was too small to generalise beyond the context of this study. With a larger sample including a great number of participants from different schools of education around Thailand, any different understanding of bilingual education and requirements of teachers in bilingual schools held by pre-service English teachers could be established. A larger sample from different schools of education might provide different perceptions of the programme effectiveness in training teachers of English for bilingual schools. With a larger sample from various schools of education, a more in-depth understanding of different factors that influence the increase of pre-service teachers’ confidence to teach English in bilingual schools might be developed.

Nonetheless, the small sample in combination with previous research did not negate recognition of the importance of a range of factors that might help improve education programmes for bilingual teachers.

This study was further limited by a change in the curriculum of the English education programme. The 2004 curriculum, which was in force at the beginning of this study and was replaced by the 2012 curriculum; therefore, only the participants in Y2 have experienced the 2012 curriculum. However, the two curricula have commonality in the programme objectives and the course contents (Section 2.5, Background of the Study).

**7.5. Summary**

The most useful finding from this study was the discovery of factors that may increase the teacher education programme’s effectiveness and building up the pre-service English teachers’ confidence to teach English in bilingual schools. In this study, the pre-service English teachers perceived themselves ill-equipped to teach content and language in bilingual schools firstly due to the perceived lack of knowledge and skills specifically relating to bilingual education theory.
and methodology of bilingual education. Secondly, they lacked in the appreciation of their own bilingualism, focusing on non-native English competence especially pronunciation and accent.

A particular important factor is the value of internships. According to the pre-service English teachers’ perceptions, the internship experience in bilingual schools is useful as a community of practice in which they can learn about bilingual education in practice. Further the internship experience in bilingual schools seems to complement theoretical knowledge acquired in the English teacher education programme. However, it appears that the internship experience in bilingual schools is of limited benefits to the pre-service English teachers due to their NNEST status which seem to restrict internship opportunities available to pre-service teachers in bilingual schools.

Secondly, the findings of the present study identify the problematic status of NESTs. One the one hand, the pre-service English teachers perceived NESTs as useful role models of English from whom they can learn English. NESTs are also seen as experts in implementing EMI in teaching English for bilingual education programmes, hence EP and MEP were perceived as a community of practice. On the other hand, NESTs seem to be regarded as having greater status and competence than NNESTs, which resulted in the limitation of internship experience in bilingual schools for the Thai pre-service teachers majoring in English participating in this study. Their bilingualism is constructed as a deficit by schools and by themselves.

Third, the present study found that the pre-service English teachers’ confidence to teach English in bilingual education is associated with the awareness of and appreciation to their bilingualism (Section 5.3.2). The findings imply that the English teacher education programme in its current form may perpetuate a deficit identity of NNESTs and in its extension the native-speaker myth. The findings also propose the development of bilingual teacher identities, rather than deficit NNEST identities.

Finally, the English teacher education programme has a role in developing the pre-service teachers’ English competence. My study identified a lack of confidence in pre-service English teachers regarding their English competence which may be related to their development of deficit NNEST identities. As a result of this, the first role of a relevant teacher education programme relates to the development of bilingual teacher identities. The second role relates to the
greater implementation of EMI in the English teacher education programme. This second role originated from some participants’ feeling that EMI should be used as part of the teacher education programme, enabling them to be exposed to English to a greater extent. As they carry on being learners of English themselves, they can observe how to implement EMI in English lessons as required for teaching in bilingual schools.

The present study firstly recommends a review of the status, role and usefulness of NNESTs and NESTs in bilingual schools and teacher education programmes, as research (Section 3.4.2) has shown that bilingualism can be a pedagogic advantage. The second recommendation relates to the teacher education programme’s role in addressing the NEST/NNEST debate, by including research on the status, role and usefulness of NNESTs and NESTs to pre-service teachers and bilingual schools. This is expected to help pre-service teachers develop positive bilingual identities in the short term, and in the long term, and at the same time help break the perpetuation of the native speaker myth. Bilingual schools may benefit from research based information about the pedagogic advantages associated with bilingual English teachers and NESTs. Based on this, bilingual schools should consider giving Thai pre-service teachers an opportunity to teach during their internships, recognising their value and hence increasing their status. Finally, this study recommends that the teacher education programme should review the languages that are used to teach English to pre-service English teachers. There may well be an advantage to use English as a medium of instruction to a greater extent. However, the teacher education programmes would have to be careful, on the one hand, not to jeopardise the quality and depth of learning when teaching through English, and on the other hand not to relegate Thai to a less useful language, as this might strengthen rather than weaken the native-speaker myth. Thus teacher education programmes may need to consider adopting a well-thought out bilingual approach to teaching and learning themselves.
APPENDICES

Appendix 1: The Overall Research Design of the Present Study

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paradigmatic stance and research design</th>
<th>The present study</th>
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<tr>
<td>Paradigm</td>
<td>This study is informed by the pragmatic paradigm</td>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research and subsidiary questions</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. To what extent do the Thai pre-service teachers of English understand the English bilingual education system in Thailand and respective teacher requirements?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1. To what extent does the participants’ understanding of bilingual education system and teacher requirements reflect Ministry guidelines as expressed in the Ministry’s order number Wor Gor 65/2544 as of 9 October 2001?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. To what extent do the Thai pre-service teachers in a (English) teacher education programme in Thailand feel their course prepares them to teach English in bilingual schools?</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.1. To what extent do the participants feel they are well-prepared to teach English in bilingual schools?</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. In what way do the Thai pre-service teachers of English believe their programme should be improved in order to sufficiently prepare them to teach English in bilingual schools?</td>
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<tr>
<th>Research methodology</th>
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<tr>
<td>Mixed methods methodology</td>
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<tr>
<td>1. Pragmatic parallel mixed methods design:</td>
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<tr>
<td>1.1. Quantitative (closed questions) and qualitative data (open questions) are concurrently collected and analysed through questionnaires.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Pragmatic sequential mixed methods design:</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.1. Additional qualitative data is collected after the data collection and analysis questionnaire results are complete.</td>
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<tr>
<th>Data collection</th>
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<tr>
<td>Mixed methods</td>
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<tr>
<td>Phase 1: Questionnaires (multiple-choice, Likert scale and open-ended questions)</td>
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<td>Phase 2: Online interviews through Facebook chats (open-ended questions)</td>
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<tr>
<th>Participants and research setting</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Phase 1: Pre-service teachers/graduates of an English teacher education programme at a university in Bangkok, Thailand (N=37).</td>
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<tr>
<td>Phase 2: Pre-service teachers/graduates of English teacher education programme at a university in Bangkok, Thailand (N=17).</td>
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<tr>
<th>Data analysis</th>
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<tr>
<td>Phase 1: Descriptive statistical analysis (quantitative data) and content analysis (qualitative data)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Phase 2: Content analysis (qualitative data)</td>
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## Appendix 2: The Questionnaire Construction of the Present Study

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<tr>
<th>Question number</th>
<th>Question types</th>
<th>Focus</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-2</td>
<td>Factual/ multiple-choice questions</td>
<td>Demographical information i.e. genders and study year groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-4</td>
<td>Attitudinal/ open-ended questions</td>
<td>The pre-service teachers’ past experience in relation to:</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• knowledge/skills gained from the programme</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• knowledge/skills lack in the programme</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Attitudinal/10 rating-scales questions</td>
<td>The pre-service teachers’ perceptions about the programme effectiveness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Attitudinal/ open-ended questions</td>
<td>The pre-service teachers’ suggestions how to increase programme effectiveness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-12</td>
<td>Attitudinal/ multiple-choice questions</td>
<td>The pre-service teachers’ past experience in relation to their source of knowledge about bilingual education system (drawn on the Ministry’s order)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Attitudinal/ open-ended questions</td>
<td>The pre-service teachers’ perceptions about all qualifications essential to become a teacher of bilingual programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14-26</td>
<td>Attitudinal/5 rating-scales questions</td>
<td>The pre-service teachers’ perceptions about all qualifications essential to become a teacher of bilingual programme (drawn on the Ministry’s order)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>Attitudinal/ open-ended questions</td>
<td>The pre-service teachers’ perceptions about factors in ensuring that they can or cannot teach bilingual programmes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28-39</td>
<td>Attitudinal/5 rating-scales questions</td>
<td>The pre-service teachers’ perceptions about their own teaching ability and language proficiency (required by the Ministry)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>Attitudinal/ 10 rating-scales questions</td>
<td>The pre-service teachers’ perceptions about the confidence to teaching bilingual programmes</td>
</tr>
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Appendix 3: Questionnaire

Research on the education of bilingual teachers

The purpose of the research is to investigate to what extent an (English) teacher training programme in Thailand can support pre-service teachers for working in bilingual schools. The research results will hopefully contribute to improving English teacher education programmes working with bilingual programmes.

I am asking you to participate in my research project because you have experienced the curriculum of teacher education programmes in English as a pre-service teacher. No one knows the strengths and weaknesses of the curriculum better than you. If you are willing to participate in the research study, you can get involved with research activities: completing an online questionnaire and writing a story.

The questionnaire (online) consists of 40 questions and can be completed within 30 minutes or less. For open ended questions (question 3, 4, 6, 13 and 27), you can write in Thai or English. You do not need to write your name to ensure anonymity and non-traceability.

If you have any concerns about the project that you would like to discuss, you can contact either the researcher or the research supervisor (see contact details below):

Sasiporn Phongploempis (The research student)
Graduate School of Education University of Exeter
St. Lukes’ Campus Exeter EX1 2LU UK
Tel. 0044 (0) 7534 036930
Email: sps2013@exeter.ac.uk

Dr. Gabriela Meier (The research supervisor)
Graduate School of Education University of Exeter
St. Lukes’ Campus Exeter EX1 2LU UK
Tel. 0044 (0) 1392 724685
Email: G.S.Meier@exeter.ac.uk

*Required

1. Please tick yes/no to show whether you have been fully informed about the aims and purposes of the project. *

   [ ] Yes
   [ ] No

2. If you tick 'yes', please give the date. *

   Example: 15 December 2012

3. Please tick yes/no to show whether you consent to be involved with activities of this research project. *

   [ ] Yes
   [ ] No

4. If you tick 'yes', please provide your email address. *

   https://docs.google.com/forms/d/1SZb0qexTWjjJE8nSn8rtn3Z5hAv5YcCrZqtpRZ1...  11/04/2016
Part 1: General Information

5. You are
   Mark only one oval.
   [ ] Male
   [ ] Female
   [ ] Prefer not to answer

6. In what year are you studying/did you graduate from the university (SSRU)?
   Mark only one oval.
   [ ] Year 2
   [ ] Year 3
   [ ] Year 4
   [ ] Graduate whose student id begins with 51
   [ ] Graduate whose student id begins with 50
   [ ] Graduate whose student id begins with 49
   [ ] Graduate whose student id begins with 48

Part 2: Your history since you studied the English teacher education programme

7. Since you enrolled this English teacher education programme, the essential skills for working as a teacher in a bilingual school which you have received from the programme are...........

8. Since you enrolled in this English teacher education programme, the essential skills for working as a teacher in a bilingual school which you have NOT received from the programme are...........

https://docs.google.com/forms/d/1SZh0qexTWJUESn8mrtm3Z5hAeV5YeCrZqztMRZ1...  11/04/2016
9. From your learning experience, to what extent do you think the programme has been useful to support you teaching bilinguals?*
   Please give a mark from 0 to 10, with 0 being not at all useful and 10 being very useful. Please select the appropriate number which reflects your thought best.
   Mark only one oval.

   Not at all useful 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 Very useful

10. What can the programme do to increase the rate of usefulness?*

?2a) What you learned from the programme.

Indicate how you agree with the statements below.

Since I enrolled in the English teacher education programme...

11. I have been taught that learning and instructional management in a bilingual school are based on the Basic Education Curriculum announced by the Ministry of Education. *
   (The Basic Education Curriculum = كلغة عربي وإنجليزي)
   Mark only one oval.
   ○ Yes, I knew this from the programme.
   ○ I knew this but not from the programme.
   ○ I didn’t know this

12. I have been taught that English is used as a medium of instruction in a bilingual school. *
   Mark only one oval.
   ○ Yes, I knew this from the programme.
   ○ I knew this but not from the programme.
   ○ I didn’t know this

https://docs.google.com/forms/d/1SZh0qexTWJUESn8rtnn3ZS9hAv5YecZuqt9pRZ1...  11/04/2016
13. I have been taught that the two types of bilingual schools in Thailand are 'English Program' and 'Mini English Program'.
   Mark only one oval.
   ○ Yes, I knew this from the programme.
   ○ I knew this but not from the programme.
   ○ I didn't know this

14. I have been taught that English as an instructional media is applied to all subjects except Thai and social studies relevant to Thai matters for English Program.
   Mark only one oval.
   ○ Yes, I knew this from the programme.
   ○ I knew this but not from the programme.
   ○ I didn't know this

15. I have been taught that English as an instructional media is subject to no more than 50% of all teaching hours in a week for Mini English Program.
   Mark only one oval.
   ○ Yes, I knew this from the programme.
   ○ I knew this but not from the programme.
   ○ I didn't know this

16. I have been taught that all bilingual classrooms must be taught through team teaching by Thai and foreign teachers.
   Mark only one oval.
   ○ Yes, I knew this from the programme.
   ○ I knew this but not from the programme.
   ○ I didn't know this

2b) The qualifications of a bilingual teacher

17. Indicate all qualifications important for you to work in an English programme or a mini English programme.

https://docs.google.com/forms/d/1SZh0qexTWJUESnSn3Z5hA5YeCrqtnRZt... 11/04/2016
14. Bilingual teachers (BTs) must have at least a bachelor’s degree in the subject they teach or related field. *  
(BTs = บริการการศึกษาทางบILINGUAL)  
Mark only one oval.  

1  2  3  4  5  
Strongly unnecessary ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐  Strongly necessary  

15. BTs especially non-native English teachers (NNETs) must be skilled at listening, speaking, reading and writing in English *  
(IME = อีล็อทและอีล็อทในอังกฤษ)  
Mark only one oval.  

1  2  3  4  5  
Strongly unnecessary ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐  Strongly necessary  

16. BTs especially NNETs must be able to communicate in English like natives. *  
Mark only one oval.  

1  2  3  4  5  
Strongly unnecessary ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐  Strongly necessary  

17. BTs especially NNETs must have TOEFL score which is no less than 550. *  
Mark only one oval.  

1  2  3  4  5  
Strongly unnecessary ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐  Strongly necessary  

18. BTs especially NNETs must have IELTS score which is no less than 5.5. *  
Mark only one oval.  

1  2  3  4  5  
Strongly unnecessary ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐  Strongly necessary  

19. BTs must have good knowledge of young learners’ behaviours and instructional management. *  
Mark only one oval.  

1  2  3  4  5  
Strongly unnecessary ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐  Strongly necessary
24. BTs should be able to teach through English and follow the curriculum announced by the Ministry of Education.
Mark only one oval.

1 2 3 4 5

Strongly unnecessary 5 Strongly necessary

25. BTs should teach based on the Thai context harmonising with the international identity.
(Thai context harmonising international-being = ปัจจัยต่อเนื่องระหว่างความเป็นไทย)
Mark only one oval.

1 2 3 4 5

Strongly unnecessary 5 Strongly necessary

26. BTs should address the issues of loyalty to local and national and Thai identity when designing learning activities.
(loyalty to local, nations and Thai identity = ความรักต่อพื้นที่, ประเทศชาติและทวิภิวัฒนาการ)
Mark only one oval.

1 2 3 4 5

Strongly unnecessary 5 Strongly necessary

27. BTs should be able to address ethical issues and values in their teaching.
(ethical issues, ethos and values = กลไกและคุณค่าของจริยธรรม)
Mark only one oval.

1 2 3 4 5

Strongly unnecessary 5 Strongly necessary

28. BTs should be able to build up learners' confidence and encourage them to communicate in English.
Mark only one oval.

1 2 3 4 5

Strongly unnecessary 5 Strongly necessary

29. BTs should concentrate on learners especially during pre-primary level in relation to their Thai proficiency and readiness as well as their interest in learning English.
Mark only one oval.

1 2 3 4 5

Strongly unnecessary 5 Strongly necessary

https://docs.google.com/forms/d/1SZh0qexTWJUESn3ng3r32Z5hAv5YeCrZnqtpRZI... 11/04/2016
28. BTs should be able to create pleasant learning environments through simple learning activities i.e. singing, storytelling, role playing, etc. *
Mark only one oval.

1 2 3 4 5

Strongly unnecessary □ □ □ □ □ Strongly necessary

2c) Your teaching knowledge and language proficiency

31. What makes you think you can/cannot teach bilingual programmes? *

________________________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________________________

Indicate how you feel about the following statements (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = agree, and 5 = strongly agree)

I can teach bilingual programmes because...

32. I can teach pre-primary and primary students by using simple learning activities i.e. songs, stories, role play and games, etc. *
Mark only one oval.

1 2 3 4 5

Strongly disagree □ □ □ □ □ Strongly agree

33. I can concentrate on learners especially in pre-primary level in relation to their Thai proficiency and readiness as well as their interest of learning English. *
Mark only one oval.

1 2 3 4 5

Strongly disagree □ □ □ □ □ Strongly agree

https://docs.google.com/forms/d/1SZh0qexTWJUESn8rtn3Z5hAv5YeCrZsaqtRpRZ1... 11/04/2016
34. I can build up my learners’ confidence and encourage them to communicate in English. *

Mark only one oval.

1 2 3 4 5

Strongly disagree 〇 〇 〇 〇 〇 〇 Strongly agree

35. I can add the issues of ethic, ethos and values in my teaching. *

Mark only one oval.

1 2 3 4 5

Strongly disagree 〇 〇 〇 〇 〇 〇 Strongly agree

36. I can add the issues of loyalty to local and national and Thai identity when designing learning activities. *

Mark only one oval.

1 2 3 4 5

Strongly disagree 〇 〇 〇 〇 〇 〇 Strongly agree

37. I can teach based on Thai context harmonising with international culture. *

Mark only one oval.

1 2 3 4 5

Strongly disagree 〇 〇 〇 〇 〇 〇 Strongly agree

38. I can follow the curriculum announced by the Ministry of Education. *

Mark only one oval.

1 2 3 4 5

Strongly disagree 〇 〇 〇 〇 〇 〇 Strongly agree

39. I have sound understanding of young learners’ behaviour and instructional management. *

Mark only one oval.

1 2 3 4 5

Strongly disagree 〇 〇 〇 〇 〇 〇 Strongly agree

https://docs.google.com/forms/d/1SZh0qexTWJUEsSn8ntrn3Z5hAv5YeCrZnqtpRZ1... 11/04/2016
40. I have 5.5 in IELTS. *
Mark only one oval.

1 2 3 4 5

Strongly disagree   Strongly agree

41. I have 550 in TOEFL. *
Mark only one oval.

1 2 3 4 5

Strongly disagree   Strongly agree

42. I can communicate in English as well as native English speakers can. *
Mark only one oval.

1 2 3 4 5

Strongly disagree   Strongly agree

43. I have a good command of the English language (listening, speaking, reading and writing) *
Mark only one oval.

1 2 3 4 5

Strongly disagree   Strongly agree

44. At this moment, to what extent do you think you are prepared for working in a bilingual school? *
Please give a mark from 0 to 10, with 0 being not prepared and 10 being well-prepared. Please select the appropriate number which reflects your thought best.
Mark only one oval.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Not prepared   Well prepared

Data Protection Act:

The University of Exeter is a data collector and is registered with the Office of the Data Protection Commissioner as required to do under the Data Protection Act 1998. The information you provide will be used for research purposes and will be processed in accordance with the University's registration and current data protection legislation. Data will be confidential to the researcher(s) and will not be disclosed to any unauthorised third parties without further agreement by the participant. Reports based on the data will be in anonymised form.

https://docs.google.com/forms/d/1SZh0qexTWJUESn8rtn3Z5hAv5YeCrZntpRZ1... 11/04/2016
Appendix 4: An Example of Facebook-chat Data

Research on the education of bilingual teachers
Facebook-chat data by Nadech (pseudonym)

15:21 Researcher
OK. You told me that you gave yourself 10 for the readiness for teaching bilingual programmes.

15:18 Nadech
can you give the reasons please.

15:21 Researcher

15:23 Nadech
ok
in term of readiness, i have been taught students m 3-9 which is intensive english program

15:23 Researcher

15:25 Nadech
i have the rule that i wont repeat if it is not an assignment

15:29 Researcher

15:25 Nadech
they intend to class

15:28 Nadech
no one talked in my class

15:28 Researcher

15:28 Nadech
because they have to understand what i said

15:28 Researcher

15:28 Nadech
when teaching through Thai there were some students talk during my class

15:23 Nadech

15:29 Researcher

15:23 Nadech
and sometimes Thai language is needed

15:29 Researcher

15:29 Nadech
they are not like monkey lol

15:29 Researcher

15:29 Nadech
moreover, my sheets or hand outs and my excises are always written in english

15:32 Nadech

15:29 Researcher

15:29 Nadech
i tried to speak english to me

15:32 Nadech

15:32 Researcher

15:23 Researcher

15:32 Nadech
it is my impression

15:32 Researcher

15:32 Nadech
there are more

15:32 Researcher

15:32 Nadech
let me recognize

15:32 Researcher

15:32 Nadech
they were active or alert to answer my questions

15:32 Researcher

15:32 Nadech
i think it was because they wanted to show their friends

15:32 Researcher

15:43 Nadech
this shows me that i can teach them or use english as medium instruction in mep or ep program

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Research on the education of bilingual teachers
Facebook-chat data by Nadech (pseudonym)

15:43 Researcher

GREAT!

15:45 Nadech

if i have experienced, i can catch a chance easily

15:45 Researcher

what do you think you can gain from bilingual schools during your internship?

15:46 Nadech

at least i know the curriculum
what it needs student be

15:47 Researcher

anything else?

15:47 Nadech

know their behaviors
i think they are different from normal class
and i can act myself to be right way

15:50 Researcher

if you got two choices (normal programme vs bilingual programme), you would take bilingual schools for your internship?

15:51 Nadech

absolutely
it is challenging
i can gain experiences

15:54 Nadech

in my view point, activities between two programmes (normal and ep) must be different

15:54 Researcher

so?

15:55 Nadech

ep, can not be used instructions or activities of normal because

15:56 Nadech

ep students know english well more that normal class and i think the activities for normal class are easy for ep class

15:57 Researcher

you love to take this challenge?

15:57 Nadech

yes

15:58 Nadech

if i were in the past, i would not love to take teaching experience is very important!

15:59 Researcher

Apart from experience (teaching through English or serving your internship in bilingual school, what are the other factors you think can make you (even) better prepared for teaching bilingual programmes?

Cuz you are already!
read
defor the job!
Research on the education of bilingual teachers
Facebook-chat data by Nadech (pseudonym)

16:00 Nadech
another factor
confidence!!!

16:02 Nadech
before i taught my m.3/9 students

16:03 Nadech
it is my first time, right?
i had not much confident
because when i served as a pre service
teacher i taught normal class.
i had less opportunity to use english
and when i needed to use it at first time, i was
always nervous

16:13 Researcher
why were you nervous, apart from not being
accustomed to public speaking?

16:13 Nadech
i dont know
my heartbeat always run fast

16:14 Researcher
worry about your speaking skill? or any other
reasons?

16:15 Nadech
speaking in thai, i am nervous too
i fear i dont do best

16:17 Researcher
any support from learning at the uni for
building up your confidence in public Speaking

16:21 Nadech
use material when presenting
body language
but when i hold microphone you know my
hand always shanks

16:21 Researcher
these are skills you learnt from the uni
and make you relieved from the stress

16:22 Nadech
sometimes

16:23 Researcher
however, you are still nervous

16:23 Nadech
but indeed it is my behaviour. yeah
and it will be ok after that
you know i will elei

16:25 Researcher
you mentioned that you do not receive skills of
speaking English naturally from learning at the
faculty. Why so?

16:26 Nadech
i think the faculty gave me writing more than
speaking

16:28 Nadech
writing essay
writing academic 1
academic2
essay*

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Research on the education of bilingual teachers Facebook-chat data by Nadech (psedonyme)

16:37 Researcher
what else the faculty can do?

16:37 Nadech
speaking
and English grammatical
but writing is needed too
listening skill
you know what i cant listen indian
and some british

16:42 Researcher
Anything else in terms of building up your confidence

16:42 Nadech
Thai can speak english
one thing i would recommend

16:43 Researcher
having more courses (according to the curriculum - English major) and more seminars/workshops, anything the faculty / lecturers should do

16:43 Nadech
go abroad

16:43 Researcher
yes tell me more about that!

16:44 Nadech
my students always ask me
have you go aboard?
gone*

they think i am an english teacher i must have gone abroad.

16:45 Researcher
what do you think?

16:45 Nadech
i think
i study English major i wish i must go abroad once
like stay a month
0 months

16:56 Researcher
anything else, what can the lecturers do to strengthen your speaking skill (speaking naturally)

16:56 Nadech
teach through english
at all times

16:57 Nadech
like we must talk in eng every time

16:57 Researcher
Good point, lecturers should teach through English
then you believe that you can speak English more naturally

16:58 Nadech
yeah

16:58 Researcher
only for major subjects or all subjects?

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Research on the education of bilingual teachers
Facebook-chat data by Nadech (pseudonyme)

16:58 Nadech
speak everyone
only en major

16:58 Researcher
OK
you have given me very interesting info
i really appreciate it
this info will help improve our programme

16:59 Nadech
when i want to see you i must use english
at home another places we dont use english

17:00 Nadech
and it makes us speak unnaturally

17:00 Nadech
speak everyday
Appendix 5: Consent Form

CONSENT FORM

I have been fully informed about the aims and purposes of the project.

I understand that:

- there is no compulsion for my students to participate in this research project and, if they do choose to participate, they may at any stage withdraw their participation.
- My students have the right to refuse permission for the publication of any information about them.
- any information which they give will be used solely for the purposes of this research project, which may include publications.
- if applicable, the information, which they give, may be shared between any of the other researcher(s) participating in this project in an anonymised form.
- all information they give will be treated as confidential.
- the researcher(s) will make every effort to preserve their anonymity.

L. Araya

(Signature of the Dean of Education, Suan Sunandha Rajabhat University)

Dr. Maya Lee

(Printed name)

June 9th 2013

(Date)

One copy of this form will be kept by the participant; a second copy will be kept by the researcher(s).

Contact phone number of researcher(s): 0745 636 630

If you have any concerns about the project that you would like to discuss, please contact:
Satiporn Mongkongnopparut (The Researcher), Graduate School of Education University of Exeter, St. Luke’s Campus, Exeter EX1 2LU, UK. Email:_rsp003@exeter.ac.uk

OR
Dr. Gabriela Meier (The Researcher), Graduate School of Education University of Exeter, St. Luke’s Campus, Exeter EX1 2LU, UK. Tel: 044 (0)1392 724866. Email: G.Meiier@exeter.ac.uk.

Data Protection Act: The University of Exeter is a data controller and is registered with the Office of the Data Protection Commissioner as required to do under the Data Protection Act 1998. The information you provide will be used for research purposes and will be processed in accordance with the University's registration and current data protection legislation. Data will be confidential to the researcher(s) and will not be disclosed to any unauthorised third parties without further agreement by the participant. Reports based on the data will be in anonymised form.
Appendix 6: Certificate of Ethical Research Approval Dissertation/Thesis

STUDENT HIGHER-LEVEL RESEARCH
DISSEPTION/THESIS

UNIVERSITY OF
EXETER

Graduate School of Education

Certificate of ethical research approval

DISSEPTION/THESIS

To activate this certificate you need to first sign it yourself, and then have it signed by your supervisor and finally by the Chair of the School’s Ethics Committee.

For further information on ethical educational research access the guidelines on the BERA web site: http://www.bera.ac.uk/publications/guidelines/ and view the School’s statement on the GSE student access on-line documents.

READ THIS FORM CAREFULLY AND THEN COMPLETE IT ON YOUR COMPUTER (the form will expand to contain the text you enter). DO NOT COMPLETE BY HAND

Your name: SasipornPhongphoepis

Your student no: 600043043

Return address for this certificate: 30 Colleton Court, Colleton Mews, St. Leonards, Exeter EX24AH

Degree/Programme of Study: EdD TESOL

Project Supervisor(s): Dr. Gabriela Meier and Dr. Fran Martin

Your email address: psp203@exeter.ac.uk

Tel: 07534636630

I hereby certify that I will abide by the details given overleaf and that I undertake in my dissertation / thesis (delete whichever is inappropriate) to respect the dignity and privacy of those participating in this research.

I confirm that if my research should change radically, I will complete a further form.

Signed: Sasiporn Phongphoepis

Date: 2021-03-01

NB For Masters dissertations, which are marked blind, this first page must not be included in your work. It can be kept for your records.
Certificate of ethical research approval

DISSEPTION/THESIS

Your student no: 600045043

Title of your project:

The education of bilingual teachers: a strategy to prepare Thai pre-service teachers for Thailand to entering the ASEAN Economic Community in 2015

Brief description of your research project:

English education is gaining more importance in Thailand due to entering the ASEAN community in 2015. This is driven by increase in English bilingual programmes entitled English Programme (EP) and Mini English Programme (MEP) in public schools across the country. These schools currently rely on English native speakers mainly because of their pronunciation. Most of government schools cannot provide an attractive salary to them; therefore, employing Thai teachers teaching through English is an alternative. English teacher education seems to be the only programme which prepares student teachers (or pre-service teachers) for a teaching position of an EP and an MEP because there are no bilingual teacher education programmes serving in the country at this moment. According to the Ministry of Education, TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) over 550 or IELTS (International English Language Testing System) over 5.5 is one of qualifications in order to work as a teacher in bilingual schools because English is not their mother language. Apart from this requirement, this teaching position requires skills of native-like pronunciation and communication.

English teacher education programmes provide knowledge of pedagogy, English and professionalism to student teachers. It is likely that they are trained to be able to teach through English. However, the two qualifications set by the ministry are beyond the objectives of the curriculum. This research study aims to investigate to what extent an English teacher education programme in Thailand supports student teachers on working in bilingual schools. The research findings may contribute to a prototype model of bilingual teacher education programme or the revision of the existing curriculum to support prospective Thai bilingual teachers of English bilingual programme.

Give details of the participants in this research (giving ages of any children and/or young people involved):

The participants in this research include approximately 150 student teachers in year two to year four and 90 graduates of a teacher education programme in English at one of the universities in Thailand. The age range is from 18 to 26. Year 2 student teachers are taught through the curriculum version 2012 while the rest of them are taught through the curriculum version 2004.

Student teachers in year 1 and 5 are not included. This is because the year 1 group have no experience of the curriculum and the schedules of the year 5 group are different from that of the participants. Their schedules depend mainly on school sites where they are placed. Among these schools, activities during term time such as exams and sport days are arranged on different days depending on schools' calendar. Apart from their involvement with these activities, they need to prepare themselves for the assessment of their teaching practices which is at least three times in one semester. Moreover, each of them has the assessment on different days.
Give details (with special reference to any children or those with special needs) regarding the ethical issues of:

a) informed consent: Where children in schools are involved this includes both headteachers and parents. Copy(ies) of your consent form(s) you will be using must accompany this document. a blank consent form can be downloaded from the GSE student access on-line documents:

A consent form is given to the Dean together with (1) the Certificate of Ethical Research Approval from Graduate School of Education, University of Exeter (2) the consent letter with the information of research objectives and the potential consequences for the faculty and the participants.

The 7 student teacher participants were informed of this research project by me in April 2013. After the Dean gives her consent, a two page consent form will be emailed to these representatives who pass the form to the rest of student teacher participants. The first page of the form is the information of involving with the research activities and its second page is consent form.

The graduate participants will be informed of the research activities, its objectives as well as their roles via a post I make on three Facebook Groups varied in the participants’ years of graduation. Likewise, the two page consent form is attached to the post.

The two page consent form also explains to them that there will be no impact on the assessment of the courses they are enrolling and they are free to withdraw from the research activities at anytime. When all participants understand the research project and their roles, each of them will email the signed form to me.

b) anonymity and confidentiality

Every reasonable effort will be made to ensure that no output (e.g. dissertation, article, report, conference or seminar presentation) will provide information which might allow any participant or institution to be identified from names, data, contextual information or a combination of these.

Give details of the methods to be used for data collection and analysis and how you would ensure they do not cause any harm, detriment or unreasonable stress:

Two research methods used in this research study are:

1) Online questionnaire consists of 40 question items which are written in English. However, Thai translation for certain words and phrases is given at the footnotes. There are 8 multiple choices questions, 25 rating scales with 5 point-questions, 2 ratio questions and 5 open-ended questions. This allows them to complete them at ease no more than 30 minutes.

2) Written narratives prompted by stories created from the statistical data are made. The participants read their stories and create their own narrative through expressing their view on the story they have read in the spaces given.

The informal discussion may be subject to the extension period of data collection. At this stage, I work closely with the participants to avoid misinterpretation in the unlikely case that this might cause any harm to them.

For not causing any stress to the student teacher participants, data collection will not be conducted during the period of mid-term and final exam. The participants will be also free from involving all research activities in order to prepare themselves for the examination. Student teachers in year 2-3 will complete online questionnaires and written narratives from August 22nd to September 14th and year 4 student teachers will complete them from June 17th to July 17th.
The questionnaire link\(^1\) is sent to the graduate participants through three different Facebook groups. Currently, each cohort has their own Facebook group for communicating with each other and I am one of the members of all groups. These closed groups will remain active after the completion of this research project. On the other hand, the student teacher participants will receive the link from the 7 representatives who get the link from me through Facebook. After the completion of the research study, the representatives will continue to use Facebook to contact with me for discussing issues of TESOL and bilingual teacher education.

There are 3 questionnaire items asking about the personal information of the participants i.e. genders, year of study and year of graduate, and email address. Their email address may represent their identity. However, it is useful to let me know if any participants have submitted more than one questionnaire and it is a channel for me to send a story created from statistical data to a particular participant. Even though, Facebook is used for posting the questionnaire link only but the participants’ Facebook accounts will not appear in their questionnaire responses. All of the responses are kept in Google Drive. To access data, a username and a password are required. Their identity will be protected through the use of pseudonym throughout the research study.

The university data protection notice, as shown on the consent forms, will also be printed on each questionnaire and on the document to which participant will add their own narratives.

Give details of any other ethical issues which may arise from this project (e.g. secure storage of videos/recorded interviews/photos/completed questionnaires or special arrangements made for participants with special needs etc.).

Signed consent forms and any document matching pseudonyms to real names will be stored in a locked filing cabinet. Electronic data will be transferred at the earliest opportunity to the university of Exeter U-drive.

Give details of any exceptional factors, which may raise ethical issues (e.g. potential political or ideological conflicts which may pose danger or harm to participants):

Any negative perspectives of the course might resonate with the quality of English teacher education programme especially teaching quality. This may cause dissatisfied relationships with instructors as well as the institution or have a negative impact on instructors’ performance evaluation. Therefore, the participants’ names will not be disclosed to any of these parties and non-identifiability is definitely ensured.

*This form should now be printed out, signed by you on the first page and sent to your supervisor to sign. Your supervisor will forward this document to the School's Research Support Office for the Chair of the School's Ethics Committee to countersign. A unique approval reference will be added and this certificate will be returned to you to be included at the back of your dissertation/thesis.*

\(^1\)https://docs.google.com/forms/d/1hJw6jrcH7zb0QvNcbm31Oh_hSi0tCZVw4QzEPQAjGU/view
N.B. You should not start the fieldwork part of the project until you have the signature of your supervisor.

This project has been approved for the period: until: 30.9.2014

By (above mentioned supervisor’s signature): [Signature] date: 10.6.2013

N.B. To Supervisor: Please ensure that ethical issues are addressed annually in your report and if any changes in the research occur a further form is completed.

GSE unique approval reference: D... [Redacted]

Signed: [Signature]

Date: 12/7/15

Chair of the School’s Ethics Committee

This form is available from http://education.exeter.ac.uk/students/
BIBLIOGRAPHY


Lingual France: Studies and Findings, Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.


