

**THAI PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS' BELIEFS ABOUT
THE LEARNER-CENTRED APPROACH AND THEIR
CLASSROOM PRACTICES**

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DECLARATION

I declare that this thesis is my own work. I have correctly acknowledged the work of others and no part of the material offered has been previously submitted by me for any other award or qualification in this or any other university.

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ABSTRACT

The learner-centred approach has been widely used, not only in general education, but also in language teaching, since the 1960s. However, the meaning of this approach has been interpreted differently by practitioners. Since 1999, the educational reform in Thailand, which was inspired by the 1997 Constitution and the 1999 Thai National Education Act, has made it mandatory for the learner-centred approach to be applied to teaching at all levels. To date, much research on the implementation of the learner-centred approach by in-service teachers has been undertaken. However, little research has been conducted on pre-service teachers' beliefs about the learner-centred approach and their classroom practices. Understanding pre-service teachers' beliefs will contribute to the improvement of their teaching practices and of teacher education programmes.

The study explored six Thai pre-service English teachers' understanding and the extent to which their classroom practices reflected learner-centredness during their internship, and determined the relationship between their beliefs and classroom practices. The investigation adopted a qualitative approach, including semi-structured interviews, non-participant observations, and document analysis.

The findings reveal that the Thai pre-service teachers possessed varying degrees of understanding of the learner-centred approach and its application. They had a superficial and fragmented understanding of and some misconceptions about the learner-centred approach. They therefore adopted this approach to teaching in a limited fashion during their internship.

The divergences between their beliefs and their classroom practices may have been caused by their shallow understanding of and their misconceptions about this approach. Other factors, such as personal background and cognitive, affective, experiential and contextual issues could also have impacted on classroom practices, inhibiting the translation of their beliefs into practice.

This study has important and far-reaching curriculum implications for pre-service teacher training in Thailand with regard to the new model of pre-service teacher training. The findings also have pedagogical implications for pre-service teacher training beyond Thailand, and add to the literature new insights into pre-service teachers' understanding of the learner-centred approach, their pedagogical practices, and factors facilitating and hindering the application of the learner-centred approach. The findings demonstrate that research on teachers' beliefs makes the most noteworthy contributions to a better understanding of teachers' pedagogical practices.

DEDICATION

To the soul of my mother

To my dear father

To the memory of my mother- and father-in law

To my late brother

To all my sisters and brothers

To my loving husband, Supote

To my beloved two girls, Naphasorn and Thanwarat

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

BB	Blackboard
COLT	Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching
EFL	English as a foreign language
ELT	English language teaching
ESL	English as a second language
IPA	The International Phonetic Alphabet
IRF	Initiation-response-feedback
LC	Learner-centred
LCA	Learner-centred approach
LCPPs	Learner-centred psychological principles
L1	First language
L2	Second language
MOE	The Ministry of Education
NNS	Non-native speaker
OBE	The Office of Basic of Education
OBEC	The Office of the Basic Education Commission
ONEC	The Office of National Education Commission
Ss	Students
ST	Student teacher
STs	Student teachers
TC	Teacher-centred
TCA	Teacher-centred approach
WB	Whiteboard

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Chapter 1. Introduction

1.1 Introduction

The aim of this study was to explore NNS EFL pre-service teachers' understanding of the learner-centred approach (LCA), and their actual classroom practices during their internship in Thai schools. This study is not only grounded in the concepts and practices in relation to the LCA, but it also examines and discusses the importance of how teachers' beliefs may influence their acceptance or rejection of this approach.

This chapter first presents a full explanation of why this study is necessary. An overview of the importance of English, the Thai educational system and English language teaching in Thailand is provided. The purposes and research questions of the study are then described in detail, followed by a discussion of the significance of this study. Finally, the structure of this thesis is presented.

1.2 Rationale

A variety of factors led me to the conclusion that this research not only was necessary, but that it would be timely. These factors are my personal interest, based on my work experience in the Thai education sector; the educational reforms that have been taking place in Thailand since the 1990s, with their emphasis on the importance of adopting the LCA in teaching; the recent development of a new model for teacher training in Thailand, and finally the general lack of research interest in the

relationship between pre-service teachers' beliefs about the LCA and their classroom practices. It is hoped that the findings of this study will go some way towards filling this gap in the research.

1.2.1 Personal Interest

The present study was inspired by my own personal interest and professional curiosity about how English is taught by student teachers (STs). Since 1992, I have worked as a lecturer, involved in training pre-service and in-service teachers. I have worked closely with STs as a university supervisor, supervising English major pre-service teachers. This role and its inherent responsibilities afforded me the opportunity to observe and supervise the STs in the classroom, which served to increase my interest in conducting this study. My specific interests in this field of research include what exactly takes place in the classroom, and to what extent the learned-centred (LC) approach is reflected in teaching practices.

1.2.2 Educational Reform in Thailand

The impetus for conducting this study was also triggered by the enormous efforts the Thai Ministry of Education (MOE) had been putting into promoting the LCA as part of the educational reform in Thailand, mandated by the 1997 Constitution and the Thai National Education Act, 1999 (Office of the National Education Commission, 1999; Office of the National Education Commission, 2004). The National Education Act comprises 9 chapters (see Figure 1.1), and sections 22-30 of chapter 4 of the 'National Education Guidelines', which is deemed to be the heart of the educational reform, specifically emphasise the maximising of benefits for learners. The

application of the LCA is paramount, since it is the driving force behind learning reform. According to the Office of the National Education Commission (ONEC), learning reform through the LCA is stipulated by the enactment of the National Education Act (Office of the National Education Commission, 2000).

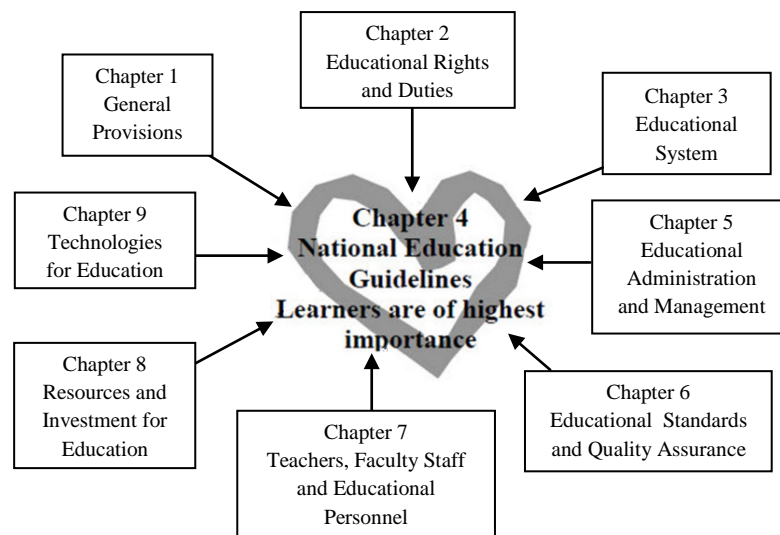


Figure 1.1 Provisions in all chapters of the National Education Act lead to adoption of the ‘learner-centred approach’

(Office of the National Education Commission, 2000, p. 8)

The purpose of the reform was to try to resolve in their entirety the many problems Thailand was encountering, to improve the ‘quality ... of the Thai people for sustainable development of the country’ (ibid., p. 17) and to ‘enable our [Thai] children to learn happily and eventually become citizens of quality’ (ibid., p. vi). The heart of the education reform is learning reform, in which the focus of teaching is shifted from subject matter to human beings, or learners. Consequently, ‘a learner-centred approach becomes imperative’ (ibid., p. i). The Thai National Education Act 1999 made it mandatory for teachers to make the transition from a teacher-centred

(TC) to a learner-centred (LC) approach in order to endow learners with the desired attributes (see Figure 1.2 for more details), namely, virtue, competence, and happiness (ibid.).

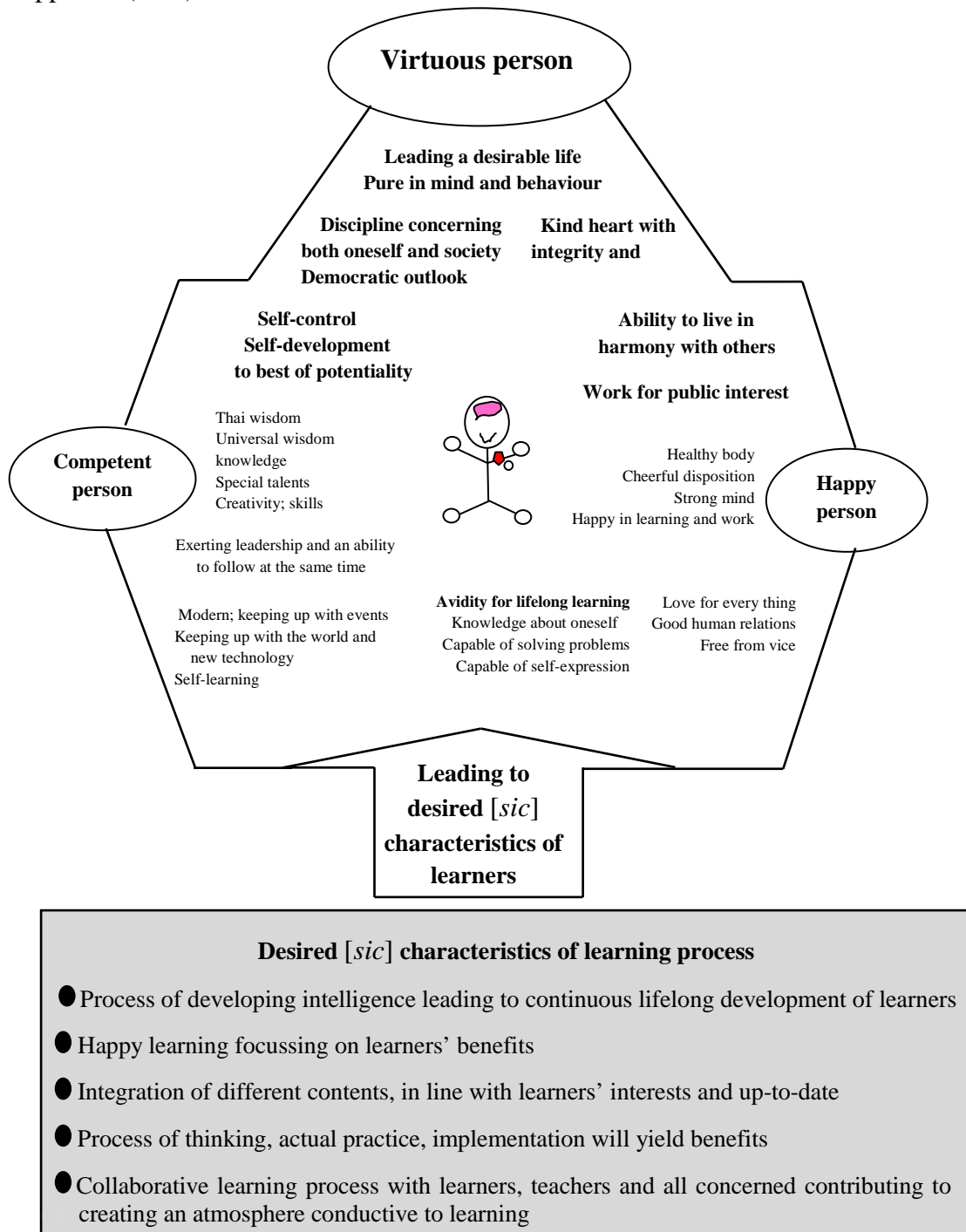


Figure 1.2 Desired characteristics of learners and the learning process

(Office of the National Education Commission, 2000, p. 16)

Although learning reform through the LCA has been enforced since 1999, Foley (2005, p. 224) reports that ‘this approach did not succeed very well as it seemed to go against the rote learning tradition that was ingrained in both the educational and religious traditions of Thai culture’. Rote memorisation (Cuban, 1983), the grammar translation method (Vibulphol, 2004), together with an audio-lingual method or TC instruction (Nonkukhetkhong *et al.*, 2006) are still evident today.

Even though the idea of a LCA was announced by the MOE in 1996 and has been promoted by the Ministry since then, the shift from the traditional TC mode of instruction, which has long been rooted in the Thai education system, to the LCA is still causing much confusion among teachers. One of the key problems is that many teachers do not truly understand what the LCA entails. They ‘misinterpret the concept of the learner-centred approach, resulting in confusion at present’ (Office of the National Education Commission, 2000, p. vi); in addition, they are unclear about how to put this approach into practice. Moreover, its meaning has been interpreted differently by different practitioners, as the meaning of the term learner-centredness has been changed and developed since it was first introduced.

It is certainly true that the teacher’s understanding of the LCA is influential in the extent to which they adopt this approach in their teaching. Misinterpretation, misuse along with abuse of the concept of this approach has been widely reported, on many occasions, in the media. According to some Thai teachers, this approach is like a ‘khwai’-centred approach. The term ‘khwai’ (buffalo) in Thai literally means a large cow that farmers use to draw ploughs. When this term is used to refer to people or

ideas, it implies that ‘the compared people or ideas are witless’ (Thamraksa, 2011, p. 61). Atagi (2002) and O’Neill (1991) also argue that there is always a possibility that teachers will both misinterpret and misunderstand this approach. Atagi (2002) asserts that:

If misunderstood, teachers will become stand-by instructors, who do not prepare lessons, assuming it is the students’ responsibility to initiate their own learning ... The “learner-centred approach” does not mean that students go on field trips or are involved in group discussion all the time. Many teachers misunderstand that the learner-centred approach as [*sic*] a tool, but it is actually a principle. (pp. 51, 53)

This interpretation suggests that if teachers do not have a clear understanding of how to use the LCA, then, instead of assisting students to become smarter, student progress will be hindered by this approach (Thamraksa, 2011). Nonkukhetkhong *et al.* (2006), for example, investigated secondary school teachers’ perceptions of and use of the LCA in teaching English as foreign language (EFL) in Thailand. They found that teachers were uncertain about the theory underlying the LCA, and that the extent to which they implemented it depended upon their understanding. There seems to be some doubt as to whether this approach can improve students’ learning quality. Some teachers are not confident about how or what they should do to implement this approach (Thamraksa, 2011). Furthermore, ‘a number of questions regarding the feasibility, viability, and applicability of this teaching model are raised widely in the teaching community’ (*ibid.*, p. 61). Some teachers view the LCA as a demanding approach. Undoubtedly, most of them do not welcome this approach because of various factors, such as their attitudes and beliefs.

1.2.3 New Model of Teacher Training

An additional impetus for conducting the present study came as a direct result of a number of changes introduced in pre-service teacher training which were initiated by the MOE to improve the quality of teachers produced in Thailand. For example, the four-year BEd programme was replaced by a five-year BEd programme; additionally, since 2004, an internship has been extended from one semester to one academic year. Furthermore, in 2006, a teacher education programme at one university also added some courses (see course descriptions in Appendix B) designed to promote learner-centredness. All these changes in a pre-service training programme may lead to more LC practices. As teachers are key features of learning reform, Atagi (2002) emphasises the important role played by teacher education institutions in producing newly qualified teachers as follows:

Teacher education institutions must prepare new teachers to contribute to the emerging education paradigm. Teachers' capacity and skills are critical to the reform and the success that teacher training colleges and the universities have in preparing teachers will have a direct impact on teachers' efforts at reform. (p. 19)

Despite the fact that the new pre-service teacher training programmes were introduced in 2004, and the LCA was introduced in Thailand in 1999, how STs conceptualise the LCA and how this approach is adopted by them have attracted little interest among researchers. Recent research has tended to concentrate on in-service, rather than pre-service teachers.

1.2.4 The Importance of Teachers' Beliefs in Research on Teaching

Interest in the LCA has grown considerably, as well as receiving greater attention (Bullock, 2011) and the concept has been widely discussed in general education and language learning literature (Nunan, 1988; Tudor, 1993; 1996; McCombs and Whisler, 1997; Weimer, 2002; McCombs and Miller, 2007; Murdoch and Wilson, 2008; Blumberg, 2009). A number of studies have been undertaken to investigate the use of the LCA by in-service teachers of primary and secondary levels in different contexts, such as the United States (Cuban, 1993), Botswana (Tabulawa, 1998), New Zealand and Australia (Adler *et al.*, 2000), Namibia (O'Sullivan, 2004), Midwestern America (Schuh, 2004), Thailand (Nonkukhetkhong *et al.*, 2006; Prapaisit de Segovia and Hardison, 2009), China (Wang, 2007), Turkey (Yilmaz, 2007), Kuwait (Al-Nouh, 2008) and Libya (Shihiba, 2011). However, research into teachers' beliefs about the use of this approach and their classroom practices is scarce.

Most of the previous studies on LC instruction have not provided a sufficient explanation of why it is difficult to move teachers' classroom practices toward LC instruction. In addition, these studies have merely focused on the degree to which teachers' classroom practices reflected learner-centredness, and the constraints and difficulties confronting LC teaching practices. Nonetheless, Fullan (2007) observes that a change in teaching practices rarely occurs without a change in the beliefs of the teacher which include his/her pedagogical assumptions and theories underpinning new teaching practices.

An established body of research on teaching has indicated that teaching involves both what teachers do in the classroom (teachers' actions) and their thinking (the reasons that underlie their teaching) (Breen, 1991; Freeman, 1992; Borg, 1998a; Johnson, 1999). As a result, the description of teaching which simply focuses on teachers' actions whilst they are teaching inadequately accounts for 'why teachers do what they are doing during lessons' (Breen, 1991, p. 213). To understand teaching fully, it is necessary to study both teachers' actions and their 'reasoning teaching' (Johnson, 1999).

There is now ample evidence to support the premise that teachers' beliefs are the most important factor shaping teachers' instructional practices, promoting change or adopting new approaches or educational innovations, and the process of learning to teach (Richards *et al.*, 2001; Orafi and Borg, 2009; Borg and Al-Busaidi, 2012). Beliefs are highly influential in appraising, accepting or rejecting, and interpreting, as well as in understanding new information and tasks (Nespor, 1987; Borg, 2005). Moreover, they also serve as a filter of the information that pre-service teachers are given during a teacher education programme (Pennington, 1996).

Teachers' beliefs are of central importance in improving teaching, together with understanding teacher learning. As Borg (2009) points out:

We cannot properly understand teachers and teaching without understanding the thoughts, knowledge, and beliefs that influence what teachers do. Similarly, in teacher education, we cannot make adequate sense of teachers' experiences of learning to teach without examining the unobservable mental dimension of this learning process. (p. 163)

Additionally, Johnson (1994) argues that teachers' beliefs have powerful effects on how information on teaching is translated into classroom practice, and understanding teachers' beliefs is essential to improving teaching practices and teacher education programmes. It is also widely acknowledged that beliefs are more influential than knowledge in determining, as well as shaping how teachers organise, along with defining tasks (Nespor, 1987; Williams and Burden, 1997) and what teachers learn and how they learn it (Richardson, 1996).

The preceding discussion indicates that there is a clear need to study how pre-service teachers understand the LCA and to what extent LC teaching is reflected in their classroom practices.

In the sections above I have described the various factors that influenced me to conduct the current study. These were my personal interest, the nature of the educational reforms taking place in Thailand, together with the development of a new model for teacher training, and the scarcity of research into how teachers' understanding of the LCA affects their use of the approach. The discussion indicates that there is a clear need to study how pre-service teachers understand the LCA and to what extent they are using it in their practice.

1.3 Context of the Study

Prior to providing some background about the educational system and English language teaching in Thailand, it will be useful to give a brief description of the

importance of Thai culture to learners and teachers, English in Thailand, the Thai educational system, and English language teaching in the country. Thailand is at present encountering a problem in that, despite the acknowledged importance of learning English in schools, and despite the fact that English is used widely in official circles and in the media, the learning outcomes of Thai learners in the subject remain extremely poor.

1.3.1 The Salience of Thai Culture to Learners and Teachers

Thai society has been imbued with the notions of inequality and hierarchy. Historically, the organisation of Thai society was based firmly upon the Sakdina system. This system was ‘a ranked, stratified, caste-like social hierarchy with a cleavage between two major strata ... which represented a rigid division between the ... ‘upper class persons’ and ... ‘lower class persons’ (Scupin, 1988, p. 332).

Since the thirteenth century (the Sukhothai period), the development and stability of the country have been dependent upon the intellectual capacity of the monarch. Kings in Thailand have absolute power and are at the apex of the social hierarchy (Ingersoll, 1975). According to Scupin (1988, p. 333), all Thai and Western scholars would agree that the principal characteristics of Thai society are as follows:

There is a definite differential distribution of wealth, power, authority, privilege and other status prerogatives within the Thai social order. Furthermore they would agree that notions of inequality and status based upon **phûujàj** [grown-up or superior]/ **phûunǎj** [child or subordinate], and royal/ non-royal distinctions are integral aspects of the Thai social strata. These conceptions of rank and hierarchy are imbued with and conjoined with the Thai religious and moral ethos.

It is essential that subordinates (phunoi) show their respect (khaorob) to, obey (chueafang), and do nothing that would displease (krengjai) their superiors (Rabibhadana, 1975). These three concepts are highly influential, not only in Thai society as a whole, but also in schools. The patterns of deference in Thailand can be described as follows:

Children are expected to be obedient toward their parents ... Independent behavior on the part of a child is not encouraged. *Respect* for parents and other elders is seen as a basic virtue ... [and] lasts through adulthood ... Parents and grandparents are treated with formal deference even after their children have actually taken control of their own lives. (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005, p. 51, original emphasis)

The hierarchical social structure is also apparent in the Thai educational context, in which ‘teachers are treated with respect’ (ibid., p.51) and accorded a high status. Therefore, it is not appropriate for Thai students to question their teacher, or if they do ask their teacher to repeat an explanation (Foley, 2005) they will feel ‘krengjai’ (an amalgamation of feelings: deference, diffidence, consideration and respect (Klausner, 1993)). Additionally, they dare not contradict their teachers. Teachers are considered to be ‘the second parents whose mission is not only to impart knowledge, but [also] to teach morals and mold the students to be good citizens in society as well’ (Thamraksa, 2011, p. 63). Thai teachers are addressed as ‘Khru’ or ‘Ajarn’, both of which refer to someone who teaches disciples and someone ‘who spreads knowledge to his disciples’ (Foley, 2005, p. 228). The image of the teacher in Thai society is that of ‘a righteous guru’ (Thamraksa, 2011) who has great knowledge and the authority to be responsible for students’ learning. It is clear that students are followers. Given this large power-distance situation between teachers and students, it is unsurprising

that the teaching and learning process becomes teacher-centred (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005). This power-distance situation and the structure of Thai society undoubtedly have an impact on how students are taught. Thus, in order for teachers to become more learner-centred, the power distance between teachers and students needs to be reduced.

Buddhism, the dominant religion in Thailand, is also influential over the Thai worldview, general Thai social behaviour, as well as classroom teaching and learning behaviour (Brown, 2004). This religion leads the Thai people not only to accept their positions in the society, but also to be satisfied with what they have. The most influential concepts in Thai society are the notion of ‘Karma’ and that of hierarchical status. Karma may be defined as ‘something like a profile of one’s meritorious and sinful acts and thoughts’ (Foley, 2005, p. 227). The concept of Karma causes Thai people to avoid whenever and wherever possible emotional extremes, conflict and confrontation (Baker, 2008). This notion comes into play in the way teachers teach and the way students learn.

1.3.2 English in Thailand

The rapid development of information and communications technology and the resulting creation of a borderless world have turned English into the central pivot of economic competitiveness in the global market (Atagi, 2002; Prapaisit de Segovia and Hardison, 2009). English is the most important foreign language in Thailand, and is in fact considered to be the de facto Thai official second language. It is widely used

in the media, in addition to Thai and Chinese, is used extensively in 'education and is a lingua franca for international relations and business' (Baker, 2008, p. 135). Nowadays in Thai society, national newspapers, some local publications, TV programmes, radio stations and films are also available in English. English is also perceived to be an essential language for the Thai tourism industry (Baker, 2008).

English is important and crucial, since it is used as a tool for 'communication, education, seeking knowledge, livelihood and creating understanding of cultures and visions of the world community' (Ministry of Education, 2008, p. 252). English is deemed to be a language for both communication and new technology (Wiriyachitra, 2002; Wongsothorn *et al.*, 2002). Moreover, Thais who have a good command of English will have better opportunities, and be able to access modern technology and communication, as well as advance professionally (Kam, 2002; Foley, 2005). Today, English has become vitally important to the development of the country.

1.3.3 Thai Education System

The current Thai education system was profoundly influenced by the 1999 National Education Act (the Act was amended in 2002) and the Constitution of the Kingdom of Thailand promulgated in October 1997. The enactment of the 1999 National Education Act and the constitution resulted in the commencement of education reform in Thailand which brought considerable changes to the education system. Some examples of these changes include: first, a 12-year free basic education scheme was first granted in Thai history in October 2002, and was extended to 14 years in May 2004, by including 2 years of pre-primary schooling (UNESCO, 2010). The

basic Thai education system is a 6: 3: 3 system, consisting of 6 years of primary (Pratomsuksa 1-6: Grades 1-6), 3 years of lower secondary (Matayomsuksa 1-3: Grades 7-9), and 3 years of upper secondary education (Matayomsuksa 4-6: Grades 10-12) (Punthumasen, 2007). A free basic education of twelve years is guaranteed by the Thai constitution.

Second, all ‘learners have the ability to learn and develop. Learners are the most important component’ (Wiriyachitra, 2002, p. 2). Third, the process of teaching and learning needs to be changed in order to enable learners to ‘develop themselves at their own pace and to the best of their potentiality’ (Office of the National Education Commission, 1999, p. 10). Consequently, a LCA is a must. The focus of English language teaching is on learners, and on communication. Additionally, the teacher should aim to promote thinking skills, critical thinking, learning skills, self-learning strategies and moral development (Baker, 2008; Bureau of International Cooperation, 2008). These major alterations reflect the need for LC instruction.

1.3.4 Characterising Thai EFL Teaching

In 1996, English was offered as a foreign language to Grade 1 students in Thai state schools. Students at some private schools started learning English at the age of five, in other words, two years earlier (Kindergarten: Anubarn 1-2). English became a compulsory subject for all primary students from Grade 1 onwards in 1996. Apart from having a place in the basic education core curriculum for the three educational levels: (Pratomsuksa 1- Matayomsuksa 6: Grades 1-12), English is the most common language taught in primary schools, as well as in secondary schools and universities,

although other foreign languages are optional. Therefore, ‘English enjoyed a very high status’ (Wongsothorn *et al.*, 2002, p. 108) in Thai education.

One of the core subjects in the basic education curriculum is foreign languages. However, English is ‘the foreign language constituting basic learning content that is prescribed for the entire basic education core curriculum’ (Ministry of Education, 2008, p. 252). The English curriculum is based on four strands (widely known as 4Cs), namely communication (Language for communication), culture (Language and culture), connection (Language and relationship with other learning areas), and community (Language and relationship with community and the world) (*ibid.*, pp 21-22). Under each strand, learning standards need to be attained. For example, the fourth strand is ‘Language and Relationship with Community and the World’. This strand consists of two learning standards (Learning standards are ‘the goals to be achieved in developing learners’ quality’ (p. 8)). One is ‘to use foreign languages in various situations in school, community and society’ (p. 22), and the other is to use languages as ‘basic tools for further education, livelihood and exchange of learning with the world community’ (p. 22). The main aim of the English curriculum is to improve students’ communicative competence, as Thai students seem to be unsuccessful at communicating in English.

Different numbers of hours are allotted for learning English at each level. Nonetheless, this timeframe can be adjusted according to schools’ capabilities. Primary students must study English 2-4 periods per week, while secondary students

spend 6-12 periods per week (50 minutes per period) studying English. The time in hours for studying English per semester is shown in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1 Time allocation for studying English

Subject	Primary level		Secondary level	
	Grades 1-3	Grades 4-6	Grades 7-9	Grades 10-12
English	40	80	120 (3 credits)	240 (6 credits)

To promote students' linguistic and communicative competence is clearly stated as the aim of learning foreign languages; the majority of students, however, fail to achieve the standards required (Wongsothorn *et al.*, 2002). The quality of English language teaching along with that of other core subjects, such as mathematics and sciences, at primary and secondary levels has been measured by the O-NET (Ordinary National Educational Test) since 2006. The 2011 O-NET average scores in English of Grade 9 students, reported by the National Institute of Educational Testing Service (NIETS), were under 31% (see Table 1.2). Furthermore, the average score for the English test was the lowest in all levels (Grades 6, 9 and 12) over the past three years (2009-2011). According to these average scores in the national standardised O-NET, English was the worst performed subject among primary and secondary Thai school students (see Table 1.2). The logical question that may be asked is: why do Thai students perform so poorly despite spending several years studying English and despite the widespread use of English in the media? An additional problem is that the teaching methods used by the teacher may not be aligned with the aims stated in the

curriculum. The poor performance of students may indicate the need for a new pedagogy (Kaewmala, 2012).

Table 1.2 O-NET average scores for eight subjects tested (2009-2011)

Subject	2009			2010			2011		
	P. 6	M. 3	M. 6	P. 6	M. 3	M. 6	P. 6	M. 3	M. 6
English	31.76	22.54	23.98	20.99	16.19	19.22	38.37	30.49	21.80
Thai	38.59	35.36	46.47	31.22	42.80	42.61	50.04	48.11	41.88
Social Science	33.91	39.70	36.00	47.07	40.85	46.51	52.22	42.73	33.39
Mathematics	35.89	26.05	28.56	34.85	24.18	14.99	52.40	32.08	22.73
Sciences	38.68	29.16	31.03	41.56	29.17	30.90	40.82	32.19	27.90
Health Education	64.77	56.70	45.37	54.31	71.97	62.86	58.87	50.87	54.61
Arts	42.50	32.95	37.75	41.10	28.48	32.62	46.75	43.50	28.54
Vocational Education	51.70	33.86	32.98	52.52	47.07	43.69	55.38	47.29	48.72

Note: P6 (Grade 6); M. 3 (Grade 9); M.6 (Grade 12)

Adapted from: Office for National Education Standards and Quality Assessment

(ONESQA):<http://www.onesqa.or.th/onesqa/th/download/index.php?DownloadGroupID=121>

The biggest problem associated with English teaching in Thai schools is that students perform poorly, in both national and international tests (Kaewmala, 2012), such as TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication) or TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) (Wongsothorn *et al.*, 2002; Punthumasen, 2007;

Educational Testing Service, 2009). Undergraduate students' communicative proficiency is also below the expected standards (Mackenzie, 2002). This failure may be caused by several factors.

Crucial factors in the poor performance of students include: for Thai students, English is not their favourite subject, and their interest in studying English is poor, particularly in rural areas. Their respect for teachers may cause them to become passive. The majority of the students are not confident in their ability to use English, and furthermore, they lack 'willingness to speak due to a culturally-based seniority system and shyness' (ibid., p. 59). They have limited exposure to English in the classroom and do not use English in their daily lives.

Other factors which may be contributing to poor performance are the fact that English lessons at schools are still being conducted in Thai (Mackenzie, 2002; Foley, 2005), the teaching-learning process is deeply ingrained in rote learning, and the state of teacher training is poor (Mackenzie, 2002). In addition to these problems, most teachers still focus on the grammar-translation method, and prefer to teach reading and writing skills, rather than listening and speaking skills. The main causes of low English language proficiency in many countries, including Thailand, are a shortage of qualified teachers of English (Atagi, 2002; Punthumasen, 2007; Hayes, 2010), inadequate teacher preparation (Foley, 2005; Baker, 2008; Prapaisit de Segovia and Hardison, 2009), and the high stakes university entrance examinations (Wongsothorn *et al.*, 2002). Accordingly, teachers certainly play a crucial role in improving students' English proficiency, along with implementing the reform initiatives. As

Fullan (2007) notes, ‘educational change depends on what teachers do and think - it is as simple and as complex as that’ (p. 129). In order to improve students’ English proficiency, there is a pressing need to improve how English is taught and to understand the beliefs teachers hold. Moreover, pre-service teachers must be well prepared to teach in a LC way; it is thus necessary to access their thinking, which influences and directs their teaching (Freeman, 1992).

1.4 Aims of the Study

The main purpose of the present study was to explore how Thai pre-service teachers, whose major was English, perceived and adopted the LCA during their internship. The objectives of this investigation were to obtain an understanding of how the LCA is perceived by Thai STs, and to investigate the extent to which Thai STs are currently using the LCA in their classroom practices. In addition, an attempt was made to identify the relationship between STs’ beliefs and their classroom practices, in order to shed light on the factors affecting their use of this approach. It was hoped that these insights would be helpful in developing a more effective pre-service English teacher education programme in Thailand.

1.5 Research Questions

This study aimed to address the following research questions:

1. What is the Thai STs’ understanding of the LCA?
2. To what extent did STs apply the LCA to teaching during their internship?

3. What is the relationship between their understanding and their classroom practices, with regard to the LCA?

1.6 Significance of the Study

Although, as mentioned earlier (see section 1.2.4), there is a growing body of studies on the LCA which have been undertaken in different contexts, there is a dearth of research examining both beliefs about the LCA and classroom practices. This study represents an initial attempt to fill a number of the gaps identified by Borg (2006b; 2009) and previous studies. The focus of this study was on uncovering the beliefs of non-native speaker (NNS) EFL pre-service teachers studying on a five-year teacher education programme, and on determining which Thai STs are currently using the LCA in their classroom practices. The importance of this study includes: 1) a focus on NNS pre-service teachers rather than on NS pre-service teachers as in previous studies, 2) the fact that the participants in this study were teaching secondary students in four different state schools; the participants in previous studies have been teachers at private language schools or those studying for master's degrees, and 3) the geographical context of this study, which to date remains relatively unexplored.

The findings of this study will make significant contributions to improving the quality of pre-service teachers' teaching, since the more we understand about STs' thinking, the more we will be able to improve their teaching. It is evident that the study of teachers' beliefs can shed some light on the way they teach and have profound effects on pedagogical practices (Johnson, 1994; Fang, 1996; Borg, 2003; 2006b; 2009).

Since the initiation of the education reform, the LCA has been introduced to the Thai education system, and a new model of pre-service teacher training has been initiated, it is now time to discover ‘where we are with learner-centred education’ (Graan, 1998, p. 1). Without these findings, we cannot know where we are at this moment, and it is hoped that the outcomes of this study will help Thai educators to improve not only English language teaching (ELT) and learning and language teacher education programmes, but also to develop pre-service teachers (Li and Walsh, 2011) at Rajabhat universities, where the majority of primary and secondary teachers are educated (Atkinson *et al.*, 2008) in my country, and also that they will be helpful for teacher education programmes in other countries which have similar contexts. This study may help teacher educators with their work, giving them a better understanding of those factors which facilitate and impede pre-service teacher learning, which will, in turn, lead to more effective teacher education (Phipps, 2009). As a consequence, they will be able to provide pre-service teachers with more assistance and support not only in order to improve their LC teaching practices, but also to facilitate the process of their learning to teach.

To date, within the field of language teaching, insufficient information has been provided on pre-service teachers’ beliefs about the LCA and their classroom practices in the literature, not only in a Thai context, but also in the wider context. The aim of the present study is thus to broaden current knowledge of pre-service teachers’ understanding of the LCA, and to what extent this approach is reflected in their teaching practices.

1.7 Overview of the Thesis

This thesis is organised into seven chapters.

In **Chapter 1** the justification for conducting this study has been stated. The status of English in Thai society, the Thai education system and English education in the Thai context have been discussed, including an account of the main requirement for the LCA by the Thai education reform and the importance of teacher cognition in fully understanding teaching. The scope of this study has been framed through a description of the aims and research questions.

Chapter 2 is devoted to a discussion of the theoretical framework underpinning the current study, the LCA. A comprehensive picture of the LCA, covering theoretical and practical perspectives, which is rarely found in the literature, is presented. It establishes the framework for data analysis by contrasting the notion of the TCA and the LCA. The characteristics of TC and LC teaching practices in mainstream education and English language teaching are then introduced. A review of studies on the LCA in various contexts is presented in order to demonstrate the existing gaps in the current research agenda for LC instruction which the present study addresses.

Chapter 3 explains the second theoretical dimension of the research, language teacher cognition, and looks at how research into teacher cognition has become a key area of research on teaching. Definitions of beliefs and knowledge are provided, and a discussion of the origin and significance of beliefs, together with the relationship between beliefs and classroom practices is also included. Language teacher cognition,

the beliefs of pre-service teachers, along with LC beliefs are described. This chapter argues that there is insufficient information about the beliefs of pre-service teachers in regard to the LCA. The existing research on learner-centredness in ELT is explored in order to identify the gap and provide a rationale for the design of the present study.

Chapter 4 contains an account of the research paradigm and research methodology adopted in this study. Additionally, the design, the context and the research participants are described in detail. A detailed description of how the data were collected and analysed is provided, and finally, the strategies used to enhance the quality of this study and ethical issues are explicated.

In **Chapter 5** the data obtained for the study are presented. To provide insights into LC teaching, pre-service teachers' beliefs and their actual classroom practices in relation to the LCA are discussed, using extracts from their verbal commentaries on their practices and from classroom observation data. The relationship between their beliefs and their classroom practices is clarified through a comparison between what they said in their interviews and what the researcher observed of their actual classroom practices. The final section of this chapter deals with the extent to which STs' classroom practices reflect a learner-centred approach.

Chapter 6 contains a discussion of the findings in relation to the research questions, and to the findings of previous studies. This chapter consists of four sections. The first section highlights pre-service teachers' understanding regarding the LCA; the analysis reveals both their understanding of and their misconceptions concerning the

approach, which will be valuable information for the development of pre-service teacher training. In the second section the STs' application of the LCA is examined, while section three contains a description of the relationship between their stated beliefs and their classroom practices. The last section sheds light on contextual factors which have an impact on STs' adoption of the LCA, and which are constraining them from translating their beliefs into practice.

Chapter 7 contains a summary of this study and of the main research findings. It illustrates how the findings of this study can be utilised by a language teacher educator and how the methodology used in the current study might be applied to future research in this area. The contributions and limitations of the study, together with recommendations for further research are then provided. This chapter concludes with final remarks.

Chapter 2. Learner-Centred Approach

2.1 Introduction

As indicated in the preceding chapter, the aim of this study was to uncover student teachers' understanding of the learner-centred approach (LCA) and examine the extent to which their teaching reflects the characteristics of the LCA during their internship. To answer the research questions of the current study, an explanation of this approach is indispensable, as it forms part of the conceptual and analytic framework of the study. This chapter critically examines the philosophical and psychological foundation of the LCA, in comparison with the traditional, more dominant, teacher-centred approach (TCA), which is still deeply rooted in the Thai education system. I will then highlight the characteristics of the learner-centred (LC) teaching practices by contrasting them with those of the TCA in education in general and in foreign language teaching in particular. The chapter concludes with a critique of research literature on the LCA and gaps in the current research.

It is first necessary to present the definition of the LCA employed in this study, since there has been some confusion concerning both the concept and the definition of the LCA (Farrington, 1991; Prapaisit, 2003; Thamraksa, 2011). In this study, the LCA is defined as an approach where the teaching-learning process puts the learner and his/her needs at the centre, and emphasises the construction of knowledge by students, student involvement in every stage of the educational enterprise, and student responsibility. (Nunan, 1988; National Institute for Educational Development, 1999;

Lea *et al.*, 2003; Kumaravadivelu, 2006a). The terms ‘learner-centred’ and ‘student-centred’ are employed interchangeably in the present study.

Over the past several years, two teaching approaches have received considerable attention: the TCA and the LCA. These two approaches seem to be widely known among teachers. However, for many teachers there is still some confusion about these two approaches and many teachers question in what way they are distinct from each other. A detailed account of the theoretical principles underlying these two approaches is therefore first presented.

2.2 Teacher-Centred Approach

The foundation of the TCA is derived from the behaviourist view of teaching. This theory believes that all behaviour can be introduced, strengthened or eliminated by conditioning, stimuli and reinforcement (reward or punishment). Learning is described in terms of some forms of conditioning (Williams and Burden, 1997). The view of teaching in this approach is defined as ‘to instruct’ or ‘to impart knowledge or skill’ (Rogers and Freiberg, 1994, p. 151), and learning is the receiving of knowledge transmitted by either teachers or books (Malderez and Bodóczy, 1999). In this approach, education clearly means ‘the process of pouring in’ instead of ‘drawing out’ (Dewey, 1956, p. 36). ‘Students are viewed as ‘empty’ vessels and learning is viewed as an additive process’ (Napoli, 2004, p. 2). Consequently, the main focus of the teaching and learning process is on covering content. This makes this approach one that clearly focuses on teaching, not learning. Accordingly, teachers

are viewed as the centre of knowledge since they determine what, how and when students will learn without the learners' participation (Harden and Crosby, 2000). Learning is controlled and delivered mainly by the teacher. This approach has a plethora of synonyms, such as didactic teaching, lockstep teaching, instructor-centred teaching, and the traditional approach. There is no doubt that in this approach, students have little opportunity to interact with each other or to make decisions, because they invariably do whatever the teacher tells them to do. The main drawback of this model is that the teacher apparently gives meagre attention to developing learners' ability to think, learn or solve problems independently. However, this approach has been hugely influential in how teachers teach globally. In Thailand it has been heavily criticised for failing to prepare Thai students for the competitive world of business and Thailand's growth (Pillay, 2002a; Wiriyaichitra, 2002).

As the emphasis of didactic teaching is on transmitting large quantities of knowledge, learners are neither involved in constructing knowledge nor trained to be responsible for their own learning. Hence, learners have limited roles to play in the learning environment. The lack of learner involvement makes what they have to learn seem irrelevant, less interesting and non-meaningful, which is one of the shortcomings of this approach. The main function of assessment is to monitor learners' academic progress, rather than to diagnose their learning problems and promote learning. Assessment emphasises low-level thinking (Anderson *et al.*, 2001) using paper tests. The TCA has been deeply rooted in educational enterprise not only in Thailand (Foley, 2005) but also at all levels worldwide (Cuban, 1993). The discussion in this section has revealed that in the TCA, learners are viewed as empty vessels. The

psychological theory underlying this approach viewed learning as a mechanistic process, while the aim of teaching is viewed as being to impart knowledge. These foundations have straightforward implications for educational practice.

Its philosophical and psychological foundation makes the TCA distinctly different from the LCA. The TCA is based on behaviourism while the LCA is derived from constructivism and humanism. It is clear, then, that these two theories view learning differently. In the LCA, the focus is on the learner, while in the TCA, the focus is on a body of knowledge. This makes the characteristics of the teaching practices of these two approaches obviously distinct. The nexus between philosophical and psychological practices is vital, as it helps create teachers' understanding and appreciation, which may lead to the shift in their practices. This is the subject of the following section.

2.3 Learner-Centred Approach: Theoretical Construct

The LCA has its philosophical and psychological roots in progressive theoretical perspectives, constructivism, humanistic psychology and experiential learning, along with learner-centred psychological principles (see section 2.4 for more details). These roots supply the theoretical foundations for learner-centred (LC) teaching practices (APA Work Group of the Board of Educational Affairs, 1997; Yilmaz, 2007). Understanding the foundation of this approach is crucial to developing a deeper understanding of how to put the approach into practice and of understanding what learner-centred teaching actually consists of.

2.3.1 Philosophical Foundation

The key philosophical perspectives of child-centred education are based on children's natural development, their interests, their individual differences, the importance of play, as well as a supportive learning environment in learning, and learning by experiencing and discovering. Three figures were influential in establishing the philosophical foundation for child-centred education, namely, Rousseau, Pestalozzi and Froebel. The notions of learner-centredness have their origins in the Western philosophy of child-centredness. The philosophical foundation of the LCA was Rousseau's (1712-1778) philosophy of education, which is mainly expounded in his book entitled 'Emile' (Entwistle, 1970; Tabulawa, 2003).

Rousseau's key tenets regarding learner-centredness are naturalism and individualism. The term 'naturalism' refers to the idea that 'the child should be left alone to grow naturally without interference from teachers ... or other authority figures' (Dunn, 2005, p. 158). In *Emile*, Rousseau introduced a type of education that was 'natural, child-centred, and experience-based' (Henson, 2003, p. 7). He emphasised the fact that children have their own ways of 'seeing, thinking, and feeling' (Rousseau, 1762, p. 54), and that it is essential that children should be permitted to develop naturally. The more opportunities they have to explore, discover things and find things out, the more children can learn. Rousseau argued that they should not be forced to learn. One important idea in Rousseau's account is that children should make sense of the world in their own way. Therefore, instead of relying on the teacher, they should be encouraged to construct knowledge, and

discover and explore things freely (Dunn, 2005). This has become one of the fundamental principles of the philosophy of learner-centredness.

For Rousseau, educating children does not mean teaching them knowledge, but rather, developing children's interests, promoting their natural growth, as well as their desire to learn. He said, 'do not teach the child many things. ...It is madness to try to make your child learn. It is not your business to teach him the various sciences, but to give him a taste for them and methods of learning them' (Rousseau, 1762, pp. 134-135). His account clearly implies that education is a matter of discovering and experiencing (Darling, 1994; Davies *et al.*, 2002). Rousseau's most famous contribution to child-centred education is the idea of the learner learning, instead of the teacher teaching (Davies *et al.*, 2002).

Another key guiding principle in *Emile* which has become a notion of the LCA, is the appreciation of individual differences. In traditional education, it is assumed that there are no differences among children. According to Rousseau, 'every mind has its own form' (Rousseau, 1762, p. 58). For this reason, there is a need for education to be individualised to take into account children's differences, along with their needs and their levels of development. These ideas lead to a shift of focus from teaching to learning and to a change from viewing students as passive recipients of knowledge to seeing them as active and participatory players.

Rousseau's way of thinking about children was elaborated further by another educator, Pestalozzi (1746-1827). Pestalozzi claimed that children need to be

educated physically, mentally and emotionally, and furthermore, ‘children should be nourished like a plant while they *learn by doing* ... teachers must respect children’ (Henson, 2003, p. 8, original emphasis). He explicitly stated that the subject matter needs to harmonise with the ability of children. This idea was adopted in Scotland’s Primary Memorandum and England’s Plowden Report in the 1960s and became the landmarks in the growth of child- or learner-centred education in Britain (Darling, 1994; Croft, 2002).

Froebel (1782-1852) took the new thinking of education forward. His view of the philosophical foundations of LC education embraced the idea that ‘[the child] is placed in the centre of all things, and all things are seen only in relation to himself, to his life’ (Froebel, 1826, p. 97). An additional idea that enabled Froebel to advance LC education was that a happy and harmonious environment is of vital importance to the growth of children. Moreover, through play and self-activity, the whole person can be developed. Children learn willingly and better through play (Chung and Walsh, 2000). The role of the teacher is to provide a supportive learning environment for children’s growth. The term ‘child-centred’ was first used by Froebel and, in addition, his elaboration on child-centred education was influential in shaping education in America, as well as in Europe in the late 19th and early 20th century (Wang, 2007).

Dewey (1859-1952) further developed these ideas and emphasised ‘the learner’s interaction with the physical environment’ (Rallis, 1995, p. 225). He also defined the child-centred approach as being one in which ‘the child is the starting point, the

centre, and the end' (Dewey, 1956, p. 9). Additionally, he contrasted this approach with traditional education. In the words of Dewey (1956), in traditional education:

The centre of gravity is outside the child. It is in the teacher, the textbook, anywhere and everywhere you please except in the immediate instincts and activities of the child himself ... Now the change which is coming into our education is the shifting of the centre of gravity. It is a change, a revolution, not unlike that introduced by Copernicus when the astronomical centre shifted from the earth to the sun. In this case the child becomes the sun about which the appliances of education revolve; he is the centre about which they are organized. (p. 34)

The above quotation indicates that the centre of the school should be the child, rather than the curriculum.

For Dewey, the primary function of education was to take hold of the learner's interest, to give him/her direction, and to promote the growth of the learner (Dewey, 1944; 1956; 1997). In terms of the role of the teacher, in LC education, the teacher is a co-planner who organises activities to encourage learning and make learning easier, together with giving the learner direction.

2.3.2 Psychological Foundation

Parallel to the philosophical ideas underlying the LCA, discussed in the previous section, the development of the LCA was also influenced by the psychological view of teaching and learning. 'Constructivism is a learner-centred educational theory that contends that to learn anything, each learner must construct his or her own understanding, by tying new information to prior experiences' (Henson, 2003, p. 13). Constructivism is defined as 'a theory stating that by reflecting on our experiences we

construct the world in which we live' (Dunn, 2005, p. 220). It is further divided into two schools of thought. The first of these focuses on each student's perceptions (cognitive constructivism: a view that 'focuses on individual, internal constructions of knowledge' (Eggen and Kauchak, 2013, p. 188)), while the second focuses on the interaction among students (social constructivism: 'all learning takes place through socially and culturally meaningful interaction with the environment' (Dunn, 2005, p. 233)). Thus, the constructivists' view of learning is completely different from that of the behaviourists, since constructivists regard learning as a dynamic process jointly constructed by learners.

The primary focus of constructivism is that knowledge is seen as something subjective and dependent on the learner. Individuals construct knowledge based on their own experience, and therefore, learning is an active process and occurs through social interaction.

Constructivism

Piaget (1968) believed that learners must be active. A key facet of Piaget's theory of learning and thinking is the interaction of genetic and environmental factors which contribute to cognitive development. The implications of Piaget's work for LC education are that knowledge cannot be passed on, but needs to be constructed and reconstructed by the learner (Ginsburg and Opper, 1988; Sutherland, 1992; Ginn, 2002; Proulx, 2006). Piaget claims that the dual process of intellectual growth is assimilation (organisation) and accommodation (adaptation). By assimilation, Piaget (Piaget, 1968, p. 63) means 'the process whereby an action is actively produced and

comes to incorporate new objects into itself (for example, thumb sucking as a case of sucking)’. Changing ‘existing schema to fit the new information’ (Dunn, 2005, p. 235) is accommodation. Activities are the essence of cognitive development, as children have opportunities for assimilation and accommodation through exploring, questioning, experimenting, manipulating and searching out answers for themselves (Eggen and Kauchak, 2013). Undoubtedly, this shifts the role of the teacher from that of an authority figure to that of a facilitator or a guide (Dunn, 2005) who assesses the child’s present cognitive level, strengths and weaknesses, as well as guiding and stimulating the students (Wood, 1998; Ginn, 2002). Piaget believed that ‘to understand is to discover, or reconstruct by rediscovery’ (Piaget, 1973, p. 20) rather than to make the child listen and repeat.

One of Vygotsky’s key concepts which inform LC teaching practices is that ‘social interaction facilitates learning’ (Eggen and Kauchak, 2013, p. 190). In contrast to Piagetian concepts which viewed learning as ‘knowledge construction as an individual process’ (ibid., p. 188), Lev Vygotsky (1896-1934) emphasised the role of social interaction in the development of cognition. Social constructivism focuses on the role of others as learning mediators and the importance of culture in learning. Learning is a social and collaborative activity. One of the best known Vygotskian concepts is that of the zone of proximal development (ZPD). According to Vygotsky (1962), the ZPD refers to ‘the discrepancy between a child’s actual mental age and the level he reaches in solving problems with assistance’ (p. 103). He further asserts that ‘with assistance, every child can do more than he can by himself - though only within the limits set by the state of his development’ (p. 103). The main contribution

of the ZPD to the concept of learner-centredness is the idea that the learner is able to learn more if he/she has an opportunity to interact with the teacher and other learners. With the assistance and support of the teacher and more competent peers, the learner can move to a higher level of learning. Hence, the teacher is expected to play a key role in helping the learner to learn (Carlile and Jordan, 2005).

Humanistic Approach

The key concept of humanistic approaches which affects learner-centredness is the development of the whole person. Thus, education is not solely cognitive or intellectual, but involves the whole person (Rogers, 1969; Rogers and Freiberg, 1994). Rogers (1902-1987) argues that human beings have a natural potential for learning (Patterson, 1973; 1977; Blackie *et al.*, 2010). The important implications of this approach for LC instruction are the relevance of the subject matter and learners' active participation in the learning process (Williams and Burden, 1997). Learning tends to be long-lasting when it is meaningful, personally relevant, self-initiated and when it involves feelings as well as cognition. The main purpose of education should be the facilitation of learning (Patterson, 1977).

Humanistic psychology has made significant contributions to LC teaching. Examples of the main themes include:

- The whole person
- The human motivation towards self-realization
- Education as a life-long process
- Respect for an individual's subjective experience
- Self-empowerment (Underhill, 1989, p. 251)

Psychological knowledge has exerted considerable influence over the development of the LCA. The powerful message provided by constructivism is that learning takes place through the construction of knowledge and social interaction. Humanistic approaches emphasise the fact that the cognitive and affective domains are of paramount importance to the learning process, and experiential learning needs to be underscored. It is also essential to recognise the vital role of the learner as an active participant in the teaching-learning process. The teacher becomes a facilitator of learning, providing a supportive learning environment. In order to conceptualise LC teaching practices, it is necessary to have an understanding of the philosophical and psychological foundations of this approach.

Having discussed the origins of the key philosophical and psychological foundations of learner-centredness throughout history, in the subsequent section we will elaborate on and clarify underlying principles of its contemporary meaning.

2.4 Learner-Centred Approach: Contemporary Meanings

2.4.1 Learner-Centred Model: A Holistic View

The meaning of learner-centredness has been continuously expanded, developed and redefined. During Rousseau and Dewey's period, 'child-centred education' was a widely used term. In the last 25 years, more people have used the term 'learner-centredness', since this term clearly covers a wider range of learners (McCombs and Whisler, 1997). According to McCombs and Whisler (1997), the term learner-centred is broader than child- or student-centred, and can best be described as:

The perspective that couples a focus on individual learners (their heredity, experiences, perspectives, backgrounds, talents, interests, capacities and needs) with a focus on learning (the best available knowledge about learning and how it occurs and about teaching practices that are most effective in promoting the highest levels of motivation, learning and achievement for all learners). This dual focus then informs and drives educational decision-making. (p. 9)

This definition lucidly indicates that learner-centredness takes both the learner and the learning process into consideration (see Figure 2.1). Crucially, the learner is used as a frame of reference for all decisions made. The teacher needs to be knowledgeable about how learning occurs and how to promote the learner's motivation, learning and achievement. The contemporary meaning of LC rests on learner-centred psychological principles (LCPPs). These principles are of central importance because they provide 'the scientific basis for holistic instructional practices' (McCombs and Miller, 2007, p. 22).

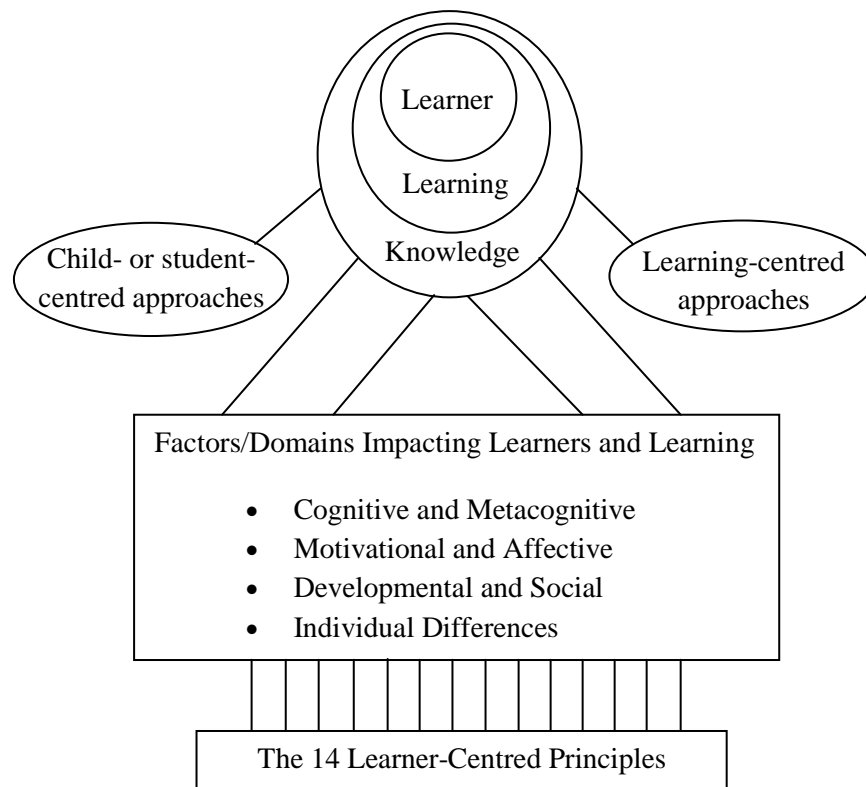


Figure 2.1 Learner-centred model: A holistic perspective

(Adapted from McCombs and Miller, 2007, p.23)

As shown in Figure 2.1, the LC model has the LCPPs as its foundation. These principles embody the philosophical and psychological foundation of child-centred education (see Table 2.1). It provides a framework which can be translated into practice, focuses on a strong knowledge base in learning, as well as on what best promotes learning. The LC model also integrates the ‘best qualities of both learner-centred (child-centred) approaches with approaches that emphasise knowledge acquisition and content’ (ibid., p, 22).

The premises of a LC model are: 1) learners' distinctiveness and uniqueness must be attended to and respected in order to engage them and make them responsible for their own learning; 2) learners are able to learn more effectively and efficiently when their unique differences are taken into consideration; 3) learning occurs best 'when what is being learned is relevant and meaningful to the learner ... [The learner must create his/her own knowledge] by connecting what is being learned with prior knowledge and experience' (McCombs and Whisler, 1997, p. 10); 4) a positive environment facilitates learning and motivation, and 5) learning is a natural process. Indeed, the primary focus of this model is on the learner and learning.

In this section the development and definition of the LCA have been presented. The subsequent section provides a detailed account of the LCPPs on which the definition of learner-centredness is based. The LCPPs and the results of previous research and current knowledge about learners and learning are then integrated to help define what is meant by the term 'learner-centred'.

2.4.2 Learner-Centred Psychological Principles

The LCPPs are an integration of research and practice derived from several areas: psychology, education, sociology and other related disciplines (APA Work Group of the Board of Educational Affairs, 1997; McCombs, 1997; McCombs and Whisler, 1997) and from what we know about learners and learning. These 14 principles, proposed by the American Psychological Association in 1997, were modified from the original document which included only 12 principles (APA Task Force on

Psychology in Education, 1993) and can be used as guiding principles for the reform of instructional practices and the enhancement of the LC teaching and learning process (McCombs and Miller, 2007).

The LCPPs are categorised into four domains; additionally, each of these four domains has a unique impact on each learner (see the detailed accounts of each principle in Appendix C). These domains are depicted in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 Learner-centred psychological principles (based on APA Work Group of the Board of Educational Affairs, 1997)

Domains	Brief summary	Principles
1. Cognitive and metacognitive	Focus on the nature of learning and the characteristics of good learners. The effectiveness of the learning process depends on intentional efforts and the construction of knowledge which links new knowledge with prior knowledge and experience.	<p>Principle 1 Nature of the learning process</p> <p>Principle 2 Goals of the learning process</p> <p>Principle 3 Construction of knowledge</p> <p>Principle 4 Strategic thinking</p> <p>Principle 5 Thinking about thinking</p> <p>Principle 6 Context of learning</p>
2. Motivational and affective	Emphasise the predominance of motivation and emotions in the learning process. Personal interests and goals, intrinsic motivation as well as the motivational	<p>Principle 7 Motivational and emotional influences on learning</p> <p>Principle 8 Intrinsic motivation to learn</p> <p>Principle 9 Effects of</p>

Table 2.1 (continued)

Domains	Brief summary	Principles
	characteristics of learning tasks are of paramount importance to the learning process.	motivation on effort
3. Developmental and social	Emphasise the fact that learning can be affected by social interactions, interpersonal relations, and communication with others.	Principle 10 Developmental influences on learning Principle 11 Social influences on learning
4. Individual differences	Centre on the importance of learners' prior experience and heredity. Learners' differences need to be valued, respected and accommodated to enhance their motivation and achievement. Standards and assessment should support individual differences.	Principle 12 Individual differences in learning Principle 13 Learning and diversity Principle 14 Standards and assessment

It is obvious that the aim of the LCPPs is to improve motivation, individual learning and achievement (McCombs, 2003). They take psychological factors (internal factors) and the environment, as well as other contextual factors (external factors) into account. Moreover, these principles deal with learners holistically in the instructional enterprise. The LCPPs are guiding principles governing the facilitation

of learning for all learners (McCombs and Miller, 2007). These principles assist the teacher in understanding each individual learner and the learning process, and thus provide a framework for his/her learner-centred pedagogical practices. Nonetheless, these principles cannot be treated in isolation in order to maximise learning (see Figure 2.1).

2.4.3 Learner-Centred Pedagogical Practices

In order to make teaching practices learner-centred and maximise students' learning, teachers have to incorporate the premises of a LC model into their practice. In essence, learners should be treated as co-creators in the instructional enterprise and included in every stage of the decision-making process. In addition, their individual differences and needs are taken into account and respected in the LCA (Lambert and McCombs, 1997; Dunn and Rakes, 2010).

In contrast to TC teaching practices, in the LCA, the needs of the learner are of central importance in 'the design and delivery of instruction' (Pillay, 2002b, p. 93). Therefore, every learner's voice is respected. It was noted earlier that in a LC classroom, the focus has undoubtedly shifted from the teacher and instruction to the learners and the process of learning. Furthermore, the emphasis has shifted from what teachers do to 'what the *students* do to learn' (Blumberg, 2009, p. 17, original emphasis). The concentration of teaching is not on the teaching of content. In other words, there is a shift from 'what to *teach* to ... what must be *learned* by each student' (McCombs and Whisler, 1997, p. 14, original emphasis).

The roles of the teacher and learners in the LC classroom differ from the roles of the teacher and learners in the TC classroom in a number of respects. Teachers have changed from being ‘givers of information to facilitators of student learning or creators of an environment for learning’ (Blumberg, 2009, p. 3). Hence, greater emphasis is placed on student learning outcomes than on a body of content. In a LC classroom, the teacher not only teaches students the content, but the content is exploited to develop student learning skills (Weimer, 2002). Clearly, teachers are now activity organisers, guides, facilitators and coaches (King, 1993; Tudor, 1993; Felder and Brent, 1996). However, the teacher also assumes other roles, such as that of an active participant, an assessor, a prompter, a monitor, a guide, a resource, a tutor and a researcher (Yang, 1998; Hedge, 2000; Harmer, 2007).

In language teaching, apart from playing these roles, the teacher needs to prepare learners to be aware of their roles as language learners. They need to know their learning goals, communicative goals, current language ability, various learning strategies, study options, and the variety of resources that they can employ to improve their learning inside, as well as outside the classroom. Thus, the teacher is required to develop this awareness, which is known as the process of the learner learning (Tudor, 1993).

LC instruction changes not only the roles and responsibilities played by the teacher, but also the roles played by the learners. One of the key aims of the LCA is to ‘allow students to have a voice and make choices about their own learning’ (McCombs and Whisler, 1997, p. 48). Consequently, the teacher shares his/her power and control

with the students, by involving them in negotiating teaching-learning modes, selecting the content, activities and form of teaching, together with setting their learning goals, classroom discipline and assessment criteria.

The ultimate goal of the LCA is to empower learners. This approach incorporates learners' needs, interests and individual differences into the process of teaching. Students are involved in decision making in order to empower them, and by making them 'feel ownership over their own learning by virtue of having a voice and choice, they *are more willing to learn and be involved in their own learning*' (ibid., p. 48, original emphasis) which helps augment their intrinsic motivation, learning and achievement (Alexander and Murphy, 1997). This means that students are required to be more responsible, independent and autonomous, since some level of responsibility is shifted from the teacher to the students (Tudor, 1993; Mtika and Gates, 2010). The more the teacher 'step[s] aside and let[s] students take the lead' (Weimer, 2002, p. 72), the more learner-centred the practices are.

2.5 Dichotomy between Teacher- and Learner-Centred Approach

As the notions of learner-centredness are ambiguous concepts, from a review of literature, the best way to describe LC teaching practice is to compare and contrast it with that of TC teaching practice. The TC and the LC approaches can be seen to represent the opposite poles of teaching and learning approaches to education. To portray these two approaches more clearly, their positions along a continuum are shown in Figure 2.2.

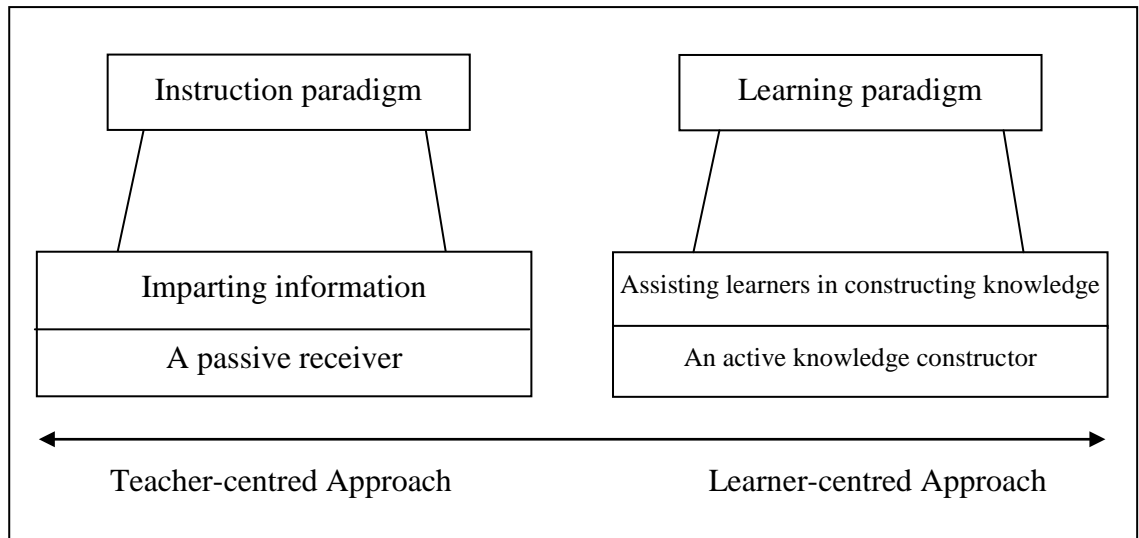


Figure 2.2 Teacher- and learner-centred approaches

There seems to be insufficient information on the theoretical background of the TCA and the LCA in the literature. This background is vital, as it helps guide teaching practices. One of the aims of this study is to broaden our knowledge of these two approaches. As already mentioned in sections 2.2 and 2.3, the philosophical and psychological foundations underlying the TCA are obviously different from those of the LCA. This means the approach to teaching and learning in a TCA stands in stark contrast to that in a LCA. Moreover, in the LCA, what happens in the classroom is more closely related to psychological perspectives. A comparison between behaviourism and constructivism, which are the theories on which these two approaches are based, appears in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2 Comparison of behaviourism and constructivism (based on Mayer, 1997; Wood, 1998; Nunan, 1999; Dunn, 2005; Eggen and Kauchak, 2013)

	Behaviourism (TCA)	Constructivism (LCA)
Focus of learning	How much is learned.	How the learner structures and processes knowledge.
Learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Learning as response acquisition ● A mechanistic process in which successful responses are strengthened and unsuccessful responses are weakened 	Learning as knowledge construction
Learning outcomes	The amount of behaviour change	The cognition of learners
Goal of instruction	To increase correct behaviour in the learners' repertoire.	To help learners develop expertise in how to learn and to utilise that expertise to construct new knowledge.
Teacher' s role	The active dispenser of feedback	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● A participant with the learner in the process of constructing meaning ● A facilitator who helps learners develop learning and thinking

Table 2.2 *(continued)*

	Behaviourism (TCA)	Constructivism (LCA)
Learner's role	A passive recipient	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● An active processor of information ● A constructor of knowledge

As can be seen from the table above, the key concepts of behaviourism and constructivism are diametrically opposed. It is important to point out that the psychological perspectives illustrate how children learn and how teaching should unfold. Evidence from psychological perspectives bears out the idea that if teachers become 'active and central to instruction, students are a passive audience for teachers' (Cuban, 1993, p. 248). These foundations underpin the practices of these two approaches. It is therefore evident that to make the transition from TC to LC teaching practices is not an easy task.

According to the literature on learner-centredness, some teachers have misconceptions about the notions of this approach which lead them to react negatively to the approach. Others would like to adopt this approach, but they do not know how (Nunan, 1999; Thamraksa, 2011). Additionally, in order to describe pre-service teachers' pedagogical topography and to uncover how learner-centred pre-service teachers are, it is necessary to be aware of the characteristics of the teaching practices of these two approaches. Table 2.3 below presents a synthesis of the literature in the field with the intention of illustrating how to put the LCA into

practice in terms of practical classroom concepts, and also in order to show the dichotomy between these two teaching traditions. It is important to make this distinction, because it will help us to understand more clearly whether or not the LCA is being practised and to uncover dominant forms of classroom practice. Moreover, it can be used not only as an analytical framework for the current study, but also as a framework for shifting the mode of instruction from TC to LC.

Table 2.3 Characteristics of teacher- and learner-centred teaching practices

Teacher-centred teaching practices	Learner-centred teaching practices
1. Focus on the teacher and teaching.	1. Focus on the learners and learning.
2. Knowledge is transmitted by teachers.	2. Knowledge is constructed by learners.
3. Students learn passively.	3. Students are actively involved in the learning process (e.g., mentally, physically, emotionally).
4. The teacher alone decides what and how to learn.	4. Learners are involved in deciding what and how to learn (McCombs and Miller, 2007).
5. The teacher talks most of the time.	5. Students talk most of the time.
6. Most questions are posed by the teacher.	6. Students have a more or equal opportunity to pose questions.
7. All content and activities are initiated by the teacher.	7. Some content and activities are initiated by learners.
8. The teacher constantly uses whole group instruction.	8. Students have ample opportunity to work together, as instruction is more in pairs, groups or individuals depending on

Table 2.3 (continued)

Teacher-centred teaching practices	Learner-centred teaching practices
9. Rely on textbooks and deploy the same instructional materials at the same time.	the purpose of the activity (Bradley-Bennett <i>et al.</i> , 2010).
10. Focus on lower order thinking skills and recall of factual information.	9. Utilise various kinds of resources and provide different instructional materials for individuals.
11. The teacher controls the learning process.	10. Focus on developing higher order thinking skills.
12. Emphasise memory, rote, drill and practice.	11. The learning process is a collaboration between teachers and learners.
13. The role of the teacher as a knowledge transmitter.	12. Use different styles of teaching and underline discovery techniques (Bennett, 1976).
14. Teaching and assessing are separate (Huba and Freed, 2000). Employ solely summative assessment.	13. The main role of the teacher is that of a facilitator who creates environments for learning.
15. The purpose of evaluation is for grading and monitoring learning. Students are excluded from the evaluation process.	14. Testing is an integral part of the teaching process. Employ formative and summative assessment. Skills are developed through self- and peer assessment activities.
	15. Evaluation is an ongoing process which aims to promote and diagnose learning. The teacher and students evaluate learning together.

Table 2.3 *(continued)*

Teacher-centred teaching practices	Learner-centred teaching practices
16. Learning environment is competitive and individual.	16. Learning environment is cooperative, collaborative and supportive.
17. The teacher tends to be mainly responsible for making students learn.	17. Students are trained to take responsibility for, as well as control of their own learning; empowerment.
18. Students are motivated to learn extrinsically.	18. Students are motivated to learn intrinsically.
19. Students have no choice about their learning.	19. Students have some choices about their learning (Blumberg, 2009).

In this section, the psychological foundations and pedagogical practices of the TCA and the LCA have been compared and contrasted. The differences between the two approaches were illustrated in Figure 2.2 and Tables 2.2 and 2.3. Although the LCA has received broad recognition and has been widely promoted as a teaching method, it has not been well documented in the literature. Therefore, this section represents an attempt to extend current knowledge of learner-centredness and of LC teaching practices. It is hoped that this will help to reduce the amount of confusion which teachers experience regarding how to put this approach into practice.

2.6 Learner-Centred Approach in Language Teaching

Prior to detailing the LCA in language teaching, it is worth defining what ‘language’ and ‘learning’ mean in this study. In addition, it is important to explore the linkage

between the LCA and communicative language teaching (CLT). In the field of applied linguistics, scholars conceptualise the terms ‘language’ and ‘learning’ differently (for more discussion see Cook, 2010; Seedhouse, 2010; Walsh, 2011). Moreover, ‘language learning is a complex, multifaceted phenomenon’ (Seedhouse, 2010, p. 240). The main feature that makes conceptions of learning distinct is its ‘multiplexity’ (ibid., p. 241) which is evident on several levels, as follows:

- A language which has numerous definitions and conceptions is comprised of multiple components, such as phonology, lexis, morphology, semantics and pragmatics.
- There may be a number of subcomponents in each individual component of language.
- Learning is both a process and a product.

The definition of language and learning used in this study is the one proposed by Larsen-Freeman (2010, p. 53), who sees learning as two different metaphors, ‘having’ and ‘doing’ (see Figure 2.2). These two metaphors were adapted from Sfar’s (1998) metaphors for learning: acquisition and participation.

<p><u>Having</u> Acquisition Metaphor (Language is something that one has) For example, verb tenses; head parameter; the principle of ‘merge’</p>	<p><u>Doing</u> Participation metaphor (Language is something that one does) For example, becoming participants in discourse communities</p>
---	--

Figure 2.3 The having-doing continuum (Larsen-Freeman, 2010, p. 53)

I agree with Larsen-Freeman (2010) and believe that ‘language is something one does, such as by participating in a social interaction’ ... [and] language learning

involves holistically increasing participation in discourse or speech communities' (ibid., p. 55). She further elaborates this conception of learning as follows:

Learning is not the taking in of linguistic forms by learners, but the constant adaptation of their linguistic resources in the service of meaning-making in response to the affordances that emerge in the communicative situation, which is, in turn, affected by learners' adaptivity. (p. 67)

This conception of learning suggests that learners need to take part or become 'a part of a greater whole' (Sfard, 1998, p. 6) in order to learn. It is therefore not sufficient to teach a language by merely transmitting a closed system of knowledge. Learners need to do the learning for themselves. Hence, learning is an 'iterative' rather than a 'linear, additive' process (Larsen-Freeman, 2010, p. 66). This conception of learning is in line with how learning is defined in learner-centredness.

The development of the LCA for language teaching 'came with the advent of communicative language teaching' (Nunan, 1988, p. 24), and it is described as 'an offspring' of CLT (p. 179), which shifted the focus of the language teaching-learning process away from language form to language function, or from linguistic competence to communicative competence (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson, 2011) during the 1970s-1980s. The shift in focus of the teaching-learning process leads to the alteration of the approach to language teaching from the TCA to the LCA (Nunan, 1988; Tudor, 1996). It is clear that there are strong links between the terms 'learner-centredness and self-directed teaching' in general education and 'communicative language teaching and task-based learning' in applied linguistics (Nunan, 2004; Kumaravadivelu, 2006b).

CLT has been the dominant teaching approach for teaching English for some decades. The aim of CLT is to ‘promote the development of functional language ability through learner participation in communicative events’ (Savignon, 1991, p. 265). CLT is defined as an ‘approach ... that aims to (a) make communicative competence the goal of language teaching and (b) develop procedures for the teaching of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication’ (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 155). However, this approach lacks closely prescribed classroom techniques (Klapper, 2003).

According to Nunan and Lamb (1996), ‘learner-centred classrooms are those in which learners are actively involved in their own learning processes’ (p. 9). However, the learners’ involvement in their own learning varies from context to context, and from learner to learner (ibid.). The main goal of the LCA for language teaching is to improve learners’ communicative competence, and teaching will become effective when it takes learner differences into consideration, since each learner is different (Jacobs and Farrell, 2003).

As mentioned at the beginning of this section, the LCA for language teaching is closely linked with CLT. As Richards and Rodgers (2001) state, learner-centredness has become another frequently cited dimension of CLT, apart from the experience-based view of second language teaching. Other researchers (e.g., Nishino, 2009; Shihiba, 2011) hold the view that ‘CLT is a learner-centered approach’ (Nishino, 2009, p. 10) which takes not only learners’ communicative needs, but also learners’ learning styles into account. Some principles of the LCA are associated with CLT

(see Table 2.4). Table 2.4 presents some of the similarities and differences between these two approaches.

Table 2.4 Similarities and differences between the learner-centred approach and communicative language teaching

Similarities	Differences
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The centre of attention shifts from the teacher to the learners (Savignon, 1991; Jacobs and Farrell, 2003) • Promotes the use of pair or group work • Focuses on learning through doing or by performing meaningful tasks or activities • Utilises different activities and tasks to facilitate learning • The teacher plays multiples roles, for instance, those of an advisor, a facilitator, a monitor, and a guide • The learners play multiple roles, for instance, taking responsibility for their own learning • Provides learners with opportunities to set their own learning purposes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • CLT emphasises the use of language within a real communicative context • CLT favours the deployment of authentic materials • In CLT, errors are viewed as part of the natural process of learning • The heart of the LCA is learner empowerment, including learner learning and learner involvement • In the LCA, there is more learner involvement in what and how to learn

Table 2.4 (Continued)

Similarities	Differences
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Maximises learners' participation and learner involvement • Individual differences are viewed as 'resources to be recognized, catered to and appreciated' (Jacobs and Farrell, 2003, p. 8) 	

It should be noted that in Thailand, the 1999 Thai National Education Act and the Ministry of Education require the LCA to be adopted in the teaching of every subject at primary and secondary levels. Furthermore, one of the principles in the Basic Education Core Curriculum clearly states that 'the learner-centred approach is strongly advocated' (Ministry of Education, 2008, p. 4). This is one of the main reasons why the focus of this study was on investigating pre-service teachers' beliefs about the LCA and their practices rather than their beliefs and practices in relation to CLT.

Within language education, Tudor (1996) claimed that learner training and learner involvement are components of the LCA, which has learner empowerment as the ultimate goal. Tudor defines these terms as follows:

Learner training involves the initiation of learners into the process of language study, and *learner involvement* refers to the direct participation of learners in the shaping of their study programme at any level from the provision of materials for a specific learning task

to negotiation of assessment procedures or study mode. (p. 28, original emphasis)

This implies that the development of a language curriculum results from negotiation, collaboration and consultation between teachers and learners in the ‘planning, implementation and evaluation of language courses’ (Nunan, 1988, p. 3). The focus of the curriculum also shifts from what ‘should be’ done, to what is actually done by the teachers (*ibid.*). LC teaching can be distinguished from traditional teaching in numerous ways. The features of learner-centredness in language classrooms are as follows:

1. It promotes the social nature of learning by employing group work or pair work activities (Kumaravadivelu, 2006a).
2. It emphasises meaning, rather than drills, repetition and rote learning (Jacobs and Farrell, 2003).
3. It presents the language form in context (Kumaravadivelu, 2006a).
4. Learning is viewed as a lifelong process, not as preparation for examinations (Jacobs and Farrell, 2001).
5. It promotes communication, rather than accuracy (Rogers, 2002).
6. Learners learn by doing and by performing meaningful tasks, rather than by listening to the teacher (Rogers, 2002; Hitotuzi, 2005).
7. It makes use of authentic materials to expose learners to a target language (Kumaravadivelu, 2006a).

Similarly, Kumaravadivelu (2006a) holds the view that the focus of LC methods in language teaching is on practising linguistic forms and communicative functions through meaning-focused activities.

Adopting the LCA requires, without doubt, more teacher responsibilities; accordingly, teachers should be appropriately prepared and provided with ongoing support (Tudor, 1993). Tudor (1996) also warns that learner-centredness is not ‘a label that is attached to a single, clearly delimited school of thought with unambiguous definitions and a clear programme of action’ (p. 1).

As far as methodology is concerned, it is important to make a distinction between the form and the substance of learner-centredness in language teaching. The lesson described by O’Neill (1991) in his paper, demonstrates that the classroom which has the ‘external forms of learner-centredness’ (Tudor, 1993, p. 29), such as working in groups or pairs (the forms of learner-centredness), does not, particularly, involve students’ communication, cooperation or collaboration (the substance of learner-centredness). This phenomenon is made clearer by the following extract from Brodie *et al.* (2002).

Resources, tasks, questions, and group work are the *forms* or strategies which may or may not enable the substance of learner-centred teaching. The extent to which teachers elicited and engaged with learners’ ideas and interests in order to develop new ideas and meanings, provide the main categories for *substantive* learner-centred teaching. (p. 549, original emphasis)

In summary, there is a close link between the concepts and notions of learner-centredness and several other notions, such as learner empowerment, self-directed learning, active learning, autonomous learning, and the learning paradigm (Barr, 1998; Pillay, 2002b). In the following sections, the review of research to date regarding the LCA and problems with the LCA in Thailand are discussed.

2.7 Previous Studies on the Learner-Centred Approach

The adoption of the LCA in both developing countries and a number of countries in the Far East has played an integral part in educational reforms and has been promoted by government policies (Brodie *et al.*, 2002; O’Sullivan, 2006). The results from most previous studies suggest that:

- Teachers have a positive attitude towards LC teaching.
- The TCA is ingrained in most schools, while the implementation of the LCA is very limited (Cuban, 1993; Orafi, 2008; Yilmaz, 2009).
- Factors influencing the recurrent failure to implement the LCA by in-service teachers seem to be teacher capacity, social and cultural factors, institutional cultures, the availability of resources, learner background, the quality of teacher education programmes, along with education traditions (Yilmaz, 2009; Schweisfurth, 2011).
- The differences between Western and non-Western contexts leads researchers to question the appropriateness and merits of the LCA in developing countries (Holliday, 1994; O’Donoghue, 1994; Tabulawa, 2003; O’Sullivan, 2004; 2006).

- Teachers' beliefs, their 'apprenticeship of observation' (see Chapter 3) and their understanding of the LCA could be possible reasons for the non-implementation of this approach (Cuban, 1993; O'Sullivan, 2004; Orafi and Borg, 2009).

These findings serve to confirm the need for the current study. Previous research on the implementation of the LCA has mainly focused on in-service teachers, and has neglected to what extent it is adopted by pre-service teachers. From the previous findings, one thing that has sparked our interest is why the implementation of this approach is still limited worldwide, even though most teachers have a positive attitude towards the approach. The appropriateness of this approach in non-Western educational contexts has triggered a debate. Teachers' failure to implement this approach may be caused not only by the factors discussed earlier, but also by their learning experience, their beliefs, and their understanding of this approach. It has been suggested by previous studies (Cuban, 1993; O'Sullivan, 2004) that teachers' beliefs are one factor that precludes teachers from adopting this approach, and they are recognised as being of primary importance in research on teaching. However, recent research has focused solely on what teachers actually did in their classrooms and has not attempted to understand the reasons that influenced and directed their teaching. Furthermore, studies of learner-centredness in regard to language teaching have so far lagged behind studies in mainstream education. In this study, therefore, attention has been drawn to a number of areas which previous researchers have overlooked. An explanation of the reasons why, although the LCA has been promoted, it is still rarely used by teachers, will be put forward and the findings will

contribute to our understanding of how pre-service teachers conceptualise this approach. It is hoped that the results of this study will be utilised by teacher educators to train pre-service teachers to become more learner-centred.

Cuban (1983; 1993) conducted many studies to investigate how primary and secondary school teachers taught in several cities in the United States using a survey, classroom observations, together with documentary analysis. He found that TC instruction continued to be dominant in schools, and that the ‘durability’ of TC practices was evident (Cuban, 1993).

O’Sullivan (2004) explored the implementation of the LCA by 145 unqualified primary teachers in Namibia adopting an action research approach. The data were collected from interviews, observations and documentary analysis. Like Cuban, she reported that the dominant mode of instruction was the TCA.

Cuban’s (1983; 1993) and O’Sullivan’s (2004) research helped to shape the focus of this study in four principal ways. Firstly, it provides evidence of the impact of teachers’ apprenticeship of observation, together with knowledge, beliefs and attitudes on teachers’ pedagogical practices. According to Cuban, ‘more important, it suggests that teachers had some autonomy to make classroom choices derived from their belief systems’ (p. 261). These two studies underlined the importance of teachers’ beliefs in the study of the implementation of the LCA. Secondly, the understanding of learner-centredness of the teachers in their study affected their implementation of the LCA. Thirdly, the teachers did not fully understand the

meaning and key notions of learner-centredness. Fourthly, O'Sullivan also reported that the majority of teachers claimed that they had adopted the LCA. However, the classroom observation data indicated that their instructional practices were didactic. This showed that there was a mismatch between what the teachers said they did, and what they actually did.

A study by Chisholm *et al.* (2000) also underscored the importance of teachers' beliefs and the gap between teachers' stated beliefs and their enacted beliefs.

The level of teacher understanding of C2005¹ is generally weak and there is a wide gap between what teachers say they know and what they actually do. ... Teachers described what they believed determines the essential features of C2005. ... However, it is often the case that when these concepts are implemented in the classroom, teachers show evidence that they had embraced the form rather than the spirit and content of the ideas. Teachers may be aware of the need to make learners participants in the learning process. However, this was understood more in procedural terms rather than as something which promotes learning. Many learners in the classes observed still do not participate fully in the learning process since teachers are still providing a great deal of direct instruction and are still pre-occupied with content coverage. (p. 78, emphasis added)

In agreement with Chisholm *et al.* (2000), Brodie *et al.* (2002) reported that four teachers took up the forms and substance of learner-centredness, three teachers did not take up forms or substance, and eleven teachers took up only the forms. Nonetheless, 'they tend[ed] to move between teacher- and learner-centred practices and develop[ed] hybrid teaching styles' (p. 546).

¹ Curriculum 2005 is the curriculum implemented in South African schools since 1997. This curriculum is based on learner-centredness, outcomes-based education and concepts related to an integrated approach to knowledge.

The synthesis of 72 empirical studies of LC education in developing countries by Schweisfurth (2011) was concerned with both the issues and problems of the implementation of the LCA. The results showed that there were several reasons for the non-implementation of the LCA. Although extensive research has been carried out on the implementation of the LCA, no single study exists which adequately covers the adoption of this approach by pre-service teachers in this synthesis of research. So far, little is known about how pre-service teachers actually adopt this approach and what factors limit its implementation (Mtika and Gates, 2010). In Mtika and Gates' study, they did not explore how pre-service teachers understand learner-centredness. One of the aims of my study is to fill this gap in the research.

The findings from earlier studies indicate that teachers' beliefs and their understanding of the LCA play an integral role in guiding their classroom practices. However, much research to date has been concerned with the teachers' use of LC instructional practices and obstacles to the implementation of the LCA, without actually examining teachers' beliefs about the LCA. Additionally, queries addressing the beliefs of pre-service teachers concerning the LCA, their understanding of and their implementation of the LCA have received scant attention in the literature. Consequently, it is hoped that the findings of this study will help to improve the classroom practices of such teachers, enable teacher educators to shift pre-service teachers towards more LC teaching practices, and provide a better understanding of the pre-service teachers' journey as they attempt to use this approach.

2.8 Difficulties in Implementing the Learner-Centred Approach within a Thai Context

Although ideas about LC teaching are certainly highly influential locally and internationally, they can hold different meanings for different people (Brodie *et al.*, 2002). As already mentioned in Chapter 1, one of the key problems with this approach is that some Thai teachers are not only confused about their role, but are also unsure as to what is required in order to apply this approach to their teaching (Thamraksa, 2011). Furthermore, some teachers both misconstrue and misuse this approach. As Farrington (1991) states, ‘there is considerable disagreement and confusion about what student-centred learning actually is’ (p. 16). In addition, the definitions of LC learning are defined differently by different authors, researchers and practitioners. It is obviously quite likely that people from diverse backgrounds might interpret the concept of LC teaching differently (O’Neill, 1991; Holliday, 1994).

The main drawback of the TCA which has been recognised in education in Thailand is that learners are passive and dependent, and cannot think critically or creatively. The educational reform initiatives made by the MOE (see the discussion in section 1.2) are intended to improve learners’ competence, independence and lifelong learning, to cope with global competition and to develop desired attributes in citizens (for more details see section 1.2).

In Thailand, the shift from the TC to the LC instructional approach will undoubtedly encounter some difficulties. Previous studies (Prapaisit, 2003; Nonkukhetkhong *et al.*,

2006; Prapaisit de Segovia and Hardison, 2009; Thamraksa, 2011) reported that some Thai teachers view the LCA negatively, as they think that this new model minimises the role they play in the classroom. Most of them are highly sceptical about the virtues of this approach; additionally, they have a poor understanding or even a misconception of how the LCA operates in practice. Unfortunately, many teachers are uncertain about what they should do in order to change their teaching from TC to LC. The majority of teachers in Thailand have strong beliefs about the effectiveness of the traditional approach and they believe that the way they teach is the best. Consequently, they have little space to manoeuvre (Thamraksa, 2011). Teachers who have been traditionally and confidently used to using the TC teaching approach during their teacher training and their school experience will be less willing to adopt a new approach. Thus, their concepts of teaching and learning are outdated. This problem with adopting the LCA and ensuring its overall success is exacerbated by insufficient and poor quality teacher training, as well as a lack of support, a lack of teaching ability and classroom exposure on the part of teachers, together with limited school resources and facilities. Indeed, social, cultural and religious values, a culturally-based concept of seniority (see section 1.3.1), along with a tradition of rote learning and innate shyness on the part of students are also major obstacles that deter Thai teachers from adopting this approach (Mackenzie, 2002).

My interest in this study was stimulated by the problems and dilemmas confronting LC instruction and ELT in Thailand, particularly in pre-service teacher training. Although pre-service teachers are familiar with the term 'learner-centred education', the extent to which they truly understand the concept and how to teach in a learner-

centred way requires more in-depth research. It is undeniable that the quality of pre-service teacher training impacts on the successful integration of LC instruction into pedagogical practices (Yilmaz, 2007).

More importantly, if the LCA is to be adopted for foreign language teaching in Thailand, dramatic changes in teachers' perceptions and in the roles played by teachers and learners are needed. It is thus not surprising that although some teachers seem to be familiar with this approach, they have some difficulties in explicating it accurately and in putting it into practice. In addition, their adoption of this approach may be hampered by their misconceptions. The current study is therefore particularly important in uncovering both the extent to which the teachers understand learner-centredness, the extent to which their classroom practices reflect learner-centredness, and whether they have any misconceptions about LC teaching. Clear illustrations of the impact of both teachers' understanding and their misconceptions on the CLT teaching approach are to be found in the literature (Karavas-Doukas, 1996; Thompson, 1996; Li, 2001; Nishino, 2009; Shihiba, 2011).

This study could make several contributions. It will contribute to our understanding of LC instruction as it is perceived by pre-service teachers, and suggest ways to promote more LC pedagogical practices. Pre-service teachers will be able to apply the insights provided by this study to become more aware of the influence of the 'psychological bases of their teaching practice [and] to help teachers understand their mental lives, not to dictate practice to them' (Borg, 1998a, p. 18). It also has some applications for teacher educators by suggesting a new concept of teaching which

supports and helps to improve the quality of prospective teachers. To tackle the problems of the country and ELT in Thailand, the investigation of what pre-service teachers do in their classroom alone will not be adequate, as 'teaching is the integration of thought and action' (Freeman, 1992, p. 1). Insights into teachers' thinking will provide a basis for effective teacher training, as well as for professional development.

2.9 Summary

This chapter has discussed one of the theories that underpin this study. The key concepts of the TCA and the LCA have been highlighted. It has also provided an overview of the philosophical and psychological foundations of both the TCA and LCA. The characteristics of TC and LC teaching practices, together with the development of the LCA in ELT, have been included. The chapter has also reported on empirical investigations of the implementation of the LCA in various contexts. The next chapter will review published literature on the importance of teacher cognition in understanding, as well as in improving teaching practices, and provide further details about language teacher cognition.

Chapter 3. Teacher Cognition

‘The key to understanding the nature of instructional processes lies in analysing both teachers’ actions in the classroom as well as the thinking behind those actions’

(Borg, 1998a, p. 10)

3.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to outline the theoretical and methodological frameworks of language teacher cognition research which underlie and inform the present study. The reasons why it is essential to research teacher cognition in order to understand teachers’ classroom practices are explicated.

This chapter opens with a discussion of why researchers in the field of teaching have begun to study teaching in terms of teacher cognition and why teacher cognition research is important in teaching and teacher education. The definition of the term ‘teacher cognition’ and the origin of teachers’ beliefs are examined. The relationship between teachers’ beliefs and their classroom practices together with the role of contextual factors in shaping classroom practices are then discussed to justify the necessity for investigating both teachers’ beliefs and their classroom practices in this study. An account of language teacher cognition, pre-service teachers’ beliefs and in particular their beliefs regarding the learner-centred approach to teaching will also be

given before moving on to the review of the research literature which draws from the field of language teacher education that was deemed relevant to this study.

Prior to discussing teacher cognition in detail, it is necessary to define clearly what is meant by teacher cognition in the current study, since various definitions of the term can be found in the field of teacher cognition research. The definition of teacher cognition adopted in this study was taken from Borg (2003), who refers to it as the ‘unobservable cognitive dimension ... – what teachers know, believe, and think’ (Borg, 2003, p. 81) that shapes learning and teaching practices. For the purpose of this study, the terms teacher cognition, teachers’ knowledge, teachers’ beliefs and teachers’ understanding will be used interchangeably. No distinction is made between these terms, since in teachers’ minds, knowledge, beliefs, conceptions, and intuitions are closely intertwined (Verloop *et al.*, 2001).

3.2 The Growing Popularity of Research into Teacher Cognitions

In the early 1970s, the shift in emphasis of studies into teaching, involving both the way people think about teaching and methods of teacher training, was influenced by an alternative concept of teaching, and is defined as ‘a process of active decision-making influenced by teacher cognitions’ (Borg, 1998a, p. 16). In place of the process-product paradigm, the focus of teacher education has shifted from the effective adoption of particular instructional methods, classroom behaviour, skills and activities, to what goes on in the minds of pre-service teachers (Borg, 1998a; Richardson, 2003). In the 1960s, research on teaching was clearly influenced by a

behaviourist stance, with teaching being viewed as a set of observable and describable behaviours (Calderhead, 1996). The results of the research showed that teaching placed emphasis on such behaviours (ibid.). During that time, the process-product tradition was the predominant approach used in research into teaching. The aim of this approach, which has also been known as the teaching effectiveness approach (Shulman, 1986a), was to study the relationship between teachers' actions (process) and students' learning outcomes (product) (Burns, 1995; Freeman, 2002). One major drawback of this approach is that it is inadequate to portray the complexity of teaching, and the narrow focus of this research paradigm means that teaching is simply defined as a set of behavioural skills and learning outcomes without taking teachers' thought processes into consideration. Advances in knowledge in the field of cognitive psychology underscored the impact of thinking on behaviour (Borg, 2006b). In effect, to understand teaching, it is indispensable to understand how teachers think about their pedagogical practices.

In the late 1960s, owing to the inadequacies of behaviourist accounts, research on teaching began to put more emphasis on teachers' thought processes. The book which marked a change in the view of how teachers teach was 'Life in Classrooms' by Philip Jackson (1968). The focus of Jackson's study was on describing and understanding the mental constructs and processes that underpin teacher behaviour; additionally, it emphasised 'the complex demands of the teaching role' (Calderhead, 1996, p. 710). Jackson's work was supported by Lortie's *Schoolteacher: A Sociological Study* (Lortie, 1975), which focused on the life experience of teachers. These two books shifted the attention from what teachers do in the classroom to

teachers' mental lives, which refers to 'teachers' decision-making and perceptions of teaching and learning' (Freeman, 2002, p. 2). This shift in focus to the study of what teachers believe, know, and think was officially recognised in a report published by the National Conference on Studies in Teaching organised in the United States in 1974 (for further review, see National Institute of Education, 1975; Clark and Peterson, 1986). One of these areas in the research plan was on 'Teaching as Clinical Information Processing'. The report of these panelists argued that:

It is obvious that what teachers do is directed in no small measure by what they think ... To the extent that observed or intended teacher behaviour is "thoughtless", it makes no use of the human teacher's most unique attributes. In so doing, it becomes mechanical and might well be done by a machine. If, however, teaching is done and, in all likelihood, will continue to be done by human teachers, the question of the relationships between thought and action become crucial. (National Institute of Education, 1975, p. 1)

This report illustrated the beginnings of a tradition of research into teacher's mental lives, and highlighted the necessity to study teachers' thinking in order to understand both them and the teaching process. Research on teaching in this paradigm concentrated on how teachers think, and focused mainly on their thought processes, something which had been neglected in research into teaching that adopted the teaching effectiveness approach.

The teaching process obviously involves teachers' thoughts and actions (see Figure 3.1). Teachers' thought processes are unobservable, as they occur inside teachers' heads; by contrast, teachers' actions are observable, which makes them easier to measure than teachers' thought processes. A model of teacher thought and action (Figure 3.1) also highlights the importance of the constraints and opportunities in

understanding the process of teaching. This means that it is impossible to understand fully the process of teaching if we do not bring the two aspects together and examine them as one interdependent entity. Teachers' thought processes consist of three interrelated stages: teacher planning, teachers' interactive thoughts and decisions, and teachers' theories and beliefs (Clark and Peterson, 1986).

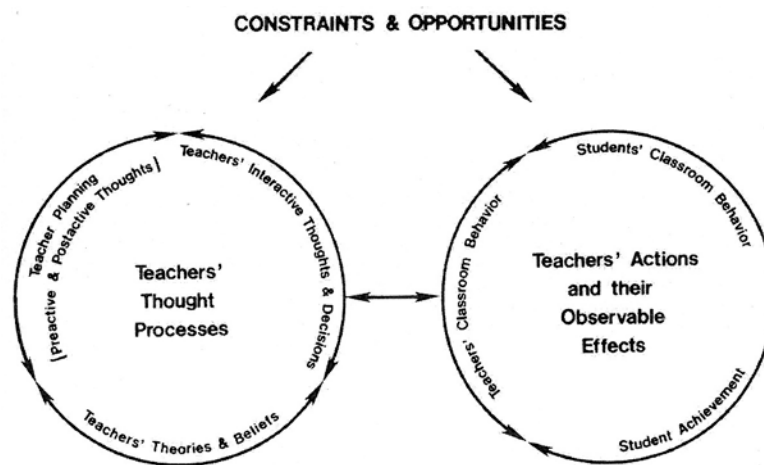


Figure 3.1 A model of teacher thought and action

(Clark and Peterson, 1986, p. 257)

Teacher cognition research gained prominence in the early 1970s, and the new concept of teacher and teaching from mainstream education now also permeates the field of language teaching (for a comprehensive review of research into language teacher cognition, see Borg, 2003). This has led to the need to understand what language teachers do and why (Garton, 2008). Many authors in this field have also suggested that it is essential to explore language teachers' beliefs; since their beliefs influence what teachers do in their classrooms, an understanding of these beliefs is

prerequisite for understanding both teaching and teacher learning (Burn, 1992; Freeman and Richards, 1996; Golombek, 1998).

As shown in several studies of mainstream education and language teacher education, understanding the beliefs of teachers and teacher candidates helps improve their teaching, as well as their teacher preparation (Nespor, 1987; Johnson, 1994; Fang, 1996; Meijer *et al.*, 2001). Moreover, the quality of teaching has been improved through research on teacher cognition, which has provided insights into how to support and change teachers' work.

3.3 Definition of Beliefs

In a synthesis of research into teachers' beliefs, Pajares (1992) concludes that beliefs are a 'messy construct', as researchers in this field have defined identical terms differently and different terms have been used to refer to similar concepts (Eisenhart *et al.*, 1988; Pajares, 1992; Pedersen and Liu, 2003). However, in order to understand more clearly the link between beliefs and classroom practices, the term 'beliefs' needs to be clarified. The study of teacher cognition has been accompanied by a proliferation of terms, which has caused some degree of confusion. Examples of these terms include 'attitudes', 'axioms', 'opinions', 'conceptions', 'perceptions', 'practical principles', 'pedagogical content knowledge' and 'repertoires of understanding' (Pajares, 1992; Borg, 2006b).

Although beliefs may be considered to be one of the most valuable psychological constructs in teacher education (Mansour, 2009), it is indeed a complex matter to define and to study beliefs, owing to their psychological nature. According to Rokeach (1968, p. 113), beliefs are ‘any simple proposition, conscious or unconscious, inferred from what a person says or does, capable of being preceded by the phrase “I believe that...”’. In the field of English language teaching, Borg (2001) describes a belief as ‘a proposition which may be consciously or unconsciously held, is evaluative in that it is accepted as true by the individual, and is therefore imbued with emotive commitment; further it serves as a guide to thought and behaviour’ (p. 186).

It becomes clear from these definitions that there are some aspects which need to be taken into account when teacher cognition is investigated. These include: 1) different terms have been invoked to refer to beliefs, 2) beliefs cannot be accessed directly, so they must be inferred from what the teacher says and what he/she does, 3) ‘teachers may be reluctant to air unpopular beliefs ... [because] they are often held unconsciously’ (Kagan, 1990, p. 420); their lack of appropriate language sometimes makes it harder for teachers to reflect on their underlying cognition, and 4) the study of beliefs is extremely context or teacher specific (*ibid.*). Hence, it is important to bear these aspects in mind when designing research on teachers’ beliefs.

Another area of confusion in teacher cognition research is the distinction between beliefs and knowledge, since there might be some overlap between the nature of knowledge and the characteristics of beliefs (Nishino, 2009). In the study of teacher

cognition, the terms ‘knowledge’ and ‘beliefs’ have frequently been used to refer to teacher cognition (Calderhead, 1996), while Grossman *et al.* (1989) acknowledge that the distinction between these two terms is ‘blurry at best’ (p. 31). Many researchers (e.g., Kagan, 1992a; Pajares, 1992; Calderhead, 1996; Southerland *et al.*, 2001; Smith and Siegel, 2004) use both terms synonymously, or interchangeably. Woods (1996) also argued that it may not be possible to distinguish beliefs from knowledge and proposed the concept of BAK (beliefs, assumptions, knowledge).

Nespor (1987), on the other hand, attempted to distinguish beliefs from knowledge. While knowledge is likely to change, beliefs are static, and when they do change, it is ‘a matter of a conversion or gestalt shift’ (p. 321), not the result of argument or reason. Nespor suggested that knowledge is grounded on objective fact, whereas beliefs rely heavily on affective and evaluative components (for more differences between beliefs and knowledge, see Savasci-Acikalin, 2009). In the literature, researchers deploy several terms to refer to ‘teacher knowledge’. These terms include subject matter knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, curriculum knowledge (Shulman, 1986b), practical knowledge (Elbaz, 1981; Meijer *et al.*, 2001), personal practical knowledge (Clandinin and Connelly, 1987; Golombek, 1998) and teachers’ practical theory (Mangubhai *et al.*, 2004). The fact that researchers have employed different words to refer to the same thing has led to confusion (for more terms see Clandinin and Connelly, 1987).

Pajares (1992) maintains that beliefs play a role not only in defining behaviour and organising knowledge and information, but also in the appraisal, acceptance or

rejection of new information (Borg, 2002). Teachers use their beliefs to define or frame tasks and select cognitive strategies.

3.4 Origin of Teachers' Beliefs

There is now clear evidence that teachers' belief systems are developed gradually throughout their lifetimes (Lortie, 1975; Anning, 1988; Wilson, 1990). Pre-service teachers' mental lives do not start being developed when they first join teacher education programmes, but they bring with them with their personal theories, together with their learning experiences. Various different factors have been identified as having a powerful impact on teachers' beliefs, including:

- **Their own schooling and language learning experience.** Many studies have shown that teachers' beliefs about teaching are formed and developed from their own experience as learners at school - what Lortie (1975) called the 'apprenticeship of observation' (teachers' schooling), which includes two types of memory, their memories as students and their memories of their former teachers. These memories are powerful, as they act as 'indelible imprint[s] on most teachers' lives and minds' (Johnson, 1999, p. 23). Thus, teachers frequently teach as they were taught (teachers' prior language learning experiences). This source of beliefs is considered to be the most important source (Kennedy, 1989; Freeman, 1992; Johnson, 1996; Numrich, 1996).
- **Their own experience of teaching.** One of the most powerful sources of teachers' beliefs is their own experience of teaching (Crookes and Arakaki,

1999; Breen *et al.*, 2001). Through continuous teaching over a number of years, teachers accumulate teaching experience, and they discover what works well and what does not. It seems likely that the successful routines they have developed block suggestions that they should adapt to change or accept new ideas.

- **Teacher education.** The impact of teacher education on teachers' beliefs has become a subject of debate within educational research. However, there is some evidence that teachers' beliefs can be influenced by teacher education (Tatto, 1998; Borg, 2005; Phipps, 2009).

Aside from these sources, teachers' beliefs may be derived from other sources, such as established practices, teachers' personality factors, research-based principles, educational principles, and principles derived from an approach or method (Richards and Lockhart, 1996). In the same vein, Richardson (2003) suggests that major sources of teachers' beliefs are personal experience and experience with formal knowledge.

3.5 The Importance of Teachers' Beliefs

Some researchers define good teaching in terms of underlying cognition (Clark and Peterson, 1986; Shulman, 1987; Kagan, 1988; 1990). In this section, the reasons why research on teaching needs to investigate teachers' beliefs are discussed. Research has indicated that teachers' beliefs are of primary importance for several reasons (Fang, 1996; Freeman, 2002). First, they heavily influence teachers' classroom practices (Johnson, 1994; Borg, 2001; Mangubhai *et al.*, 2004) and play a pivotal role in various aspects of teaching. The way teachers plan their lessons, along with the

decisions they make, and how they select what to teach and how to teach, are strongly influenced by their beliefs (Grossman *et al.*, 1989; Pajares, 1992). Therefore, it is essential to understand teachers' beliefs in order to improve teaching practices.

Second, beliefs are very likely to be deep-seated, and may continue to have a profound impact on teachers throughout their career (Borg, 2003). These beliefs are less likely to change, and may outweigh the effect of pre-service training (Calderhead and Robson, 1991). Kennedy (1989) concludes:

By the time we receive our bachelor's degree, we have observed teachers and participated in their work for up to 3,060 days. In contrast, teacher preparation programs usually require ... [about] 75 days of classroom experience. What could possibly happen during these 75 days to significantly alter the practices learned during the preceding 3,060 days? (p. 4)

It is clear from this statement that the pre-existing beliefs of student teachers (STs) exert a considerable influence over what and how they learn in their teacher education programme.

Finally, teachers' beliefs play a crucial role in the process of curriculum change or innovation (Wedell, 2009; Borg and Al-Busaidi, 2012), and it is thus essential that teachers' existing beliefs be taken into consideration when educational reform programmes want to promote change in teachers' classroom practices (Eisenhart *et al.*, 1988). For the successful implementation of pedagogical innovations, the gap between the intended principles of reform, and the implemented principles of reform and teachers' beliefs, should be eliminated. (Levitt, 2002). In addition, a teacher's

own preferred theory on teaching can make that teacher reluctant to accept the benefits of a new theory (Karavas-Doukas, 1996).

3.6 Beliefs and Classroom Practices

The main motive for conducting the current study was to explain pre-service teachers' classroom practices. There is now clear evidence that teachers' beliefs provide a basis for action (Borg, 2011) and guide classroom practices. Teachers 'filter, digest, and implement the curriculum depending upon their beliefs and environmental contexts' (Sakui, 2004, p. 155). The relationship between beliefs and classroom practices is neither linear nor unidirectional (Fang, 1996), but is highly complex, dialectic, interactive, symbiotic, cyclical or circular, controversial, and far from straightforward (Calderhead, 1991; Foss and Kleinsasser, 1996).

As discussed in section 3.3, several previous studies have suggested that 'the teachers' stated beliefs offered only a partial window on practice' (Basturkmen *et al.*, 2004, p. 268). Argyris and Schön (1974) argue that teachers' beliefs should not be accessed solely from what they say they believe, but should be inferred from the ways in which they behave. Hence, to understand teaching fully, it is essential to investigate both what the teachers say they do and what they actually do in their classrooms. The investigation of the relationship between the two allows us to explore the reasons for any discrepancies between the two, and to establish which factors are hindering them from putting their beliefs into practice. These factors can be utilised in improving candidate teachers' teaching practices. However, one

limitation of previous studies on the implementation of the LCA is that they have failed to acknowledge fully the significance of teacher cognition.

Research has shown that there is divergence and convergence between beliefs and practices. Few studies in language teaching have reported that teachers' practices were in alignment with their stated beliefs (Vibulphol, 2004; Farrell and Kun, 2008). Most previous studies found that teachers' beliefs were inconsistent with their classroom practices (Richards and Pennington, 1998; Maiklad, 2001; Davis, 2003; Basturkmen, 2012). The reasons why teachers do not teach according to their stated beliefs are highly complex. Incompatibility between beliefs and classroom practices may be attributed to different factors. The possible factors are discussed below.

Firstly, contextual factors may have a significant impact on teachers' cognitions by either changing their beliefs or changing their classroom practices without altering their beliefs (Borg, 2006b). Neophyte or pre-service teachers are prone to changes in their instructional practices, owing to the instructional and social realities of their classes and schools. A number of studies have indicated that the social, institutional and physical settings (realities of the school and classroom) can constrain what teachers do in their classes (Shavelson and Stern, 1981; Freeman, 1993; Johnson, 1996; Woods, 1996). These factors include heavy workloads, large classes, student discipline, lack of motivation for learning, students' varying levels of proficiency, insufficient English proficiency of students, students' resistance to new ways of learning, examination pressure, curriculum mandates, and a shortage of resources.

Secondly, the discrepancies between the beliefs teachers claim to have and those inferred from classroom observations may be caused by the methods employed to elicit beliefs and by research designs (Speer, 2005). Some researchers assert that it is insufficient to rely solely on either verbal commentaries or observations. Thus, in order to investigate teachers' beliefs, there is a need both to draw inferences from the statements that teachers make about their beliefs, and to examine what they actually do in their classrooms. These are fundamental prerequisites for studying teachers' beliefs (Pajares, 1992).

3.7 Language Teacher Cognition

For the past four decades, the success of second language (L2) teaching has hinged upon the effective adoption of particular teaching methods. Language teaching education has attached a great deal of importance to developing new theories of language and of learning (Richards and Rodgers, 2001; Larsen-Freeman and Anderson, 2011). Recently, the established concept of L2 teaching has changed dramatically, focusing on teachers' own theories and beliefs about teaching which help guide how they teach. Beliefs do indeed guide teachers, whether they are aware of it or not (Bailey *et al.*, 1996). They influence not only perception, but also judgment, which in turn affects what teachers say and do in their classrooms (Johnson, 1994).

In educational research, the cognitive dimension of teaching has been acknowledged as central to successful teaching (Moini, 2009). Following the interest in mainstream

educational research, language teaching is now viewed as a complex cognitive activity (Borg, 2003), as it is a process ‘which is defined by dynamic interactions among cognition, context and experience’ (Borg, 2006b, p. 275). The view of teaching and teachers in a cognitive paradigm is different from the view in process-product research, which examines teaching simply in terms of sequences of external behaviour and the learning outcomes (Calderhead, 1996; Freeman, 2002). Undoubtedly, in the cognitive paradigm, both the internal thought processes of teachers and their external behaviour are important to understand teachers and teaching.

Within language education, as Borg (2003) suggests, ‘teachers are active, thinking decision-makers who make instructional choices by drawing on complex, practically-oriented, personalised, and context-sensitive networks of knowledge, thoughts, and beliefs’ (p. 81). Figure 3.2 provides a succinct illustration of the relationships between teacher cognition, teacher learning through schooling, teacher education programmes, and classroom practice.

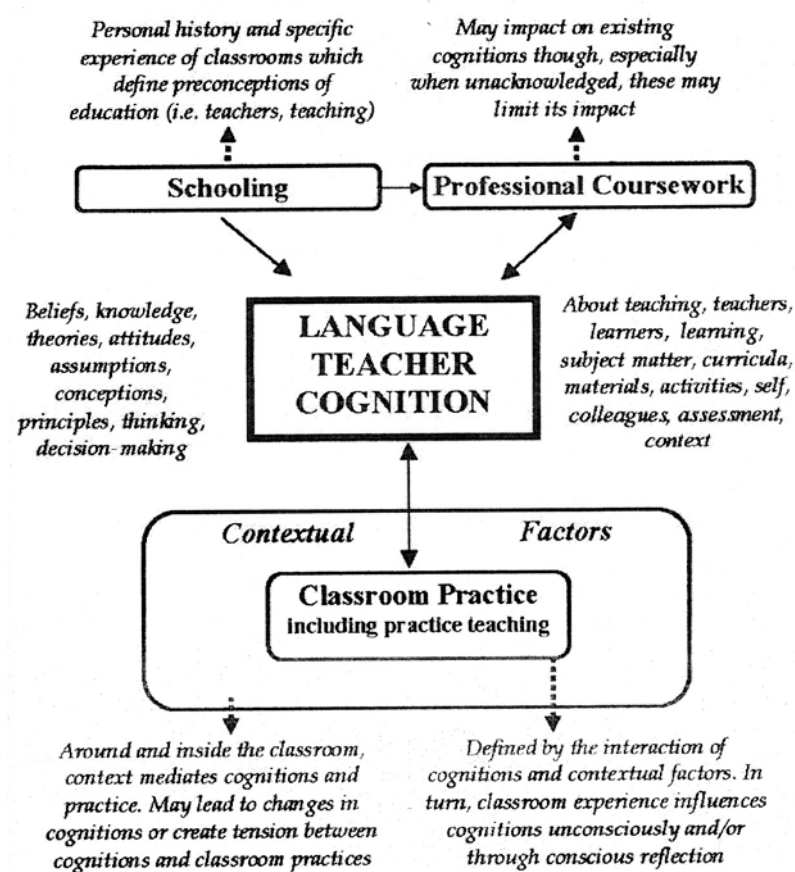


Figure 3.2 Elements and processes in language teacher cognition

(Borg, 2006b, p. 283)

This figure demonstrates that the development of teacher cognition is influenced by teachers' experience as students, their teacher training and their teaching experiences (see section 3.4 for more details). Teachers' classroom practices are shaped not only by teacher cognition, but also by contextual factors. Teacher cognition and classroom practices are mutually informing, whilst contextual factors come into play in the congruity between teachers' classroom practices and their cognition (Borg, 2006b). Therefore, to unfold the complexity of teaching, an account of what teachers do in the

classroom alone is inadequate and is not able to provide a realistic picture of teachers' classroom practices.

3.8 Pre-Service Teachers' Beliefs

Research has indicated that pre-service teachers bring their pre-existing personal beliefs with them when they enter teacher education programmes, and take them into their classrooms (Calderhead and Robson, 1991; Kagan, 1992a; Pajares, 1993; Almarza, 1996; Richardson, 1996). Their prior beliefs may be detrimental to their own learning during their teacher education programme, and also to the learning of their future students (Peacock, 2001). As mentioned previously, these beliefs are based on their own experiences as learners, their 'apprenticeship of observation' (Lortie, 1975). Richardson (2003) characterises the pre-existing beliefs of pre-service teachers as 'highly idealistic, loosely formulated, deeply seated, and traditional' (p. 6).

The preconceptions about teaching that pre-service teachers' derive from their long apprenticeship is only a partial view of teaching (Borg, 2002). They may be unaware of the limitations of these pre-existing beliefs, as compared with other students in other professions. For pre-service teachers, in their classes at the university, the people and practices are very similar to their classes when they were young. Thus, they do not recognise the need to redefine their situations. Their preconceptions remain unchanged by their higher education.

The reasons why it is important to research pre-service teachers' beliefs include: firstly, one of the main goals of teacher education involves the modification and formation of beliefs of pre-service teachers, since beliefs may impede their capability to make changes to their teaching practices and may outweigh the effects of teacher education (Pajares, 1992). Secondly, they are thought to guide the teachers' selection of future teaching practices and the extent to which they make sense of what they are studying (Richardson, 2003). Recent studies indicate that the majority of teacher candidates still hold transmitted beliefs about teaching and learning, and these pre-existing beliefs tend to affect what they learn from the teacher education programme. Richardson (*ibid.*) concludes that prior belief systems need to be understood, if an effective framework for new teaching strategies is to be implemented.

It is necessary for pre-service teacher education to acknowledge, as well as examine the prior beliefs of pre-service teachers, and make them explicit. Teacher educators should help them to reflect on these beliefs at the start of the programme, since they can only examine their own beliefs and reflect on them if they are aware of them. Doing this will make pre-service teachers aware of the influence of their beliefs, and make it possible for teacher educators to identify their difficulties and provide them with appropriate support. Moreover, traditional prior beliefs that pre-service teachers bring to teacher education programmes are considered to be 'stumbling blocks' (*ibid.*, p. 2) in their reform of their teaching practices (from the TCA to the LCA).

It is not possible for teachers to change their practices without reflecting on their beliefs (Dwyer *et al.*, 1991). With the assistance of teacher educators, pre-service

teachers will be able to understand the assumptions that impact their thinking and behaviour. Otherwise, they will incorporate new ideas that they obtain from teacher education programmes into old frameworks (Pajares, 1993). If researchers understood the pre-existing beliefs of pre-service teachers, this would not only improve their teaching practices, but also their professional development, as well as their professional preparation.

3.9 Learner-Centred Beliefs

Research has shown that the TCA continues to be dominant in the classroom, owing to the resistance to change of pre-service teachers resulting from their beliefs, which are based on their prior teacher-centred educational experiences (Cuban, 1993; Marshall, 1997; Barr, 1998). It is apparent that many pre-service teachers take the view that teaching is a process of transmitting knowledge and of dispensing information (Pajares, 1992); additionally, they are likely to believe that the way they were taught is effective, and that the main source of knowledge is the teacher. These beliefs are not easy to dislodge, and frequently hamper not only their acceptance of, but also their attempts to try out the new ideas which they obtain from their teacher education. Thus, convincing pre-service teachers to value LC teaching practices can be a daunting task (Dunn and Rakes, 2011). Vogler (2006) argues that if pre-service teachers' beliefs are left unattended to, changes in their teaching will become almost impossible when they become in-service teachers. In other words, their use of LC teaching practices will be limited in their future classroom.

McCombs (2002; 2003) has carried out many studies on teacher beliefs and practices and has offered strong evidence to substantiate her claim that understanding teacher beliefs can both improve instructional practices and move them towards being more learner-centred. The findings of her research also reflect the relationship between LC beliefs and LC teaching practices. Research has further indicated that in-service teachers are unlikely to adopt the LCA, if they believe that the TCA is effective. Although beliefs are significant determinants of in-service teachers' adoption of LC instruction (McCombs, 2003), the investigation of beliefs about the LCA among pre-service teachers has received very little attention in the literature. 'Addressing these ... beliefs in teacher education, can lead to more learner-centred teachers in the classroom' (Dunn and Rakes, 2011, p. 42).

In summary, the key points of the above overview are as follows:

1. The study of beliefs is crucial, not only to understand both teaching and teacher learning, but also to improve teaching practices, teacher development and teacher education programmes.
2. Beliefs are derived from teachers' schooling, as well as from their learning experience, teaching experience and teacher education.
3. Beliefs are personal, practical, systematic, dynamic and often unconscious (Phipps, 2009).
4. The relationship between beliefs and classroom practices is interactive, dialectic and highly complex (Richardson, 1996; Poulson *et al.*, 2001).

5. Pre-service teachers enter teacher education programmes with preconceptions and personal beliefs and, in addition, these pre-existing beliefs are tenacious.
6. Pre-existing beliefs held by pre-service teachers not only filter what they learn from teacher education, play a role in the process by which they gain knowledge or learn a skill, but also interpret knowledge and subsequent teaching behaviour (Pajares, 1992; 1993).
7. To change the beliefs of pre-service teachers is difficult, but it is possible. It can be promoted by making pre-service teachers' implicit beliefs explicit, showing them the inadequacies or inconsistencies of those beliefs, and providing them with opportunities to remove beliefs that hinder learning and develop new beliefs that will facilitate their learning (Kagan, 1992a). However, 'belief change is an extremely complex phenomenon; cognitive change does not necessarily imply behavioural change and vice versa' (Phipps, 2009, p. 32).
8. Changes in teachers' teaching practices and adoption of new teaching practices are the result of changes in teachers' beliefs (Richards *et al.*, 2001).
9. Reflection can make implicit beliefs become explicit, and furthermore, teachers are more likely to implement new ideas, since they become more aware of their beliefs and more willing to change them.
10. A primary goal of teacher education programme is to change, develop, modify and transform pre-service teachers' beliefs and belief systems (Richardson, 2003).

3.10 Research on Teachers' Beliefs about the Learner-Centred Approach in Language Teaching

Various studies in the field of language teaching which have focused on teachers' beliefs about the LCA and their pedagogical practices have been undertaken by researchers in different contexts. Nonkukhetkhong *et al.* (2006) explored five in-service EFL teachers' perceptions and implementation of the LCA in their teaching of English at public secondary schools in Thailand, and found that they would be keen to adopt the LCA if they knew how to teach in a learner-centred way and if they had been sufficiently prepared. The degree of the teachers' implementation hinged upon their understanding of this approach and contextual factors. In a similar vein, the results of Prapaisit de Segovia and Hardison's (2009) study suggested that Thai primary teachers did not fully understand the principles and the application of the LCA. They wanted to make the shift from the TC to the LC teaching approach, but they did not know how to do it, owing to a lack of understanding, no model and no support. Their failure to implement this approach was thus caused by several factors. Orafi and Borg (2009) examined three Libyan secondary school teachers' implementation of a new communicative English language curriculum. This study revealed that 'if the implementation of this curriculum is entrusted to teachers who lack appropriate understandings and skills the prospects of the curriculum fulfilling its intentions are clearly remote' (p. 250).

A doctoral study conducted by Al-Nouh (2008), who examined twenty-three Kuwaiti EFL primary teachers, discovered that teachers' own beliefs and the way they had

been taught were the main obstacles to implementing a CLT-based learner-centred method. Al-Nouh's findings also indicated that there was a discrepancy between teachers' stated beliefs and their actual classroom practices. In addition, the teachers' beliefs were not in line with their teacher training, or with what the curriculum and English inspectorates asked them to do. In comparison with Al-Nouh's study, Shihiba (2011) found that various obstacles were responsible for the non-implementation of the communicative learner-centred approach. Shihiba suggested that the conceptions held by Libyan EFL secondary teachers were mixed with some misconceptions which reflected the teachers' lack of understanding of this approach.

Only two of the studies reviewed above, however (Nonkukhetkhong *et al.*, 2006; Wang, 2007), have focused on exploring the implementation of this approach by good schoolteachers in their own countries. Moreover, previous studies of the implementation of the LCA have not dealt with the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their classroom practices, as in the work of Nonkukhetkhong *et al.* (2006), Prapaisit de Segovia and Hardison (2009), and Wang (2007). The main limitations of these studies, however, are that teachers' beliefs about and implementation of this approach have been explored by employing self-report questionnaires with limited or no observation of classroom practices (Nonkukhetkhong *et al.*, 2006; Wang, 2007; Shihiba, 2011). Kagan (1990, p. 426) warns that, 'any researcher who uses a short-answer test of teacher belief ... runs the risk of obtaining bogus data'. Additionally, in Nonkukhetkhong *et al.*'s and Al-Nouh's (2008) studies, classroom observation data were analysed using pre-determined categories, using the COLT (Communicative

Orientation of Language Teaching) observation scheme. The research design of the current study was influenced by these limitations in the existing research.

Some interesting points can be drawn from this review of recent literature on teacher cognition. Firstly, to date, little research has been conducted specifically on pre-service language teachers' beliefs regarding and use of the LCA. Secondly, researchers (Woods, 1996; Borg, 2006b; Li and Walsh, 2011) have called for more research to be conducted in the area of English being taught as a foreign language by NNS. Thirdly, studies of the cognition of pre-service teachers, in particular, pre-service EFL teachers on three- or four-year teacher education programmes, remain scarce. Furthermore, they are limited to only a few countries, for instance the USA, UK, Hong Kong, Australia and Canada. Fourthly, from this review, it is apparent that very little is known about teachers' beliefs regarding the LCA and their classroom practices. Fifthly, other researchers have called for more studies on the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their classroom practices (Cabaroglu and Roberts, 2000; MacDonald *et al.*, 2001; Li and Walsh, 2011). Finally, previous studies suggest that the adoption of a teaching approach is influenced by various factors (e.g., Li, 1998; Richards and Pennington, 1998; Sakui, 2004; Sato and Kleinsasser, 2004; Nishino and Watanabe, 2008; Nishino, 2012). Nevertheless, few empirical studies have focused on contextual constraints in the context of the current study. The aim of the current study was to fill these gaps in the literature.

According to a framework for language teacher cognition research proposed by Borg (2006b, see Figure 3.3 below), research on teacher cognition can be broken down in

terms of topic and participants. The study of teacher cognition can focus on teaching in general or on a specific domain of teaching, and it can focus on pre-service or in-service teachers. The present study is obviously placed in the top left-hand quadrant of Figure 3.3. Although there has been growing interest in the research related to language teacher cognition, far too little attention has been paid to the beliefs of pre-service teachers in relation to the LCA, particularly in the context of this study (NNS pre-service EFL teachers on the five-year teacher education programme in Thailand). The importance of this study thus lies in the fact that it will shed light on areas which are still undeveloped and not well understood, and it may also contribute to the process of producing more new qualified LC teachers from teacher education programmes at Rajabhat universities.

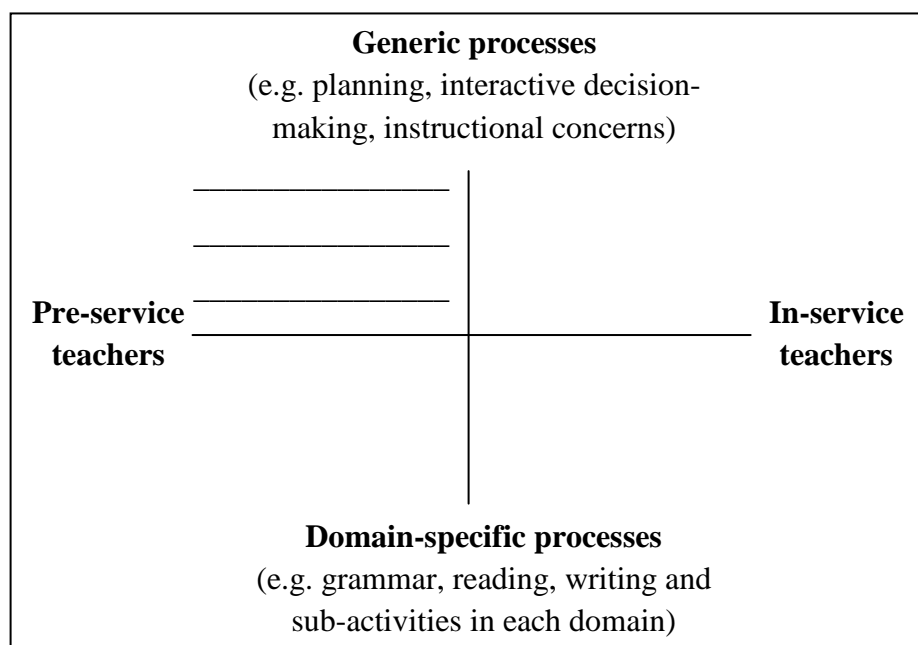


Figure 3.3 Substantive dimensions of language teacher cognition research

(Adapted from Borg, 2006b, p. 282)

3.11 Summary

This chapter has discussed the prominence and the influence of teachers' beliefs on their classroom practices and instructional decisions in the classroom, and on their professional development. The proliferation of available definitions and terminology illustrates the complex nature of beliefs. The relationship between beliefs and practice varies according to contextual factors. To obtain a complete understanding of the teaching and learning process, it is essential to understand fully the impact of context upon the teaching/learning process. Much of the research has asserted that pre-service teachers enter teacher education programmes with preconceptions about teaching and learning which have been formed during their 'apprenticeships of observation', and by their own learning experiences. These pre-service teachers' prior cognitions are important, as they cause them to sift the input and experience they obtain from teacher education programmes and may cause them to reject input that is not in line with their pre-existing beliefs. Recent research has indicated that pre-service teachers still believe in the traditional mode of teaching. Teacher education can play a role in helping make these preconceptions explicit, and in altering, developing and refining these pre-existing beliefs. The following chapter will discuss the mode of inquiry which was adopted in this study.

Chapter 4. Methodology

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter the methodological procedures adopted in this study are described. The research paradigm employed is discussed in detail and the rationale behind the choice of research tools is provided. In section 4.2 the aims and research questions of the current study are presented. The research paradigm that underpins this study, and the research strategy and research design are then presented in sections 4.3 and 4.4. Sections 4.5 to 4.7 are devoted to a description of the context of this study, the selection of participants and data collection procedures. The rationale for using semi-structured interviews and observations as the main data collection strategies, together with the process of piloting, are also included in section 4.7, before moving on to the approach adopted to analyse the data (section 4.8), and the strategies employed to enhance the reliability and validity of this study (section 4.9). The last section deals with ethical issues.

4.2 Research Questions

The aim of the current study was to discover how the learner-centred approach (LCA) was perceived by Thai student teachers (STs) and to what extent their actual classroom practices reflected this approach. The study also aimed to describe the relationship between their understanding of this approach and their practices in order to contribute towards a better understanding of the factors which help or prevent STs

from adopting this approach. It is hoped that these insights may assist teacher educators in the provision of a more effective pre-service English teacher training programme in Thailand. This study attempted to answer the following questions:

1. What is the Thai STs' understanding of the LCA?
2. To what extent did STs apply the LCA to teaching during their internship?
3. What is the relationship between their understanding and their classroom practices with regard to the LCA?

4.3 Research Paradigm

All researchers are 'guided by a set of beliefs and feelings about the world and how it should be understood and studied' (Denzin and Lincoln, 2003, p. 33). A paradigm is described as a 'basic set of beliefs that guides action' (Guba, 1990, p. 17), or as a world view (Creswell, 2009). In social science, it is 'a set of assumptions about the social world, and about what constitute proper techniques and topics for inquiry. In short, it means a view of how science should be done' (Punch, 2005, p. 27). Research paradigms are distinguished from each other by the fact that they are all based on 'an ideology concerning the nature of reality [ontology], a philosophical basis regarding the nature of knowing [epistemology], and various practical methods for studying phenomena [methodology]' (Duff, 2008, p. 28).

The mode of inquiry adopted in this study was based on the interpretive research paradigm, since the aim of the study was to explore STs' experience of reality, and to provide a detailed account of their beliefs and classroom practices in regard to the

LCA during their internship. As the focus of the research was on discovering how STs' perceptions and classroom practices are constructed, it was essential that it be conducted in their real working life setting, without any controlled variables. To understand fully what STs believe and what they do in their classrooms, in-depth data are needed. Furthermore, the beliefs of STs and their classroom practices cannot be quantified. Hence, the present study relied on the STs' 'views of the situation being studied' (Creswell, 2009, p. 8), and attempted to understand the complexity of the phenomenon. Additionally, this study was not based on a particular hypothesis, since my intention was to 'make sense of (or interpret) the meanings others have about the world' (ibid., p. 8).

The interpretive research paradigm is concerned with 'human understanding, interpretation, intersubjectivity, [and] lived truth' (Ernest, 1994, p. 24). It involves 'the systematic analysis of socially meaningful action through the direct detailed observation of people in natural settings in order to arrive at understandings and interpretations of how people create and maintain their social worlds' (Neuman, 2011, pp. 101-102). The interpretive paradigm is also commonly called 'naturalistic' (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Ernest, 1994; Guba and Lincoln, 1994), or 'qualitative' or 'constructivist' (Erickson, 1986; Guba, 1990; Robson, 2002; Denzin and Lincoln, 2003; Gall *et al.*, 2007). Table 4.1 provides a summary of the research paradigm adopted for the current study.

Table 4.1 Summary of interpretive paradigm

Axioms about	Interpretive paradigm
Ontology	Realities are multiple, local and specific co-constructed and holistic.
Epistemology	Knower and known are interactive, inseparable.
Methodology	Qualitative methods are selected because they are more adaptable to dealing with multiple realities.
The possibility of generalisation	Only time- and context- bound working hypotheses (idiographic statements) are possible.
The role of values	Inquiry is value-bound.

Based on Lincoln and Guba (1985, pp. 37, 40), Ernest (1994, p. 29) and Guba and Lincoln (2005, p. 195)

In this paradigm, ontological assumptions are concerned with the nature of reality (Neuman, 2011) or the essence of the phenomenon being investigated (Cohen *et al.*, 2011). Interpretive research assumes that all human action is inherently meaningful (Schwandt, 2003). This study is based on relativism. Relativists do not believe that reality is fixed, but rather that there are multiple realities that exist in people's minds (Guba, 1990; Denzin and Lincoln, 2003; Punch, 2005; Bryman, 2008). These realities are constructed in multiple ways and can be studied holistically (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). Hence, the same social phenomenon can be interpreted and perceived in different ways by different individuals. Guba (1990) summarises relativism as follows:

Realities exist in the form of multiple mental constructions, socially and experientially based, local and specific, dependent for their form and content on the persons who hold them. (p. 27)

This suggests that human beings construct their own social realities in relation to one another (Macleod, 2009). Different people certainly have different perceptions of what reality is. The way people perceive and construe the world is similar, but not necessarily the same (Bassey, 1999). Consequently, people's perceptions of reality are determined by their experiences and their interaction with other people. What people see and experience and how they interpret events makes the perception of truth different from person to person (Rubin and Rubin, 2005).

Epistemology is concerned with the nature of the relationship between researchers and what can be known (Neuman, 2011). This research paradigm takes a 'subjectivist position' (Guba, 1990, p. 26). Interpretivists believe that reality can only be fully understood through the subjective interpretation of an intervention in reality. By subjective interaction, realities can be accessed. (Guba, 1990, p. 27) contends that 'inquirer and inquired into are fused into a single (monistic) entity. Findings are literally the creation of the process of interaction between the two'. This epistemology assumes that the researcher and what is being investigated are inseparable. It is not possible for a researcher to be neutral, and therefore the researcher and what is being studied affect each other.

Methodology is defined as methods and techniques used to generate and justify knowledge (Ernest, 1994). Interpretivists believe that inquiries should take place in

their natural contexts. In order to capture realities holistically, interpretivists favour qualitative data. Lincoln (1990) claims that:

Salient issues emerge from research respondents and co-participants; that theory must arise from the data rather than preceding them; and that the method must be hermeneutic and dialectic, focusing on the social processes of construction, reconstruction, and elaboration, and must be concerned with conflict as well as consensus. (p. 78)

The relativist ontology and subjectivist epistemology of the interpretive paradigm discussed above underlie the research methodology of this study in the following ways:

- Inductive: The data should not be approached with a priori interpretive categories; the approach to the research is one which looks for, describes, and accounts for observed patterns, rather than tests stated hypotheses (Duff, 2008).
- Emic: This study adopted the ‘emic’ perspective.
- Idiographic: The data from this study were interpreted with an idiographic orientation, rather than trying to produce a nomothetic body of knowledge (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). In other words, the goal of the present study was to examine ‘the meaning of particular events’ (Borg, 1998a, p. 28), rather than to make generalisations.

4.4 Research Strategy and Research Design

Having discussed the rationale for adopting the interpretive research paradigm, in this section I will present the reasons why the qualitative and case study approaches were deemed appropriate for the design of the current study.

4.4.1 Qualitative Research

The aim of this study was to describe and account for observed patterns, rather than to test hypotheses. With regard to the data gathering method, there are various reasons why it was decided to adopt a qualitative approach in this study. First, it offers ‘the best source of illumination’ (Richards, 2003, p. 8), enables the researcher to get close to practice, and to get ‘a first-hand sense of what actually goes on in classrooms’ (Eisner, 2001, p. 137). Therefore, classroom practices and underlying meanings can be uncovered. Second, the aim in this research was to investigate STs’ classroom practices as they took place in their classrooms; thus the settings were natural, and not orchestrated for research purposes (Duff, 2008). Additionally, the data collected were examined and interpreted based on the teachers’ natural teaching performance. Third, this study tried to grasp ‘the meanings and significance of these actions from the perspective of those involved’ (Richards, 2003, p. 10). Fourth, the aim of this research was to develop holistic accounts of the phenomenon under study (Creswell, 2009). Finally, the purpose of the study was to delineate the STs’ beliefs and the adoption of the LCA by STs in their instructional process, employing unlimited rather than pre-determined categories (Richards, 2003).

4.4.2 Case Study

A case study approach was adopted in this research to explore the STs' understanding of the LCA and their classroom practices, since these refer to a particular instance of a complex social phenomena (Gall *et al.*, 2007). Moreover, the aim was to study a single unit of the phenomenon in detail. This made the case study appropriate for this study. The following quotation succinctly summarises the definition of a case study.

[it] is an excellent method for obtaining a thick description of a complex social issue embedded within a cultural context. It offers rich and in-depth insights that no other method can yield, allowing researchers to examine how an intricate set of circumstances come together and interact in shaping the social world around us. (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 155)

Bassey (1999, p. 47) defines the case study as the 'study of a singularity conducted in depth in natural settings'. According to Gall *et al.* (2007, p. 447), a case study is 'the in-depth study of ... one or more instances of a phenomenon ... in its real-life context that ... reflects the perspective of the participants involved in the phenomenon'. Likewise, (Yin, 1989, p. 23) states that a case study is an empirical inquiry that:

- investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context; when
- the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident; and in which
- multiple sources of evidence are used.

This definition establishes the characteristics of the case study. These include: an investigation of a phenomenon in a real-life context, an in-depth study, no clear boundaries between phenomenon and context, along with the use of multiple sources of data. It should be noted that a case study is undertaken to provide a holistic understanding of the phenomenon studied (van Lier, 2005).

In light of the features of case studies mentioned above, the justification for the use of a case study approach in this research is that it would allow an in-depth study to be made of a small number of participants in order to unravel the complexities of the case under investigation (six STs' beliefs about the LCA in natural settings) (Gillham, 2000) and would yield the particularities of the case. Additionally, the present study is the exploration of particular events which needed to be studied in the context in which they occurred (Robson, 2002), and was conducted in a real-life context (in secondary school classrooms) which is dynamic and information-rich, to obtain a true depiction of the investigated issues. Thus, the STs' classroom practices were examined through direct observation of the participants in their normal classrooms. The data for this study were drawn from multiple data sources: namely semi-structured interviews, classroom observations and documentary analysis, in order to explore the relationships and processes taking place within the chosen setting (Denscombe, 2010).

An additional motive for the choice of this approach was that it allowed me 'to understand complex social phenomena' (Yin, 2009, p. 4). In addition to this, a deeper understanding of the case can be obtained, as it explores the particularities of the case (Stake, 1995) which might not be captured through other methods, such as survey and experimental research. Furthermore, the examination of the data was conducted within the context from which they were obtained. Stake (1994) asserts that boundedness, uniqueness and specificity are key factors in understanding the case.

Following Yin (2003), this study may be described as a descriptive case study, as it sought to describe the understanding of the LCA and the classroom practices of six STs as they occurred (Zainal, 2007). The intention in this study was not to generalise, as it is context- and subject-specific. A descriptive case study is one of three types of case study identified by Yin (2003, p. 5). It is ‘a complete description of a phenomenon within its context’; additionally, a case study can be either exploratory - aiming to define the ‘questions and hypotheses of a subsequent study (not necessarily a case study) or at determining the feasibility of the desired research procedures’, or explanatory - ‘bearing on cause-effect relationships – explaining how events happened’.

The main drawback of a case study is its incapacity to provide a generalised conclusion and, in addition, it may lack rigour. The presence of the researcher whilst collecting the data is likely to cause some observer effect (Denscombe, 2010).

The methodological framework of this study is illustrated in Figure 4.1.

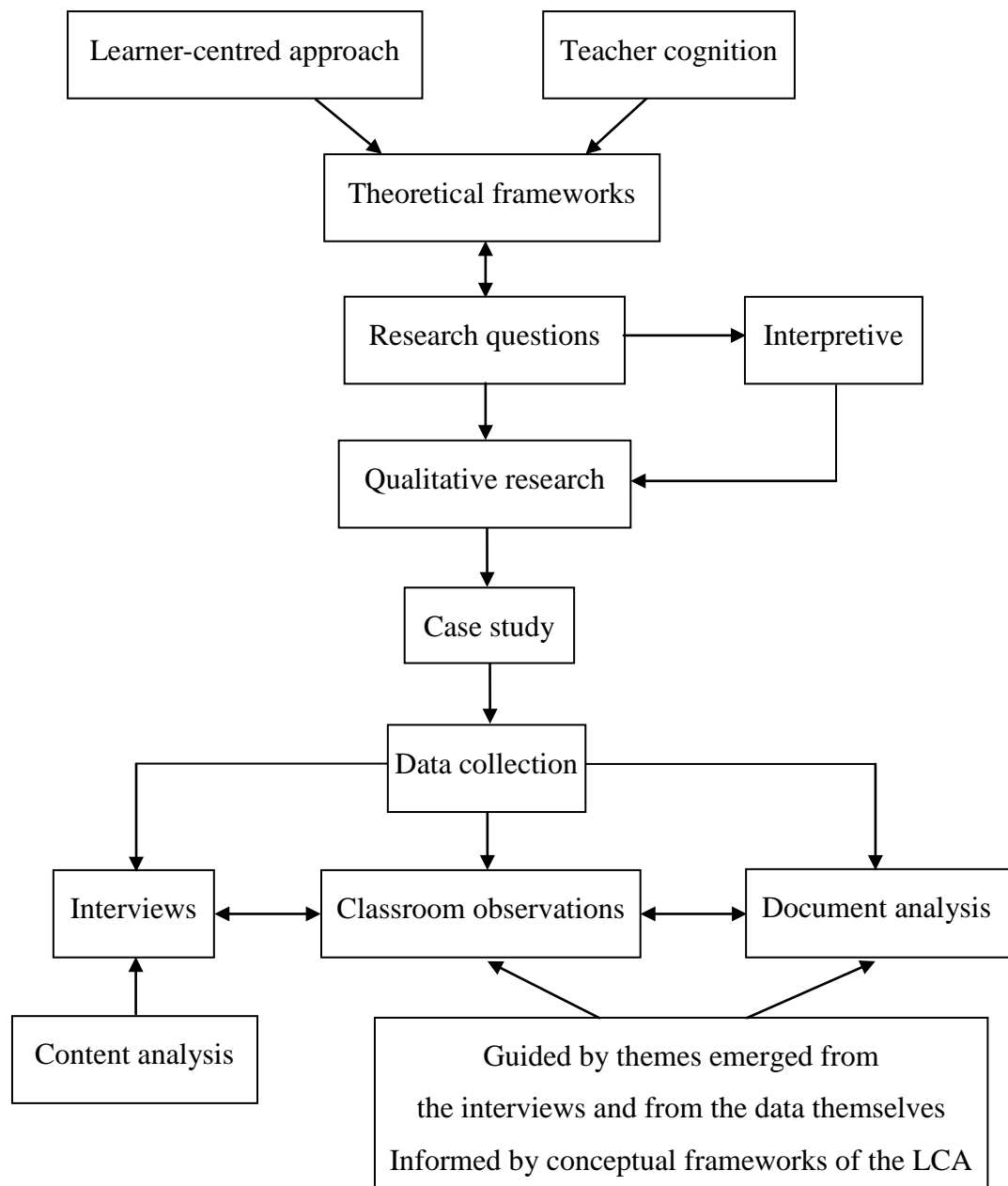


Figure 4.1 Methodological framework

As can be seen from Figure 4.1, the LCA and teacher cognition were the theoretical and analytic framework of the study. A case study approach was adopted and the data were obtained from semi-structured interviews, classroom observation and document

analysis. Content analysis was employed to analyse the interview data, whereas data from the other two sources were analysed using themes that emerged from the interviews, as well as from the data themselves and the conceptual frameworks of the LCA. The findings from these three different data sources were triangulated.

4.5 Research Context

This section presents some background information on the Rajabhat university and the teacher education programme in which the present study was undertaken.

4.5.1 Rajabhat University

The Rajabhat university was formerly known as a teacher training college. The first teacher training school in Thailand was established in Bangkok in 1892 to train primary and secondary school teachers. Later, teacher training schools were established in other provincial areas. By 1928, twenty-five teacher training schools had been established in Thailand, offering a primary and a secondary teaching certificate. Following this, in 1954, a Teacher Education Department, which was under the Ministry of Education (MOE), was established to train teachers for primary and secondary schools throughout the country. In the past, teacher colleges offered a two-year Lower Certificate in Education for those who had graduated from junior high school, and a two-year High Certificate in Education, for those who had finished senior high school (Boonkoun, 2004). After the Teacher's College Act was

promulgated in 1975, all thirty-six teachers' colleges began to offer a bachelor's degree in education, and undergraduate programmes in other areas from 1984.

In 1992, the thirty-six teachers' colleges in Thailand were named 'Rajabhat institutes' by King Bhumibol Adulayadej, and in 2004, the Rajabhat institutes were upgraded to Rajabhat universities. At present, there are forty Rajabhat universities throughout the country. Six are located in Bangkok and thirty-four are located in four different parts of the country. Today, some Rajabhat universities offer master's and doctoral programmes, and in addition, each Rajabhat university has its own curriculum.

4.5.2 Teacher Education Programme

The Faculty of Education at Rajabhat universities offers a bachelor's degree of education in various majors such as English, mathematics, Thai, sciences and physical education. The main function of this faculty is to prepare teacher candidates to become teachers in primary and secondary schools. It aims to prepare knowledgeable, capable and qualified teachers who embody morality and professional ethics under the conditions of the National Education Act B.E. 2542 (1999) and the Amendments (Second National Education Act B.E 2545 (2002)). Examples of the objectives encompassed in this programme include: 1) being a competent teacher and reaching the professional teacher standard; 2) being knowledgeable and capable in their own speciality, and 3) being eager to learn, being enthusiastic about seeking knowledge to develop themselves continuously, as well as applying the knowledge to teach efficiently (for more detail see Appendix D).

The five-year teacher education programme was initiated in 2004 as a result of the 1999 National Education Act, educational quality problems (Chanbanchong, 2010), and the educational reform taking place in Thailand. The ultimate goal of this programme is to improve the process of teacher preparation in Thailand, as well as to enhance the quality of teachers, which is one of problems that the country has been encountering. This new model of pre-service teacher training aims to prepare teachers to be ‘capable of implementing the new approaches to teaching and learning’ (Pillay, 2002a, p. 21). Some alterations were made, for example to the programme duration (from four years to five years), to the length of internship (from one semester to one academic year at schools), and introducing a subject-based instead of a module-based programme. This new five-year BEd programme encompasses various subjects which are worth 2-3 credits, while the four-year programme is made up of various modules which are worth 5 credits. Each module is the integration of two subjects.

The five-year teacher education programme is the combination of coursework and fieldwork. The teacher education curriculum at the Rajabhat university where the research participants were selected can be broken down into three major areas: general education, professional teacher training, together with elective courses (for more detail see Appendix D). A summary of the three major areas in the curriculum is presented in Figure 4.2 (the number in brackets refers to the total number of credits).

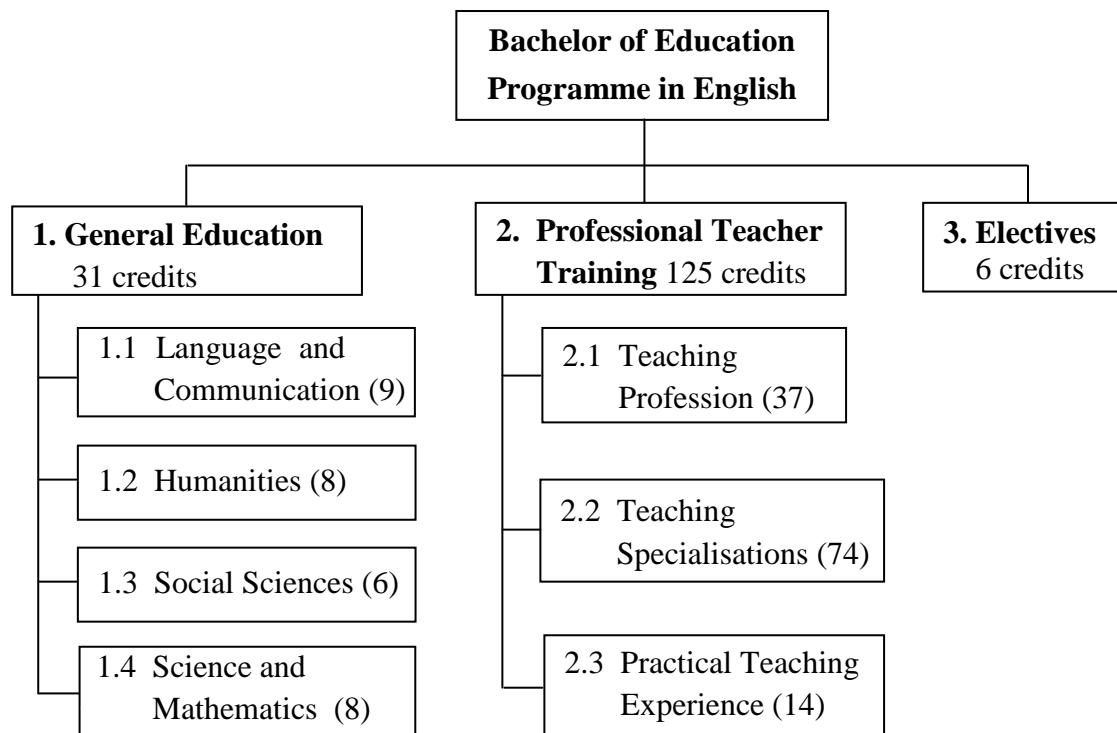


Figure 4.2 The teacher education curriculum

Both practical teaching experience and teachers' professional courses in the curriculum are taught by lecturers in the Faculty of Education, while all specialised courses are taught by lecturers from the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences.

In the curriculum, under teaching specialisations (see Appendix D), two courses, namely Methods of Teaching English Language 1 and 2, are offered to prepare STs to teach English. These courses include micro teaching and peer teaching. Prior to doing their internship, STs will complete three teaching practicums (see Appendix D) at schools.

The primary objective of all three practicums in teacher education programmes is to prepare teacher candidates for their internship. These courses include attending a class at a university, one-week fieldwork at schools, and a seminar after the fieldwork. In Practicum 1, STs are assigned to observe lessons at a university and in schools. During their fieldwork, they observe how teachers at schools work. In Practicums 2 and 3, they learn how to plan a lesson, write a lesson plan, do micro teaching, and then practise teaching primary (in Practicum 2) and secondary students (in Practicum 3) for 6 periods (about 50-60 minutes per period). They conduct Practicum 1 during the second semester of their third year, and the remainder in their fourth year.

During the internship, STs work as full-time teachers for one academic year at schools. They do their internship during the second semester of their fourth year and the first semester of their fifth year, totalling 900 hours.

4.6 Research Participants

The main purpose of this study was not to generalise information gleaned from the research, but to understand STs' beliefs and their teaching practices, together with obtaining insights into this complex phenomenon (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). To achieve these aims, purposive sampling techniques or qualitative sampling (Teddlie and Yu, 2007), namely criterion sampling, were employed. These techniques were chosen because: 1) all participants were selected on the basis of predetermined criteria (Patton, 1990); 2) they provided me with an opportunity to select 'the

information-rich cases for study in depth' (Patton, 1990, p. 169), and 3) participants were selected with 'a specific purpose, rather than randomly' (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003, p. 713).

The participants in the study were year five STs, whose major was English and who were studying at the Rajabhat university in the north of Thailand. In the academic year (2010), there were 30 STs in this cohort. Six taught primary students, six taught primary and lower secondary students, and eighteen taught lower secondary students. Out of these eighteen, six were selected for the study, without any preference given to their background, gender or academic results, but based purely on the following criteria:

- 1) Willingness to participate in this study.
- 2) Teaching English at the lower secondary level (Matayomsuksa 1-3: Grades 7 - 9). The rationales for choosing this level were: 1) this level is deemed to be one of the backbones of the curriculum, and 2) STs who teach this level are always under the supervision of cooperating teachers who specialise in English.
- 3) Under the supervision of cooperating teachers specialising in English, as English language teaching methodology differs from that involved in the teaching of other subjects. '[The] content and [the] process are one' (Borg, 2006a, p. 13). In addition, teaching English involves teaching culture, communication skills, learning skills, together with all relevant knowledge of life. The teaching methods, activities and materials also make English language teaching different from the teaching of other subjects. The characteristics of this discipline make teachers of English as a

foreign language (EFL) unique. In foreign language teaching, ‘the medium is the message’ (Hammadou and Bernhardt, 1987, p. 301).

4) Permission from their cooperating teachers and their university supervisors to participate in this study.

5) Permission from the directors of schools for me to collect the data.

Table 4.2 presents information about the schools and grades taught by each ST.

Table 4.2 Participants in the study

Student teacher	Gender	School	School level	Type of school	Administered by	Grade
1	Female	1	Secondary school	State	SESA ²	M. 3 (Grade 9)
2	Female	1	Secondary school	State	SESA	M. 1 (Grade 7)
3	Female	2	Secondary school	State	SESA	M. 2 (Grade 8)
4	Male	3	Secondary school	State	SESA	M. 3 (Grade 9)
5	Female	4	Primary and secondary school	State	City Municipality	M. 2 (Grade 8)
6	Female	4	Primary and secondary school	State	City Municipality	M. 1 (Grade 7)

² SESA is the Secondary Educational Service Area Office. It is a Thai agency in the Office of the Basic Education Commission of Thailand (OBEC), the Ministry of Education (MOE). Its main responsibility is the administration of secondary education in each provincial area. There are 42 offices, which are located in different parts of Thailand and were founded in 2009.

All pupils the participants taught were lower secondary students and their age range was 13-15.

Six STs (five females and one male) did their internship in four different public schools. They were placed to work at their schools on 1 November 2009 (the second semester³ of their fourth year). It is compulsory to practise teaching at schools for two semesters⁴ (equivalent to one academic year). They were observed during the second semester of their internship. By that time, they should have completed one semester of English teaching practice in the same school. After their internship, they go back to study at the university for one more semester before graduation.

These four public schools are all in urban areas, though managed by different educational authorities. Schools 1, 2, and 3 are secondary schools under the Secondary Educational Service Area Office (SESA), and offer the lower (Matayomsuksa 1-3: Grades 7-9) and upper (Matayomsuksa 4-6: Grades 10-12) secondary levels. School 4 is under a city municipality which offers pre-school kindergarten (Anuban), primary and secondary levels (Grade 1-Grade 12). There are two classes in all the levels except upper secondary levels, where there is only one class in each level. The following table summarises the school descriptions.

³ The first semester at a university is from the beginning of June until September, while the second semester runs from November to February.

⁴ The first semester at secondary schools starts in mid-May and lasts to the end of September or mid-October, while the second semester starts in November and ends in March.

Table 4.3 School descriptions

School	Number on roll	Age range of students	Number of classes	Teachers and staff
1	1,950	13-18	46	77
2	680	13-18	20	40
3	880	13-18	27	59
4	860	4-18	25	47

Six lower secondary English as a foreign language (EFL) classes, from four different schools, were taught by six STs. Each class was observed three times, resulting in a total of 18 observation visits in September and October 2010. These eighteen lessons were made up of six lessons from each of the three lower secondary levels (Grades 7-9). The duration of lessons at each school varied (approximately 40-60 minutes for each lesson). There were about 30 to 35 students in each class, of mixed gender and ability. The students had been studying English for 6-8 years.

All the STs were required to wear university uniforms during their internship. Females wore white short-sleeved blouses, plain or pleated black skirts and black court shoes. Buttons must be made of metal, with a university emblem. They also pinned a tiny silver university emblem badge on their left chest and wore silver tie tacks (with a university emblem) on their left top collar. The male ST wore a white shirt or long-sleeved shirt and long black trousers with a green tie (with a university logo).

4.7 Data Collection

In order to obtain data appropriate for answering the research questions, this study adopted multiple methods of data collection: namely, semi-structured interviews, non-participant observation and document analysis. The choice of data collection methods and the questions posed in this study followed established approaches. The justification for each data collection method will be discussed in the subsequent sections. The main stages of data collection for this study are illustrated in Figure 4.3.

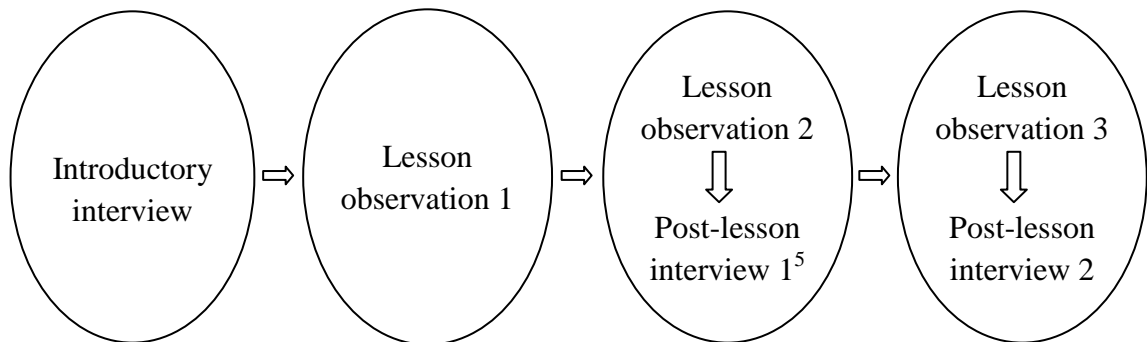


Figure 4.3 Data collection procedure

Details of the data gathered from each of the data collection methods are presented in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4 Overview of data collected

Data collection method	Data collected	Description
Introductory interviews	- 6 hours of audio recordings	6 one-to-one semi-structured interviews with

⁵ Reasons for the delayed interview are given on page 124.

Table 4.4 (Continued)

Data Collection method	Data collected	Description
	- School profile - Student profile - Course documents	STs
Classroom observation	- About 15 hours of video-recorded lessons	18 lessons observed, 3 lessons per ST
Post-lesson interviews	12 hours of audio recordings	12 one-to-one semi-structured interviews
Documentary Data	- Lesson plans - Photocopies of all worksheets used by the STs - Photocopies of the textbook units used - School curriculum - Basic Education Core Curriculum B.E. 2551 (A.D. 2008) - Curriculum of the teacher education programme at the university.	

4.7.1 Semi-Structured Interviews

Rationale

Semi-structured interviews were employed in the present study to gain access to the STs' understanding of the LCA, and in order to obtain insightful accounts of the STs' thought processes and practices, as the phenomenon under investigation was complex and subtle (Denscombe, 2010). Semi-structured interviews have been used widely as a data collection strategy for more than two decades to discover, as well as to study, the 'unobservable psychological context of language teaching' (Borg, 2006b, p. 279). Additionally, they would enable the STs to account for what they thought, knew, believed (Borg, 2003) and did concerning the LCA. Open-ended questions used in semi-structured interviews can elicit more qualitative information-rich data. In essence, this strategy was utilised to ensure the fidelity of the accounts of practice and the STs' rationale. It 'allows prominence to be given to the voice of teachers, rather than that of the researchers' (Mangubhai *et al.*, 2004, p. 294).

Semi-structured interviews are a fairly flexible kind of interview, since they are organised according to a list of topics or a loosely defined series of questions. The interviewee is encouraged to talk about given themes freely (Borg, 2006b). In this study, semi-structured interviews were deemed to be more appropriate than structured or non-structured interviews, owing to the interpretive research paradigm adopted, the methodological principles, and the aims of the study. The reasons for the choice of this data collection method are presented in Box 4.1.

Box 4.1 Reasons for employing semi-structured interviews

- The interviewer is able to probe and expand to uncover more information, Whilst the respondents have an opportunity to give more details and information about certain interesting topics (Genesee and Upshur, 1996) which could not be reached by other data collection methods (Seliger and Shohamy, 1989; Wellington, 2000).
- There are more opportunities to obtain more in-depth information along with giving insight into the phenomenon.
- They are deemed to be powerful ways to understand human beings (Fontana and Frey, 1994), as well as allowing a researcher to investigate 'subjects' private and public lives' (Kvale, 2006, p. 480).
- They would 'assist a teacher, inexperienced in articulating the bases for his/her teaching to disclose important aspects of his/her practical theories [beliefs]' (Mangubhai *et al.*, 2004, p. 294).
- Not only tacit and unobservable aspects of STs' lives, but also their thinking can be explored (Rossman and Rallis, 2003; Borg, 2006b).
- Semi-structured interviews are a more appropriate means to gain access to STs' beliefs than questionnaires (Borg, 2006b).
- A rapport established with STs during the interviews helps bring out detailed accounts of STs' beliefs.

However, interviews have some limitations and weaknesses, as Kvale and Brinkmann (2009, p. 1) warn: it 'seems so simple to interview, but it is hard to do well'. For example, the quality of interview data depends upon the interviewer's interview skills and expertise. Moreover, transcribing and analysing interview data is time-consuming. It seems clear that the plausibility of interview data depends mainly upon

the interviewee's willingness to divulge information. Furthermore, the interviewee may give the information the interviewer wants to hear (Yin, 2009). Setting up and conducting interviews is also time-consuming.

With regard to designing the interview, Kvale suggests that, 'the qualitative research interview is theme oriented' (Kvale, 1996, p. 29). The main themes of the interviews in this study were generated from the research questions, the conceptual framework, the related literature, in addition to classroom observations. The interview guide (see Appendixes E, G and I) covered the following themes:

1. STs' views and understanding about the LCA
2. Characteristics of LC teaching practices
3. The account of their practice
4. The way they were prepared to adopt the LCA whilst they were studying at the university
5. Help and support obtained from cooperating teachers and university supervisors to put a LCA into practice during their internship
6. Problems they encountered when they adopted the LCA

A loosely prepared set of questions, topics or themes and prompts were prepared in advance, to interview all the participants (see Appendix E for the introductory interviews, and Appendixes G and I for the first and second post-lesson interviews). However, a list of questions in the interview guide was also used as a guide to explore all interesting issues. Questions arising from the actual discussion were also further explored. As a consequence, the wording, as well as the sequence of questions, did

not need to be the same. Some questions needed various prompts to try to elicit more information (such as, can you tell me more about that?), but this depended on the interviewee's responses.

Piloting

To enhance the reliability of the interviews, a pilot study was carried out. It aimed:

- To ensure that the interview guide yielded unbiased data (Gall *et al.*, 2007),
- To check the clarity of questions,
- To check whether the interviews ran well (Bryman, 2008),
- To test the quality of the recording equipment and audio-recordings, and
- To practise my interview skills, such as questioning, probing and prompting.

The piloting of the questions to be asked in the interviews and of the interviews as a research tool was undertaken at a public school which is one of the educational opportunity extension schools under OBEC in the north of Thailand. Official permission for the use of the school was required from the school's director. This school offers nursery levels to M. 3 (Grade 9) and there is only one class in each level. The class sizes are not too big, 20-25 students in each class, and there are fewer than 300 students at this school. Two English major STs were doing their internship at this school. One taught grade 7 and the other taught grade 9.

Permission to carry out the pilot study was sought during July 2010 by handing in a letter of request for the director of the school. Unfortunately, the director was not at the school, and the letter was thus handed to an official. With the STs' assistance, I

had a chance to meet a cooperating teacher to introduce myself and explain the purposes and all the procedures of this pilot study. I asked the cooperating teacher about the possibility of getting permission. She offered to help arrange an appointment with the director, and a week later she informed me that the permission to conduct a pilot study had been granted without my having had the opportunity to meet the director, owing to his busy schedule. An appointment with the two STs was then arranged.

At the first meeting, I collected their teaching timetables and contact details, and set a schedule for introductory and post-lesson interviews, together with classroom observations. In this meeting, the purposes and procedures of the pilot study and the rationale for conducting a pilot study were explained to the STs. They were also informed about what would be required of them in order to participate, including the amount of time they would have to spend, and assured of the confidentiality and anonymity of all information they gave. I made every effort to clarify any issues which may have caused any misunderstanding or misinterpretation. After I had explained the procedures, they were asked whether they were willing to participate in the study.

The pilot study was thus carried out with two STs not associated with the main study. One-hour introductory interviews were conducted with each ST in Thai, as it was preferred and convenient for them. These interviews took place in the school canteen. The introductory interviews were conducted before the first classroom observations, while the first post-lesson interviews were carried out as soon as possible after the

first classroom observations but before the second classroom observations (lasting about an hour). Each ST was interviewed individually in order to avoid the production of prepared answers.

After piloting, some questions were revised to make the meaning easier to understand, whilst some questions were added and some deleted. Additionally, the sequence of questions was also changed. I also learned how to probe, in order to elicit richer data through the interviewees' elaborations.

Procedure

In this study, two kinds of interview: introductory interviews and post-lesson interviews, were conducted for different reasons (all reasons are given in the sections on the introductory and post-lesson interviews which follow). Prior to interviewing, all the essential information relating to this study, such as the purposes of the study, the rationale behind the interviews, the length of an interview, and assurance of the anonymity as well as the confidentiality of their responses was given (Wellington, 2000). With the permission of the STs, each interview was audio-recorded using a digital voice recorder. The recordings were later transcribed, analysed and interpreted.

The interviews were arranged in advance, and the STs chose when and where they would like to be interviewed. This helped create a relaxed atmosphere. The interviewing atmosphere was non-threatening, owing to a good rapport between interviewer and interviewees, which was developed during my observations of the

STs classes, as well as through the reassurance that their responses would be kept completely confidential.

Prior to commencing the interviews, all participants were informed that their genuine views were very important to this study. Moreover, the STs were assured that their academic grades would not be affected by their views.

Each interview lasted approximately one hour. They took place in a classroom or a school meeting room. The interviews were conducted in Thai, since this was the language preferred by the STs. All of the STs felt that they would be able to express their thoughts, feelings and ideas better in Thai.

Introductory Interviews

A review of the literature on teacher cognition suggested that teachers' experiences as learners and their learning experience on a teacher training programme had an impact on the development of their beliefs about teaching and learning. Thus, the purpose of the introductory interviews with each of the STs was to obtain background information about their prior experience as a language learner and their learning experience on a teacher training programme. The following information was also gathered: firstly, background information on the class they taught. This included the grade, as well as the course they taught, the curriculum, and course documents. Furthermore, background information about their students, final examination schedules, together with the total amount of time it took to teach one chapter, was also obtained. Secondly, information was obtained about their schools and their

cooperating teachers, such as their supervision, their policy on the LCA and their school's policy regarding the LCA. Thirdly, information was elicited concerning the university and university supervisors, which included the policy towards the LCA, their supervision, university courses that prepared them for adopting the LCA and their views about the LCA in general. Lastly, they were asked about how they were taught when they were primary and secondary school students. Before conducting the interviews, all the STs signed a consent form, agreeing to participate in this study.

Post-lesson Interviews

Post-lesson interviews were utilised to allow the STs to reflect on and disclose the reasons underlying their classroom practices and to clarify what the STs knew and believed. Through these post-lesson interviews, it was possible to discover why the STs taught in the way they did, and to explore the depth of their understanding concerning the LCA. As discussed in chapter 3, teaching is viewed as the amalgamation of thought and action (Freeman, 1992); understanding the process of the teaching performed by teachers requires an understanding of their cognitive dimension. For these reasons, data from classroom observations alone were insufficient to provide a clear insight into the STs' understanding of the LCA. The post-lesson interviews enabled me to elicit answers related to issues arising from the classroom observations. The post-lesson interviews were thus organised in order: firstly, to 'provide the teachers with the opportunity to verbalize their thoughts about their interactive decision making' (Basturkmen *et al.*, 2004, p. 251); secondly, to gain access to the STs' beliefs and factors underlying their classroom practices; thirdly, to invite the STs to offer comments, as well as reflect on what they were trying to do

during their classroom practices; fourthly, to crosscheck the data obtained from the introductory interviews and classroom observations, and finally, to produce credible findings and interpretations.

To assist the STs in recollecting what they had been doing and thinking at particular moments in their classes, key extracts from their lessons were used as stimuli. Before they were interviewed, they read the extracts to recall what happened at that particular moment in class. Then they were encouraged to reflect on the events, and explain their decisions to use a particular activity and materials in their lessons (Borg, 1998b). I also used the post-lesson interviews to probe particular issues that had emerged from the observations. Although an interview guide was developed in advance, the actual interviews were flexible and responsive to the STs' contributions. During the interviews I listened carefully, and sought clarification or elaboration when necessary (Mangubhai *et al.*, 2004).

I had initially intended to interview the STs after each classroom observation, but this was not possible, since I needed more time to select key episodes, as well as to transcribe. In addition, the STs had teaching commitments (Gatbonton, 1999). The post-lesson interviews were conducted with each ST after observing the second and the third lesson. I tried to keep the gap between classroom observations and the subsequent interviews as short as possible. However, the first post-lesson interviews took place prior to the third classroom observations.

4.7.2 Non-Participant Observations

Rationale

Observations are defined as ‘a procedure for keeping a record of classroom events in such a way that it can later be studied, typically ... for research purposes’ (Allwright, 1988, p. xvi). This method is widely used in qualitative and quantitative research (Ullmann and Geva, 1984; Richards, 2003; Dörnyei, 2007; Bryman, 2008; Cohen *et al.*, 2011).

Observation is versatile and superior to other data collection methods such as questionnaires, as the researcher is able to find evidence of what actually transpires in classrooms (Borg, 2006b). The purposes of using this method in the present study were as follows: 1) to uncover whether fifth-year STs adopted the LCA to teaching during their internship; 2) to gain real insights into STs’ classroom practices relating to the LCA; 3) to ascertain the extent to which STs’ beliefs were aligned with what actually happened in the classroom, rather than to judge or evaluate their teaching practices; 4) to obtain a holistic picture of the STs’ lives in their classrooms, and 5) to describe what actually happens in secondary English classes taught by STs. Moreover, information from classroom observation is more objective and accurate than that obtained from a questionnaire. As Crowl (1996) puts it:

There are numerous forms of behaviour that can best be measured by direct observation rather than by paper-and-pencil tests or by questionnaires. In education, one of the most common forms of behaviour that is best measured by direct observation is behaviour in a classroom setting. (p. 23)

From classroom observation, there is a chance to obtain a rich, thick and in-depth description of the situation under study, as well as detailed information that a teacher would be 'unwilling to talk about in an interview' (Patton, 2002, p. 263). In the interviews, teachers may report only the desired information (ibid.). Occasionally what teachers say they do does not really take place in the classroom. The purpose of the observation in this research was to ascertain whether the STs did what they said they did or behaved in the way they claimed to behave (Bell, 2010).

Borg (2006b) argues that in order to study language teacher cognition, what happens in the classroom is deemed to be crucial, since it assists researchers in 'understanding teachers' professional actions, not what or how they think in isolation of what they do' (Borg, 2003, p. 105). He further contends that 'observation on its own permits inferences about cognitive processes. ... [and it provides] a concrete descriptive basis in relation to what teachers know, think and believe can be examined' (Borg, 2006b, p. 231). Although researchers are able to obtain useful information for further inquiry from reported cognition (stated beliefs) from interviews, observation, which is naturally occurring and directly illustrates teachers' behaviour, is still needed to study language teacher cognition (for more discussion see chapter 3, section 3.6). The observation data also shed light on the teachers' classroom practices relating to the LCA. The classroom observation data could be validated by discussing them with the STs in the post-lesson interviews, and the resulting dataset could then be used to obtain a clearer insight into the STs' beliefs. All these reasons lead to the decision to employ observations.

Box 4.2 illustrates how observations were conducted in the current study.

Box 4.2 Approach to observations

- **Realistic.** All lessons observed were naturally occurring, since all the lessons taught by the STs took place in their usual classrooms with the students they normally taught, and all the materials they used were part of the curriculum they were following.
- **Non-participant.** The observation was non-participant. I sat in the back right-hand corner of the classroom to minimise the risk of distraction or intrusion, and made notes about all aspects that could not be captured by the video recording. I did not take part in the instructional process or interact with either teachers or students (Dörnyei, 2007).
- **Unstructured.** All lessons were observed without using pre-determined categories, such as the categories and sub-categories in the Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) observation scheme (Spada and Fröhlich, 1995) (for more justification for the choice of the mode of data analysis, see section 4.8.2).

It is inevitable that lessons being observed are affected by the presence of the researcher. My presence in all the STs' classrooms might trigger alterations in their normal teaching behaviour. 'An alteration in the normal behavior of a subject under observation, due to the observation itself' (Allwright and Bailey, 1991, p. 71) is called 'reactivity' (ibid.) or 'the observer's paradox' (Labov, 1972). To overcome and minimise this problem, I made the purposes of this study and the data collection procedures clear to all research participants prior to the study. They were also persuaded to teach as normally and as naturally as possible. However, they were not

informed that the interview data were going to be compared to observational data to uncover the relationship between their stated beliefs and their classroom practices until the interviews had been completed (Borg, 2006b). Second, I repeatedly visited their classes so that the STs and their students had become familiar with my presence prior to collecting data for the main study. Additionally, I explained the purposes of my presence to the students. Third, I familiarised the students with all the data collection devices. Fourth, I assured them that this observation was not associated with evaluation and would not affect their grades. Finally, I guaranteed that the data would be kept confidential and anonymous. Both the STs and the students were quite accustomed to having either a cooperating teacher or a university supervisor in their classes. Therefore, they were able to adjust rapidly to my presence.

Procedure

A total of eighteen lessons, made up of three consecutive lessons taught by each of the six STs, were observed. The justifications for observing three consecutive lessons included: 1) to reduce the effects of observation (Wragg, 1999); 2) to increase the reliability of the data collected, and 3) to see the continuity of their lesson in one unit, as the nature of an English lesson can vary from one lesson to the next, depending on the content of the lesson and the teacher's pedagogical goal. A series of lessons is able to offer a better picture of how English is taught than a single one.

Video recordings were made with the STs' permission to increase the descriptive validity (Maxwell, 1992; Robson, 2002) and the reliability of the analysis, since these can be replayed later during the data analysis process. This also helped me

concentrate on what went on in class, without missing important aspects of the lessons. The recording ran non-stop from the beginning until the end of a lesson, and tried to capture what the STs did. To improve the sound quality, a small wireless microphone was worn by the teachers. This was done to reduce my presence in the classroom, so as to have the most minimal impact possible, and not alter the students' behaviour (Seliger and Shohamy, 1989). I went to the classrooms early to set up all the equipment before each lesson started. Table 4.5 below provides an overview of all lessons observed.

Table 4.5 An overview of lessons observed

	Student teacher	Length of the lesson (minutes)
Classroom observation 1	ST1	41
	ST2	33
	ST3	45
	ST4	50
	ST5	55
	ST6	49
Classroom observation 2	ST1	42
	ST2	48
	ST3	51
	ST4	42
	ST5	45
	ST6	43

Table 4.5 (*Continued*)

	Student teacher	Length of the lesson (minutes)
Classroom observation 3	ST1	42
	ST2	49
	ST3	48
	ST4	55
	ST5	50
	ST6	45

All the classes and lessons I observed had been nominated by all the STs with their cooperating teachers' assistance. All observations were scheduled in advance.

In addition to the video recording, questions, as well as issues that arose whilst the observations were being conducted, were entered in an analytical memo during the class and after the observation. During transcribing, viewing and analysing the video-recordings, more questions which needed further discussion emerged, and these were also recorded in the analytic memo, which would be discussed later in the post-lesson interviews.

Piloting

The pilot study of classroom observation was undertaken during the second week of August 2010, which was the second semester of the STs' internship. The rationale for piloting was as follows:

1) To ensure that all the research instruments, namely classroom observations, and semi-structured interviews, would be effective for the main data collection;

2) To assess ‘the feasibility and usefulness of the data ... collection methods and revising them before they are used with the research participant’ (Gass and Mackey, 2007, p. 3);

3) To examine the data-gathering process, in order both to diminish and avoid potential problems, as well as any causes of frustration that might arise before carrying out the main study.

The piloting of classroom observations was undertaken at the same school as the interviews. Two STs were observed a few days after the introductory interviews. The time and dates for classroom observations were set by the STs. Two consecutive lessons were observed (each lesson lasting about one hour) and video-recorded, using a SONY video camera.

Field notes were taken whilst the class was being observed. Field notes are ‘the description of what has been observed’ (Patton, 2002, p. 302). I wrote down everything that I believed was worth noting. Some basic information included the name of the STs, the name of the school, the date and time of the visit, the activities that the ST deployed in that period with a brief description, and the materials used by the ST. This observation assisted me in learning how to take detailed classroom notes whilst the STs were teaching.

This piloting procedure gave me much more useful information and provided me with unprecedented opportunities: 1) to improve my own field note taking skills; 2) to test the capability of a video camera, a wireless microphone, a digital voice recorder, the video recording quality and the sound quality; 3) to develop my skills in using all the equipment; 4) to familiarise myself with the research process; 5) to generate interview schedules from observational data, and 6) to identify some possible practical problems that might arise whilst the class was being recorded. Moreover, it also helped me decide which location was best for the camera, and what should be captured. Before conducting the pilot studies, little was known about the STs' instructional practices and procedures. Piloting gave me a clearer picture of what was going on in the classroom, what a class was like, and how English was taught by the STs.

4.7.3 Documentary Data

Various forms of documentary data were gathered from each ST to obtain additional information about the STs' actual English teaching practices and to increase the credibility of interpretations and findings (Mohamed, 2006). These included the STs' lesson plans, photocopies of all worksheets used by the STs, photocopies of the chapters from the textbooks used in all the lessons observed, the school curriculum, the Basic Education Core Curriculum B.E. 2551 (A.D. 2008), and the curriculum of the teacher education programme at the university.

4.8 Data Analysis

The data collection and analysis in this study were iterative, cyclical and inductive (Borg, 1998b; Duff, 2008), since a later data collection was guided by the analysis of data already collected. Furthermore, the data were analysed concurrently whilst being collected (Kırkgöz, 2008). Data collection, data analysis and data interpretation were iterative, as they took place ‘alongside each other’ (Denscombe, 2010, p. 272). The analytic approach of the current study was inductive, and the data analysis did not begin with prior categories (Duff, 2008).

4.8.1 Semi-Structured Interviews

The interview data were transcribed and analysed in Thai to avoid a considerable amount of translation work (Chen, 2010). The interview data were not analysed using pre-determined categories, but all codes were generated from the data themselves.

Transcribing the Data

Transcribing means ‘transposing the spoken word (from a tape-recording) into a text (transcription)’ (Marshall and Rossman, 2006, p. 110). The audio-recorded interviews were transcribed verbatim. Transcribing was a time-consuming and laborious task, but it was the best way to familiarise myself with the data. Not all the features of talk, such as pauses, intonation, the use of stress and emotional expressions (Richards, 2003; Kvale, 2007) were included in the transcription, as the main aim of transcribing was to represent the meaning of what was said, rather than how they said it. I was well aware that the non-verbal aspects were also crucial in the interviews. Thus, this

broad transcript may not have captured some aspects of the interaction. To ensure that the meaning in the transcripts of the interview data was accurately rendered (Marshall and Rossman, 2006), the transcripts were double-checked by a lecturer from the Foreign Languages Department at the university before returning them to all the STs for verification, prior to analysis. No corrections of the transcripts were required.

The interview transcripts were typed and put into a Word format; additionally, they were divided into six files. Each file consisted of the introductory and two post-lesson interviews. All recurring patterns and other observations were noted down whilst transcribing (Duff, 2008).

Translating the Transcripts

Conducting the semi-structured interviews in the STs' first language (Thai) yielded rich data (Esposito, 2001), since they were able to express their ideas more fluently and confidently (Rossman and Rallis, 2003). Particular extracts from the interviews were translated to support the findings, as well as to make the STs' voices heard.

Translation, according to Esposito (2001, p. 570), is 'the transfer of meaning from a source language ... to a target language (TL) (such as English). She warns that 'failure to accurately portray the intended meaning of the participants' words and actions renders data useless' (p. 570).

The interview transcripts were translated from Thai into English. Translating the transcripts was highly complex, since I had to try to keep the meanings and ideas of

what the ST said in the translation as close to the original data as possible. My ultimate goal was to develop clear and accurate transcripts. Consequently, these translations were ‘meaning-based translations, rather than word-for-word translations’ (ibid., p. 572). To validate the accuracy of my translations, the original Thai interview transcripts were also given to a lecturer at the Foreign Languages Department at my university to be translated into English. Most of my translations were similar to the lecturer’s, with only minor differences found.

Coding the Interview Data

In the current study, the interview data were analysed by focusing on meaning, which involved ‘coding, condensation and interpretation of meaning’ (Kvale, 2007, p. 104). There are several data analysis techniques that may be used to analyse qualitative data. The interview data were analysed using content analysis. Content analysis is ‘the data-reduction process by which the many words of texts are classified into much fewer content categories’ (Weber, 1990, p. 15). Hence, coding data into categories plays a crucial role in a content analysis. However, Gall *et al.* (2007) warn that ‘the categories should be mutually exclusive, such that any bit of communication can be coded by only one category’ (p, 289). It should be noted that analysing qualitative data is a continuous process (Folkestad, 2008).

I began analysing the interview data by reading through the interview transcripts several times. As Marshall and Rossman (2006, p. 158) recommend, ‘reading, rereading and reading through the data once more forces the researcher to become

intimately familiar with those data', and to 'obtain a general sense' (Creswell, 2009, p. 185). Whilst reading, some notes and general thoughts were also recorded.

At the initial stage of data analysis, coding the interview data was done manually, in order to develop codes and categories, together with making some sense of the data. A code is defined as 'a name or label that the researcher gives to a piece of text that contains an idea or a piece of information' (Cohen *et al.*, 2011, p. 559). All codes, themes and categories emerged directly from the data, rather than being pre-determined prior to data collection and analysis (Patton, 1990). Whilst I was developing them, I took steps to enhance the reliability of the codes and categories by asking two colleagues who used to work at my university to recode extracts from the interview data, using the codes I had developed or new codes introduced by them.

Having the research questions in mind, I coded the transcription line by line, and a code was written on the right-hand side of each piece of data. After going through each piece of data, similar information was labelled with the same code. As the interview transcriptions were read again and again, they were marked with codes which best described the transcribed data in question. The words found in the transcribed data were used as codes: for instance, 'activities', 'pair work', and 'group work' (see Appendix J). It was necessary to go through the data several times in order to ensure 'consistency, refinement, modification and exhaustiveness of coding' (Cohen *et al.*, 2011, p. 560).

All codes were grouped into categories, and each category was named. For example, the data from the interviews showed that discrepancies between what the STs said and did in the classroom could be attributed to particular factors. They mentioned several factors, such as the students' low level of English proficiency, the students' differing abilities, student discipline and the teachers' difficulties in handling noise (see Appendix J). These comments were categorised under the same category, 'contextual factors'. This category was further divided into students' and teachers' factors.

After testing the codes and the categories and assessing their validity, all codes and categories were transferred to NVivo 9. NVivo 9 was then utilised not only to analyse the interview data, but also to help group the codes which shared common characteristics (Orafi, 2008). The merits of NVivo 9 were found to be: 1) coded passages under the same codes from all the research participants could be grouped in the same place 'without losing any information about where that text came from' (Gibbs, 2007, p. 106); 2) it was very easy to retrieve coded passages; 3) it helped me to save time translating the entire interview transcripts; 4) merging codes, renaming codes, creating new codes, decoding and recoding the text could be done easily, and 5) the relationship between codes and categories is clearly demonstrated in NVivo through not only parent nodes and children nodes, but also through a visual summary of the data (Weitzman, 2000).

4.8.2 Observation

The observation data were first approached using the themes generated from the interview data in order to ascertain the linkage between what the STs believed and their classroom practices in relation to the LCA. The classroom observation data were also approached with an open mind to allow the data ‘to speak for themselves’ (Li, 2013, p. 179), along with uncovering whether or not their classroom practices were learner-centred. Therefore, the analysis of the video data was also informed by the conceptual frameworks of the LCA.

The deployment of an observation schedule such as COLT (Spada and Fröhlich, 1995) or Flanders’ coding schedule seemed to be inappropriate, as it would not have been able to capture the whole picture or the complexity of classroom life (Delamont and Hamilton, 1976). Additional limitations of COLT are: firstly, it is unable to portray the details or the realities of teachers’ cognitive processes. Secondly, possible meaningful features of verbal interaction in the classroom are neglected, since the focus of COLT is solely on overt observable behaviour. In addition, an observer’s interpretation and analysis is limited by observational categories in an observation scheme. Thirdly, the predetermined categories do not cover all patterns of interaction and furthermore, some patterns of interaction do not match the predetermined categories. Finally, van Lier (1988) criticised this instrument for not taking the ‘participants’ perspectives as the basis for description’ (p. 41). Moreover, ‘classroom study cannot easily be conducted on the basis of one-shot, quick entry and exit observation, but requires considerable familiarity with the setting and intensive immersion in the data’ (ibid., p. 41). Richards (2003) also reminds us that if the

analysis is based on pre-determined categories, then only particular aspects of findings may be shown, and some important things may be missing. It should be noted that it is inevitable that categories were gradually developed, as well as refined, from close examination and re-examination of classroom observation data and the conceptual framework drawn from the literature (Wang, 2007). As a result, the data were analysed qualitatively, by using a combination of themes that emerged from the interviews, and conceptual and emergent categories from the classroom observation data (ibid.).

Video-recordings of the 18 lessons observed were first analysed by breaking them down into different classroom activities, which were the basic unit of analysis of each lesson (see Appendix K for examples), in order to obtain a complete picture of a lesson. A list of activities was made with the help of the observation notes, as well as the STs' lesson plans and the video recordings. In each lesson, greetings, the registration check and informal talk at the beginning of the lesson were excluded from the analysis. Each activity which was related to exercises and tasks that the students did was normally marked by a change in the overall theme or content (Spada and Fröhlich, 1995). The activity was timed, in order to calculate the percentage of time spent on whole-class teaching, pair work, group work and individual work. The exact starting time of each activity was recorded by indicating the exact minute and second, to show the length of time that the respective teacher spent on that activity; for example, the first activity started at 5'35", and the next activity started at 7'45". Thus, the first activity lasted for two minutes and ten seconds. In order to obtain a

clearer picture of what the STs and their students did during each activity, 18 lessons were transformed into narrative descriptions (see Appendix L for examples).

Selections from the video-recordings were transcribed, as well as translated and analysed using discourse analysis. The analysis focused on the interaction between the STs and their students, the STs' actions and the activities (Li, 2012) employed by them. Discourse analysis involves 'the analysis of spoken language as it is used in classrooms among teachers and learners' (Allwright and Bailey, 1991, p. 61). According to Li and Walsh (2011, p. 44), discourse analysis is 'the study of spoken or written texts. Its focus is on words and utterances above the level of sentence and its main aim is to look at the ways in which words and phrase function in context'. The main aim of the analysis in this study was to discover how the STs interacted with their students and to compare their classroom interactions with the interview data (ibid.). Comparing these two different sources of data was a means of shedding some light on the complex relationship between what the STs say they do whilst teaching with 'what they actually do as evidenced in their interactions' (ibid., p. 44). The classroom observational data were employed to triangulate the findings from the interviews. This would allow me to discover whether my understanding of the STs' beliefs could be enhanced by including classroom interaction data.

4.8.3 Documentary Data

In this study, various documents (see section 4.7.3 and Table 4.4) were employed in order to triangulate the data obtained from the two other sources (the semi-structured

interviews and classroom observation), to corroborate, increase and substantiate the findings (Carcary, 2009) derived from the interview and classroom observation data.

The analysis of lesson plans, photocopies of all worksheets used by the STs, and photocopies of the units from the textbooks used in all the lessons observed was guided by the themes that had emerged from the interview and classroom observation data, the themes generated from the data themselves, as well as the conceptual frameworks of the LCA.

The school curriculum and the Basic Education Core Curriculum B.E. 2551 (A.D. 2008) were analysed to discover whether the main principles underlying the Basic Education Core Curriculum, the aims of the curriculum, learning management, the learning process, and the roles of teachers and students were in accord with the LCA.

The curriculum of the teacher education programme at the university where the research participants came from was examined to ascertain the philosophy, together with objectives of the programme and courses that prepared all STs to learn how to teach in a learner-centred way.

4.9 Trustworthiness

The quality of quantitative research is judged in terms of its validity and reliability. Although Cohen *et al.* (2011, p. 179) contend that ‘threats to validity and reliability can never be erased completely’, the quality or value of research depends upon how

valid and reliable it is. Reliability is a *sine qua non* for validity (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Brock-Utne, 1996; Cohen *et al.*, 2011). There are wide variations in definitions of the terms ‘reliability’ and ‘validity’ (for a review of definitions, see Hammersley, 1987; Winter, 2000). Validity means ‘a demonstration that a particular instrument in fact measures what it purports to measure’ (Cohen *et al.*, 2011, p. 179). According to Hammersley (1998, p. 62), validity means ‘the extent to which an account accurately represents the phenomena to which it refers’. Generally speaking, ‘reliability’ refers to the repeatability and consistency of measurement (Hammersley, 1990; 1992; Wiersma, 2000), whereas ‘validity’ is ‘another word for truth’ (Silverman, 2005, p. 210).

The quality criteria for qualitative research have been the subject of much debate, and there is still a lack of consensus on what these should be. Some researchers adopt the same set of criteria for the reliability and validity of quantitative research, which emphasise consistent results, replication and the generalisability of results. Some researchers reject outright quality criteria for quantitative research, and propose alternative terminology to judge the quality of qualitative studies (Rolfe, 2006). Lincoln and Guba (1985) argue that the terms reliability and validity are not appropriate for qualitative inquiry, and therefore they introduced the concept of trustworthiness. Trustworthiness is defined as ‘that quality of an investigation (and its findings) that made it noteworthy to audiences’ (Schwandt, 2001, p. 258). The terms internal and external validity, reliability and objectivity are replaced with credibility, dependability, and confirmability (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Denzin and Lincoln,

1994; Morse *et al.*, 2002; Dörnyei, 2007). In the following sections, I attempt to show how the trustworthiness of the present study was established.

4.9.1 Credibility

Credibility is synonymous with internal validity, and it is ‘one of most important factors in establishing trustworthiness’ (Shenton, 2004, p. 64). It refers to how accurately the study portrays the phenomenon that it is actually intended to portray. Credibility is essential, as it makes qualitative research credible or believable. This study employed a variety of techniques to ensure that it accurately recorded the phenomenon under investigation, such as methodological triangulation, member checking and peer debriefing (for more details see section 4.9.5). Furthermore, it was necessary for the researcher to consider alternative explanations or understandings of the phenomena being studied and to pay attention to negative cases (cases that disconfirm the researcher’s theory).

4.9.2 Transferability

Transferability (generalisability, or external validity) refers to the extent to which the research findings can be generalised or transferred to other settings and contexts (Merriam, 1998). According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), a qualitative researcher is not able to ‘specify the external validity of an inquiry’ (p. 316), but he/she needs to ensure that rich and thick description and sufficient contextual information is provided to permit readers to make judgements about the transferability of findings to their context or setting (Bryman, 2008).

Maxwell (1992; 1996) draws a distinction between internal and external generalisability. Internal generalisability is concerned with the generalisability of conclusions within the group, community or setting studied, whereas external generalisability concerns generalising to other groups, communities or settings that have been studied. He claims that in qualitative inquiry, internal generalisability is more important than external generalisability. External generalisability was not the principal aim of this study, as its main aim was to provide detailed accounts of a phenomenon.

However, Denscombe (2010) claims that *‘the extent to which findings from the case study can be generalized to other examples in the class depends on how far the case study example is similar to others of its type’* (p. 60, original emphasis). This means that readers are able to make inferences about whether or not the findings of the present study can be transferred to their own setting or context, though not to a larger population, since a clear and detailed account of the research context in this study has been provided. The possibility of transferability depends upon the readers or users. The aim of this study is to make a significant contribution to the development of English language teaching and language teacher training programme in Thailand. In addition, it might be possible to apply the findings to a wider context.

4.9.3 Dependability

In qualitative research, the terms ‘dependability’, ‘consistency’ and ‘replicability’ have become synonymous with reliability (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Cohen *et al.*, 2011). Dependability within qualitative traditions is less important than within

quantitative traditions. Brock-Utne (1996, p. 614) claims that dependability is ‘a necessary precondition for attaining validity [credibility]’. However, replication is not easy to achieve in qualitative research, owing to the personal nature of respondents’ accounts and researchers’ subjective interpretations of data (Dörnyei, 2007).

To establish dependability in this study, an explicit account of the research process (e.g., selection of research participants, the data collection methods, data analysis and decision making) has been provided. Furthermore, all the pertinent information has been included. This allows readers or other researchers to see and evaluate this study (Denscombe, 2010). The thorough methodological description provided makes this study transparent and capable of being replicated. Excerpts from the interview data and extracts from the classroom observation data are available for scrutiny by readers. Moreover, the data from two different sources were recorded and transcribed, so that the research procedure can be replicated.

4.9.4 Confirmability

Confirmability is concerned with the degree to which the findings can be confirmed or corroborated by another researcher. The concept of confirmability helps to ‘ensure as far as possible that the work’s findings are the result of the experiences and ideas of the informants, rather than the characteristics and preferences of the researcher’ (Shenton, 2004, p. 72). One of the primary aims of qualitative research is to gain an understanding of phenomena from the viewpoint of the participants being studied (the ‘emic’ perspective), rather than based on the researcher’s assumptions (the ‘etic’ perspective). There are a number of strategies which can be employed to enhance

confirmability, such as listening to the participants' meanings, being aware of your own framework and assumptions, and providing participants with the opportunity to account for their own perspective, by not asking leading, short-answer or closed questions (Maxwell, 1996). To promote confirmability, this study also adopted triangulation (for more details see section 4.9.5) in order to minimise the effect of researcher bias and subjectivity in the interpretation. Moreover, detailed methodological descriptions are provided for readers to scrutinise and to determine whether or not the findings and interpretations are true or biased.

Several strategies were employed to enhance the quality of this study, and these are discussed in the next section.

4.9.5 Strategies Used to Ensure the Quality of the Study

Having examined in detail the concepts of credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability in qualitative research, the following strategies designed to eliminate threats to credibility as well as transferability and to ensure trustworthiness were selected for use in this research:

- A significant method exploited to establish the credibility of this study was that of triangulation. Triangulation refers to the use of multiple sources of data to enhance the rigour of the research (Bryman, 2008; Robson, 2011). The credibility of this study was achieved by collecting data from multiple sources (methodological triangulation), namely semi-structured interviews, classroom observations and documentary data. This assisted in obtaining a clearer picture, as well as observing different aspects of reality and capturing the

complexity of the STs' mental lives. Furthermore, the data collected from these multiple sources helped not only to improve the dependability, but also served to corroborate each other. 'The more the methods contrast with each other, the greater the researcher's confidence' (Cohen *et al.*, 2011, p. 195) in the findings can be. The limitations of one data collection method can be compensated for by another method. Additionally, the effects of possible researcher bias whilst analysing and interpreting data can be reduced through methodological triangulation.

- The second technique deployed to ensure credibility was member checking or member validation (Bryman, 2008), which involved returning transcripts of the interview data to all the participants for rectification and clarification. The accuracy and completeness of the data gathered were maximised by the use of audio recording, video recording, transcribing, translating and analysing. All the eighteen lessons observed were carefully video-recorded, and the interviews were also audio-recorded using a digital voice recorder and then transcribed verbatim; additionally, the transcripts were double-checked by a lecturer from the Foreign Languages Department at my university, prior to being returned to the participants. The translations of interview transcripts, together with episodes of classroom observation data, were also validated by a lecturer from the Foreign Languages Department at my university.
- Debriefing is a process of discussing, analysing some of raw data and assessing the credibility of findings by superiors, colleagues or peers. In this study, various methods were employed to reduce the risk of misinterpretation. During the data analysis process, all interpretations and findings were

discussed with the research supervisor and my colleagues at the university. Valuable feedback and comments were also obtained from participating in conferences, as well as in workshops in the UK, which helped in shaping and confirming my observations and interpretations. This approach assisted me not only in shaping and confirming my observations and interpretations, but also in enhancing the interpretive validity (a valid description of events, behaviour and situations in the settings under study) of the study.

- Peer checking was conducted during the process of developing codes and categories to analyse interview data. A portion of the interview transcripts was sent to two colleagues who used to work at my university to code using codes already developed or new codes introduced by them. Any discrepancies led to a revision of the original codes (Dörnyei, 2007). Peer checking was a very enlightening process.
- During the interviews, all the participants were able to account fully for their own perspectives, since the interviews were conducted in their own language. In addition, whilst they were being interviewed, leading, short-answer, or closed questions were not used. All of these strategies resulted in an enhancement of interpretive validity.
- It is inevitable that the presence of the observer will affect the participants studied and the events being observed. During the first observation, the STs and their students did change their behaviour slightly, although various strategies were exploited to minimise reactivity (see pp. 127-128 for strategies used in this study to reduce reactivity). However, this improved during subsequent observations.

- To ensure the credibility of the present study, both full descriptions of the conduct of the study and a detailed account of the rationale behind the research design and data analysis have been provided (Silverman, 2006).

4.10 Ethical Issues

As the main data for this study were collected from schools which involved the STs and their students, a number of ethical issues needed to be considered. Informed consent (see Appendix A) was obtained from all the participants. Moreover, the participants were informed of all relevant information, such as the purposes and procedures of this study, along with the potential risks, benefits and uncertainties (McKay, 2006).

4.10.1 Gaining Access

To gain access to the schools and obtain permission to conduct research there, a written request, along with a formal letter from the project supervisor from Newcastle University, was sent to one Rajabhat university in Thailand to obtain permission to study this topic on 4 July 2010. After permission from the university had been granted, the Dean of the Faculty of Education was informed about this study. Since the process of gaining access to the university and the Faculty of Education had been successful, the initial contact at the office of the Faculty of Education was made in order to obtain a list of STs (only those specialising in English), the names of the schools where they were doing their internship and their university supervisors. Prior to moving into the schools to begin the data gathering process, it was necessary to

obtain the approval of the directors of the schools. Hence, further permission was needed before gaining access to the classrooms. Another written request and a letter from Newcastle University were needed in order to obtain this permission. The letter of permission was taken by me to every school to obtain permission from the director in July 2010.

The initial meeting with each director lasted about an hour, during which time I introduced myself, and informed him/her both where I normally worked before I left for my studies, and at which school and university I was doing my PhD. I then explained that I was interested in studying the STs' understanding of the LCA and in discovering whether they applied this approach in their teaching during their internship. An explanation of what this study was aiming to achieve and of the process of data collection were also given. At the end of the meeting, I requested their approval after clarifying all the issues relevant to the study.

Once permission from the directors had been obtained, with the STs' assistance, contact was made with all the STs' cooperating teachers in order to obtain their permission to allow the STs to participate in this study, and to explain the purposes of the study, together with the procedures of data collection. Prior to arranging meetings with the STs, further permission from university supervisors had to be sought. Their permission was necessary, since all the STs were under their supervision. This process of negotiating entry took almost three weeks.

4.10.2 Informed Consent

Informed consent is defined as ‘a norm in which subjects base their voluntary participation in research projects on a full understanding of the possible risks involved’ (Babbie, 2004, p. 64), and is comprised of at least three conditions:

1. Participants are fully informed about the purposes, procedures and potential risks, as well as benefits of the study.
2. Participants fully comprehend the informed consent form. Moreover, their concerns and questions are discussed and answered.
3. Participants participate voluntarily, and can withdraw at any stage (Mackey and Gass, 2005).

Thus, all relevant information, such as the purposes of the research, the procedures of data collection, the amount of time that they would have to spend participating in this study, as well as the confidentiality and anonymity of all information in the data reports, was provided in their first language (Thai), in order to ensure that all the STs truly understood what they were going to participate in. Additionally, the data collected would be kept completely confidential, and would be used for research purposes only. After all their related doubts had been assuaged, they were also told that their participation was on a voluntary basis (Mackey and Gass, 2005; McKay, 2006), which meant that they would be able to withdraw their participation at any stage of the study. This information had to be sufficient to assist participants in deciding whether or not to participate.

The STs agreed to participate in this study by signing written informed consent forms (see the form in Appendix A). Prior to signing the informed consent forms, the consent document was explained, orally, in Thai, in the first instance. Then they were asked to read the form, which was translated into Thai to ensure that it was comprehensible to them (McKay, 2006).

4.10.3 Anonymity and Confidentiality

To protect the participants' identity, two techniques, namely confidentiality and anonymity, (Babbie, 2004) were used. 'Anonymity is guaranteed in a research project when neither the researchers nor the readers of the findings can identify a given response with a given respondent' (p. 65), while confidentiality can be guaranteed 'when the researcher can identify a given person's responses but promises not to do so publicly' (p. 66). In order to make the given information unidentifiable, the identities of all the participants, as well as their institutions, were protected by assigning numbers to them. When the participants' realised that their schools and their own identities would remain anonymous, it alleviated their concerns about being observed.

In terms of confidentiality, the data gathered from each participant would not be disclosed, and would be kept strictly confidential. Therefore, all participants were assured that no one would be able to trace anything in the research report back to them personally.

4.11 Summary

The aim of this chapter was to provide information on the rationale behind choosing the interpretive research paradigm and a qualitative research approach and for conducting a descriptive case study. Multiple methods were used to investigate the STs' understanding and classroom practices with regard to the LCA. The process of data analysis, strategies used to enhance the quality of this study and relevant ethical considerations have been discussed. In the next chapter the findings of this study are presented.

Chapter 5. Findings

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter described how the data of this study were collected and analysed. This chapter will present the findings concerning the student teachers' (STs') understanding and classroom practices, with regard to learner-centred (LC) teaching. The data obtained from the semi-structured interviews (introductory and post-lesson interviews), classroom observations, and written documents, such as lesson plans, observation notes and the worksheets used by the STs in their lessons, are used to answer the research questions of the study.

The findings relating to the STs' understanding of the learner-centred approach (LCA) (stated/professed beliefs) were drawn from the interviews, while the data from classroom observations were employed to uncover their classroom practices (enacted/attributed beliefs). However, in presenting the findings, the data from various sources have been merged. The original data, which are transcripts of the interviews and teaching episodes, are employed to illuminate themes emerging from the interviews and the classroom observations, to serve as evidence to support all claims made, to permit readers to examine the data, to allow the STs' voices to be heard, and to validate the findings and conclusions.

The presentation of the data in this chapter is organised with reference to the research questions of this study. It is preceded by the presentation of a brief profile of the STs

(section 5.2). The findings will be presented in two main sections. The aim in section 5.3 is to answer the first and second research questions ‘What is the Thai STs’ understanding of the LCA?’ and ‘To what extent did STs apply the LCA to teaching, during their internship?’ The findings in this section are based on five themes generated from the interview data, in order to ascertain the STs’ understanding of the LCA. These themes are then used to examine the classroom observation data, in order to uncover the STs’ classroom practices and to find evidence of either convergence or divergence between their stated beliefs and their classroom practices. This evidence is then used to answer the third research question ‘What is the relationship between their understanding and their classroom practices, with regard to the LCA?’ In section 5.4 the congruity and incongruity between the STs’ beliefs and their classroom practices is summarised. This section also highlights the differences between their understanding and the characteristics of LC teaching practices and the extent to which their classroom practices reflect LC teaching practices.

5.2 Profile of Student-Teachers

5.2.1 Prior Language Learning Experience

The way the teachers approached their teaching seems to have been influenced by the way they were taught (see section 3.4). All the STs learned English at primary and secondary schools through grammar-translation methods and in a very teacher-centred (TC) manner, which they disliked, since most of their time spent in the class was merely a listening exercise. They found that they knew grammatical rules, but

they were unable to communicate in English. Their English classes at school were conducted mainly in Thai.

5.2.2 Teacher Education Background

During the introductory interview, all the STs claimed that their training at the university was more teacher-centred than learner-centred, which all of them viewed negatively. In the following excerpt, ST5 describes her training on the teacher education programme:

Excerpt 1⁶

- 1 R⁷: How were you taught at the university?
 2 ST5: More teacher-centred. I mean most of the lecturers gave a
 3 lecture, and my role was to listen and take notes, which I did
 4 not like. I dislike listening and taking notes. I like to learn by
 5 doing. Listening for the whole period was boring and I would
 6 feel sleepy. I like studying English, since I think the lecturers
 7 in the Foreign Languages Department adopt the LCA when
 8 they teach.
 9 R: When you say your lecturer adopts the LCA, what is his/her
 10 teaching like?
 11 ST5: The lecturer doesn't talk much, but he lets us learn by doing.
 12 For example, he gives us a story and we work in pairs in order
 13 to read and understand the story. Then we share our
 14 understanding with the pair next to us. After that, we present
 15 our story to the class.

(ST5, 20 September, 2010, InI⁸)

All the STs confirmed that they were taught about the LCA whilst they were studying at the university. They all mentioned two courses, 'Principles of learning management' and 'English language learning based on learner', that taught them

⁶ Data were gathered in Thai and translated into English by me, and then validated by a lecturer from the Foreign Languages Department at my university.

⁷ R refers to the researcher.

⁸ InI refers to introductory interviews.

about the LCA, and furthermore, all of them agreed that the way these courses were delivered was learner-centred.

5.3 Student Teachers' Understanding and Classroom Practices in Relation to the Learner-Centred Approach

The purpose of this section is to present the findings on the STs' understanding and classroom practices in relation to the LCA. A detailed account of the STs' stated beliefs about the LCA is provided. The presentation in this section is organised according to themes generated from the interviews, in order to compare the stated beliefs of the STs as expressed in their interviews with their classroom practices as revealed by the classroom observation data. However, the classroom observation data were analysed using not only themes that emerged from the interview data, but also themes that emerged from data collected from the observations themselves. This procedure allowed me to discover how the STs applied what they believed in their actual classroom practices, and to compare this with what they said they did in the classroom. Video-recordings of their lessons were transcribed, paying close attention to the teacher, classroom interaction and classroom activities. It should be noted that the interviews were conducted in Thai. The intention in this section is to shed some light on what the STs believe and what they actually do in their classrooms and to offer some insights into a highly complex relationship between the STs' stated/professed and enacted/attributed beliefs (Speer, 2005). Interview excerpts which are not attributed were taken from the first post-lesson interviews.

The STs' descriptions of what the LCA is were quite broad, varied and fragmented. Table 5.1 presents some of the features that constitute the tenets of the LCA, as stated by each ST during the interviews.

Table 5.1 Student teachers' understanding of the learner-centred approach

Student teachers' understanding of the LCA	N	%	ST 1	ST 2	ST 3	ST 4	ST 5	ST 6
1. Use of pair or group work	6	100.00	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
2. Doing activities	6	100.00	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
3. Student involvement	4	66.67	✓	X	✓	✓	X	✓
4. Teacher roles	4	66.67	✓	✓	✓	O	O	✓
5. Student roles	3	50.00	O	✓	✓	O	O	✓

KEY: ✓ = stated X = not stated O = partially reflected part of features of the LCA

It is apparent from this table that using pair or group work and doing activities are elements that all the STs regarded as part of the LCA. The majority of the STs also held the view that learner-centredness equated to the involvement of students and multiple roles played by the teacher and students. This shows that the STs' understanding of the principles and practices of the LCA are superficial. ST4's and ST5's understanding of the LCA seems to be limited, as their stated beliefs reflect only a few of the features of the LCA.

The interview data revealed that each ST was able to describe some aspects of LC teaching practices, though none of them could explain all the characteristics of LC teaching practices. The following extracts are typical answers to the question ‘What does the LCA mean to you?’ These answers appear to cover most of the features of the LCA.

Excerpt 2⁹

I’m not quite sure what it really means. I think LCA means that students cooperate with the teacher. They participate in the process of learning. They have to do something. They don’t just sit and listen to the teacher. They may work in groups or in pairs to share their ideas with their friends. They might be able to choose topics that they want to study by themselves. They have the right to choose. They should also have the right to express their opinions. Sometimes in the class, they either learn by themselves or they study on their own instead of listening to the teacher all the time. (*ST6, 1 October 2010*)

Excerpt 3

I will explain the meaning of LCA according to my understanding that I gained from coursework that I took. According to my understanding, LCA does not mean that the teacher tells students everything, or the teacher only teaches students. Students should learn how to think, and try to do something by themselves. Instead of telling students everything, students should read by themselves first, and try to understand. If they do not understand, they can ask for some help from the teacher ... I think I sometimes implement the LCA by using some activities as well as different kinds of materials such as word cards, pictures, worksheets, handouts, soundtrack movies, English songs, and CDs to make my students interested. (*ST3, 27 September 2010*)

The excerpts above shed some light on the STs’ understanding of the LCA and reveal some similarities and differences in notions of the LCA between these two STs. The

⁹ Data were gathered in Thai and translated into English by me and validated by a lecturer from the Foreign Languages Department at my university.

core aspects of the LCA mentioned by these two STs include the fact that students have choices in their learning ('They have the right to choose' (ST6)), and the fact that students are actively involved in the process of learning ('participate in the process of learning' (ST6)). Both clearly emphasise the significance of the incorporation of group and pair work into their lessons. The LCA learning environment is 'a highly social enterprise' (Napoli, 2004, p. 3), as 'learning is recognised as an active dynamic process' (ibid., p. 3). Moreover, learning is enhanced when the learning environments are not only collaborative but also supportive (Barr and Tagg, 1995). Students are not only recipients of knowledge, but they become active by 'doing something, sharing their ideas, and expressing their opinions' (ST3 and ST6).

Employing activities and different kinds of teaching material to motivate students, as well as to stimulate their interest, was regarded by the STs as another characteristic of LC teaching practices.

5.3.1 Use of Pair or Group Work

Pair and group work seem to be used as a symbol or an indicator of the LCA. All the STs believed that pair and group work is one of the key features of the LCA. When they were asked, 'What does the LCA mean to you?', they immediately made a strong connection between the LCA and pair or group work. ST4 explained, 'in a LC classroom, students work in groups, in pairs, or in teams' (ST4, 28 September, 2010). Most of them emphasised the fact that students derived great benefit from working in pairs or groups. Working in pairs or groups, students are able to 'share their ideas

with the groups, brainstorm ideas, as well as think together' (ST6, 14 October 2010, PLI 2¹⁰). Students should be given more opportunities to work together because 'working in groups maximises their interaction and communication' (ST5, 6 October 2010). Another advantage of working in groups is that 'students learn to help one another', ST3 added (ST3, 29 September, 2010, PLI 2). ST2 explained her reasons for valuing pair work as follows:

Excerpt 4

Pair work gives students opportunities to learn from each other ... The one who knows is able to teach the one who does not know. They teach and help one another. It makes them feel proud. Additionally, not only their own understanding is improved, but also that of their friends ... Instead of doing things alone, as well as only listening to me, they listen to their friends; they interact with their classmates and their friends help them learn ... I think they work better in pairs or groups, as they have a good chance to share their ideas, ... practise working together, put what they learn into practice, and improve their listening and speaking skills. (ST2, 29 September 2010)

Although all the STs expressed their belief that the use of pair or group work was one of the significant characteristics of LC teaching practices, their classroom practices (enacted beliefs) were not in line with their stated beliefs. Whole-class teaching was still prevalent, and their use of pair or group work was limited in the lessons I observed. A close scrutiny of the pair and group work revealed some findings that conflicted with those identified in the existing literature (Cuban, 1993; National Institute for Educational Development, 1999; Nunan, 1999). It is claimed in the literature that when the classroom set-up is in rows and lines, it is more likely that the teaching will be teacher-centred. In the findings of the current research the physical

¹⁰ PLI 2 refers to the second post-lesson interviews.

set-up of the classroom does not appear to correlate with the classroom organisation. Table 5.2 illustrates the mode of classroom organisation and summarises the total amount of time that students worked individually, in pairs or in groups, or participated in whole-class teaching in the 18 lessons observed. The length of the lesson, presented in Table 5.2, excludes greetings at the beginning of the lesson, checking students' attendance, collating either worksheets or homework, assigning students' homework, reviewing the whole lesson at the end of the lesson, or preparations for the next lesson.

Table 5.2 Mode of classroom organisation of the lessons observed ((') = minutes (") = seconds.)

Participant	Lesson	Classroom layout	Length of the lesson	Whole-class teaching	Pair work	Group work	Individual work	Individual work (volunteered or nominated)
ST1	1	Lines and rows ¹¹	37'09"	26'22" (70.98%)	0'00"	0'00"	6'54" (18.57%)	3'53" (N) (10.45%)
	2	Lines and rows	38'39"	30'36" (79.17%)	0'00"	0'00"	8'03" (20.83%)	0'00"
	3	Lines and rows	40'32"	31'41" (78.17%)	0'00"	0'00"	5'21" (13.20%)	3'30" (N) (8.63%)
		Total	116'20"	88'39" (76.20%)	0'00"	0'00"	20'18" (17.45%)	7'23" (6.35%)
		Average		76.11 %	0.00%	0.00%	17.53%	6.36%
ST2	1	Lines and rows	32'20"	22'58" (71.03%)	0'00"	0'00"	5'18" (16.39%)	4'04" (N) (12.58%)
	2	Lines and rows	47'20"	38'23" (81.09%)	8'21" (17.64%)	0'00"	0'00"	0'36" (N) (1.27%)
	3	Lines and rows	43'43"	24'58" (57.11%)	0'00"	0'00"	18'45" (42.89%)	0'00"
		Total	123'23"	86'19" (69.96%)	8'21" (6.77%)	0'00"	24'03" (19.49%)	4'40" (3.78%)
		Average		69.74%	5.88%	0.00%	19.76%	4.62%

¹¹ See Figure 1 C in Appendix M.

Table 5.2 (Continued)

Participant	Lesson	Classroom layout	Length of the lesson	Whole-class teaching	Pair work	Group work	Individual work	Individual work (volunteered or nominated)
ST3	1	U shape ¹²	43'16"	17'52" (41.29%)	0'00"	0'00"	22'29" (51.97%)	2'55" (N) (6.74%)
	2	Lines and rows ¹³	49'49"	31'34" (63.37%)	0'00"	5'36" (11.24%)	12'39" (25.39%)	0'00"
	3	Lines and rows	46'32"	22'23" (48.10%)	0'00"	6'32" (14.04%)	17'37" (37.86%)	0'00"
		Total	139'37"	71'49" (51.44%)	0'00"	12'08" (8.69%)	52'45" (37.78%)	2'55" (2.09%)
		Average		50.92.%	0.00%	8.43%	38.41%	2.25%
ST4	1	Lines and rows ¹⁴	46'26"	33'00" (71.07%)	0'00"	0'00"	13'15" (28.54%)	0'11" (N) (0.39%)
	2	Groups ¹⁵	39'54"	27'33" (69.05%)	0'00"	0'00"	0'00"	12'21" (N) (30.95%)
	3	Lines and rows	52'07"	24'06" (46.24%)	0'00"	0'00"	14'40" (28.14%)	13'21" (N) (25.62%)
		Total	138'27"	84'39" (61.14%)	0'00"	0'00"	27'55" (20.16%)	25'53" (18.70%)
		Average		62.12%	0.00%	0.00%	18.89%	18.99%

¹² See Figure 3 in Appendix M.¹³ See Figure 1B in Appendix M.¹⁴ See Figure 2 in Appendix M.¹⁵ See Figure 1D in Appendix M.

Table 5.2 (Continued)

Participant	Lesson	Classroom layout	Length of the lesson	Whole-class teaching	Pair work	Group work	Individual work	Individual work (volunteered or nominated)
ST5	1	Lines and rows	53'30"	28'08" (52.58%)	1'07" (2.09%)	0'00"	19'12" (35.89%)	5'03" (N) (9.44%)
	2	Lines and rows	43'13"	28'02" (64.87%)	0'00"	0'00"	13'55" (32.20%)	1'16" (N) (2.93%)
	3	Lines and rows	48'26"	26'40" (55.06%)	0'00"	5'06" (10.53%)	14'40" (30.28%)	2'00" (N) (4.13%)
		Total	145'09"	82'50" (57.07%)	1'07" (0.77%)	5'06" (3.51%)	47'47" (32.92%)	8'19" (5.73%)
		Average		57.50%	0.70%	3.51%	32.79%	5.50%
ST6	1	Lines and rows	48'32"	10'35" (21.81%)	0'00"	0'00"	37'57" (78.19%)	0'00"
	2	Lines and row ¹⁶	36'56"	14'33" (39.40%)	0'00"	22'23" (60.60%)	0'00"	0'00"
	3	Lines and rows	43'50"	25'26" (58.02%)	0'00"	0'00"	15'28" (35.29%)	2'56" (N) (6.69%)
		Total	129'18"	50'34" (39.11%)	0'00"	22'23" (17.31%)	53'25" (41.31%)	2'56" (2.27%)
		Average		39.74%	0.00%	20.20%	37.83%	2.23%

¹⁶ See Figure 1A in Appendix M.

As shown in Table 5.2, whole-class teaching and individual work were dominant modes of learning in all the observed lessons. Pair work only occurred in two lessons taught by ST2 and ST5, and three of the six STs (ST3, ST5 and ST6) used group work in a total of four lessons. All the STs spent most of their class time doing whole-class activities, in which all the students were required to work on the same activities and at the same time.

The findings of the present study suggest that the physical setting of the classroom is not a dominant feature of LC instruction. These findings shed new light on LC instruction. Within the literature on learner-centredness, Cuban (1993) believes that ‘there is a high probability that the instruction is teacher-centered’ (Cuban, 1993, p. 291) when students sit in rows facing either the teacher or the blackboard. In a similar vein, Nunan (1999, p. 83) claims that:

the traditional mode of classroom organization was a teacher-fronted one, with learners sitting in rows facing the teacher ... The physical set-up of classroom was ... predicated on this mode of organization with desks set out in rows ... thus making any other mode of organization almost impossible.

This was not the case in this study. For example, in ST4’s second lesson, the students sat in three big groups (see Figure 1D in Appendix M), but his instruction was very TC. Furthermore, the students were not assigned to work in pairs or groups at all. Conversely, ST3 had her students sitting in lines and rows, facing the whiteboard, with five students sitting next to each other (see Figure 1B in Appendix M), and her class was quite packed with students. She gave her students a chance to work in

groups in her second and third lessons, which helped make her lessons learner-centred.

To uncover to what extent the STs utilised pair or group work in their lessons, a mean percentage of each mode of classroom organisation was calculated. These percentages are shown in Table 5.3. The mean was calculated by adding up the percentage of each mode of classroom organisation of each ST, and dividing it by three (three lessons).

Table 5.3 Mean percentage of the mode of classroom organisation

Participant	Whole-class teaching	Pair work	Group work	Individual work	Individual work (volunteered or nominated)
ST1	76.11	0.00	0.00	17.53	6.36
ST2	69.74	5.88	0.00	19.76	4.62
ST3	50.92	0.00	8.43	38.41	2.25
ST4	62.12	0.00	0.00	18.89	18.99
ST5	57.50	0.70	3.51	32.79	5.50
ST6	39.74	0.00	20.20	37.83	2.23
Mean	59.35	1.10	5.36	27.53	6.66
Median	59.81	0.00	1.76	26.28	5.06
SD	13.08	2.36	7.99	9.87	6.27

It can be seen from the table that the STs spent only 1.10% and 5.36% on pair and group work respectively. ST2 employed pair work the most, while group work was most utilised by ST6. The most striking result emerging from the observation data is that 62.12% of ST4's teaching was whole-class teaching, which was less than either ST1 or ST2, but his instruction was more TC than that of ST1 and ST2. In a similar

vein, ST3's instruction was more LC than ST6's. Only 8.43% of her instruction consisted of group work, while 20.20% of ST6's teaching was group work. This suggests that the degree of the STs' learner-centredness is not always correlated with the percentage of the mode of classroom organisation (for further discussion, see below).

LC Elements in Whole-Class Teaching

What is interesting is that in this environment where whole-class teaching was predominant and where there was a heavy reliance on individual work teaching, there were some characteristics of LC teaching practices. These included opportunities for students to help and learn from each other, to have a voice in the classroom by choosing whom they wanted to work with, and selecting the next pair to present the dialogue to the whole class.

The first characteristic of LC teaching practices observed in ST1's lesson during whole-class teaching was that her students had opportunities to assist, learn from and teach each other, as she incorporated group and pair practices into her lessons. Therefore, interactions between students and their participation in learning were maximised. Additionally, the students learned how to pronounce the given dialogue by themselves, and not by listening to the teacher's pronunciation. At that moment, the students were being given the opportunity to 'do' the learning. This can be seen from the following extract taken from her second lesson. She divided the class into two groups, boys in Group A and girls in Group B. They practised the following dialogue.

Extract 1a¹⁷

- 1 A¹⁸: How wa:s your trip in (sic) Chiang Mai?
 2 T: â: bi:¹⁹
 (Ah, B.)
 3 B²⁰: It wa:s ve:ry impre:ssive.
 4 T: â: (.) e:²¹
 (Ah, A.)
 5 A: How long did you ⁰stay there⁰? ((Students mispronounces the word
 ‘stay’ (/steə/).))
 6 T: stay there
 7 A: stay there
 8 B: I stayed in Chiang Mai one week.
 9 T: â: e: phû:t
 (Ah, A, speak.)
 10 A: What wa:s the wea:ther like?
 11 B: I was=
 12 S1: =IT ((One student in group B shouts out loud.))
 13 T: há:
 (What?)
 14 S1: it was
 15 T: tɛ^hâ:j (.) aw màj aw màj (.) bi: phû:t màj
 (Right. Again. Again. B, say it again.)
 16 B: It wa:s cool.
 17 T: â: e: phû:t
 (Ah, A, speak.)
 18 A: What was it about Chiang Mai (.) that (.) was impressive for (sic) you?
 19 B: The most impressive (.) ⁰thing⁰ (.)
 20 SS: ⁰thing⁰ (2.0) ((Some students in group B say this word.))
 21 T: àraj thing àraj
 (What? Thing what?)

¹⁷ See Appendix N for transcription conventions.

¹⁸ Students in group A.

¹⁹ Data in Thai were translated into English by me, and then validated by a lecturer from the Foreign Languages Department at my university.

²⁰ Students in group B.

²¹ See Appendixes O and P for the IPA transcription of Thai consonant sounds.

- 22 S2: ⁰were⁰ ((One student in group A says this word. He mispronounces it (/weə(r)/).))
- 23 S3: were ((Another student in group A says this word.))
- 24 S4: ⁰were⁰ ((One student in group B says this words.))
- 25 SS: ⁰were the ⁰ ((Some students in group B say these words.))
- 26 S5: BEAUTIFUL ((One student in group B says this words.))
- 27 T: aw māj lɜ:j tāj tɛ: rɛ:k lɜ:j bi: aw māj (3.0)
(Again. Start from the beginning. B, say it again)
- 28 S6: ⁰the most⁰ (.) ((One student in group B says these words.))
- 29 T: the most àraj
(What?)
- 30 B: ⁰the most impressive thing⁰ (2.0) ((Not all students in group B say this phrase.))
- 31 T: e: phũ:t dāj māj nĩ:a (.)
(A, do you know how to say this sentence?)
- 32 S6: dāj k^hrap ((One student in group A replies.))
(I know.)
- 33 T: e: lɔ:ŋ à:n hāj bi: fəŋ sí
(A, can you read this sentence to B?)
- 34 A: The most impressive things were the beautiful flowe:rs and fresh air.
- 35 T: â: bi: phũ:t ta:m e:
(Ah, B, repeat after A.)
- 36 B: The mo:st impre:ssive things (.) were the (.) beautiful (.) flowers (.) and fresh (.)
- 37 T: fresh air (.) air thĩ:plɛ: wâ: a:kà:t
(Air means a:kà:t. (The translation of the word 'air'.))
(ST1, Lesson 2, 11'40")

Lines 10-14, 22-25 and 31-36 in Extract 1a show how the students assisted, learned from and taught each other. Throughout this extract, the students had opportunities to learn how to pronounce a dialogue by pronouncing it.

The second characteristic of LC teaching practices is that the students had a voice in the classroom, by choosing who they wanted to be (see Extract 1b), and selecting the

next pair to present the dialogue to the whole class (see Extract 1c, lines 4-8). After randomly selecting one girl and one boy to go to the front to practise a dialogue, ST1 asked who wanted to be A and who wanted to be B. This pair was also permitted to select the next pair. The following extracts support this observation.

Extract 1b

- 1 T: kra:j tɛ̀a pen e: kra:j tɛ̀a pen bi:
(*Who would like to be A, and who would like to be B?*)
- 2 S1: nũ: e: ((A girl chooses to be A.))
(*I would like to be A.*) (ST1, Lesson 2, 21'10")

When they had finished practising this dialogue, they selected the next pair.

Extract 1c

- 1 B: The mo:st impre:ssive (.) things were the (.) beautifu:l flowers and (.)
2 fresh (.) air.
- 3 A: That sounds grea:t.
- 4 T: â: rîak p^hû:an ma: nùŋ k^hon (.) â: pròp mu: hâj phû:an nò:j (3.0)
(*Ah, choose one of your friends. Ah, give your friend a big hand.*)
- 5 ((All students clap their hands.)) p^hû:jîŋ rîak p^hû:jîŋ ma: nùŋ k^hon
(*A girl chooses one girl.*)
- 6 p^hû:te^ha:j rîak p^hû:te^ha:j ma: nùŋ k^hon
(*A boy chooses one boy.*)
- 7 B: ⁰sàkda:⁰⁼
(*Sakda.*)
- 8 A: =sùp^ha:²² k^há²³
(*Supha.*) (ST1, Lesson 2, 22'02")

²² All names in extracts in this chapter are pseudonyms.

²³ 'kha' / k^há / is a feminine word used at the end of sentences as a mark of politeness. This word has no real meaning.

The above extracts not only show some characteristics of LC teaching practice in ST1's lessons, but also the types of interaction that take place during whole-class teaching. In lines 1-3, student A and student B were not only given space to interact with each other, but also had an opportunity to do the learning in order to learn how to pronounce the dialogue. ST1 made an attempt to do something to help her students learn the dialogue.

In comparison with ST1, ST4 was more TC, although he spent less (62.12%) class time on whole-class teaching. Very few elements of LC teaching practices were found in his classroom. ST4 spent most of his class time interacting exclusively with the whole class or with nominated students (in lines 1-10). There was no interaction between students owing to a lack of communicative activities, and no deployment of pair or group work. The most common format of ST4's lessons was in the question-and-answer format, and he always answered his own questions (in lines 12, 14, 16 and 18) and then asked the students to repeat after him (in lines 12-15). Moreover, ST4 constantly taught by telling and giving explanations, which made his instruction very teacher-dominated. He simply presented a structure, instead of trying to elicit it from the students. The extract below illustrates how ST4 taught in his second lesson. The focus of this lesson was on asking and answering questions about daily routines (What time do/does you/she/he usually ___? I/She/He usually ___ at ___. What do/does you/she/he usually do at home? I/She/He usually ___ .)

Some observed group work activities utilised by ST2 and ST3 reflected some characteristics of LC teaching practices. These characteristics included: students had opportunities to construct knowledge, used English for communication, initiated some questions, worked cooperatively, interacted with each other, and supported one another in learning by teaching as well as helping one another. When pair or group work was used by the STs in this way, more elements of the LC teaching practices were found. The extract that follows provides an illustration of how ST3 used group work in her lesson.

Extract 1e

- 1 T: ((The teacher calls Sommas and Nicha to come to the front.))
 2 â: ò:k ma: nâ: hô:ŋ (.) jôk tu:ajà:ŋ jôk tu:ajà:ŋ (.)
 (*All right, come to the front. Here is the example. Here is the example*)
 3 du: ò:k ma: sî k^há rew Quickly (sic). (2.0) â: sôm^mât p^hû:t
 (*Look. Come out, please. Hurry up.*) (*Er, Sommas, speak*)
 4 hăn nâ: k^hâw hă: kan sôm^mât p^hû:t prăjò:k
 (*Face one another. Sommas, say this sentence.*)
 5 What time do you get up ?
 6 S²⁴: What, what time do you get up?
 7 T: nít^ha:tò:p I get up at kî: mo:ŋ kô: wâ: paj
 (*Nicha, answer.*) (*Say whatever the time.*)
 8 N²⁵: I get up at 6.00 o'clock
 9 T: â: I get up at 6.00 o'clock pen jà:ŋ ní: (.) khru: teà mi: (2.0)
 (*All right,*) (*Like this.*) (*I'll have*)
 10 khru: teà mi: hâj nâkri:an t^ham baj ŋa:n (4.0)
 (*I'll have you complete this worksheet.*)
 11 ((The teacher walks to her desk to get worksheets)) ÿ: (4.0)
 (*Er.*)
 12 ((The teacher gives the worksheet to students.))

²⁴ S refers to Sommas.

²⁵ N refers to Nicha.

they are expected to do in their groups. Lines 19-23 clearly illustrate the appropriateness of the task employed by ST3.



Figure 5.1 Students' cooperation, communication and interaction during group work



Figure 5.2 Interactive negotiations whilst completing the given task

It is possible that the success of the deployment of group work in ST3's lesson was owing to her communicative activity, which contained a task that generates

communication and negotiation (interviewing classmates about what time they get up), together with her class management skills. Most students stood up and moved around to perform the task (see Figure 5.1). Extract 1f illustrates how ST3 monitored her students and group work whilst it was in progress.

Extract 1f

- 1 T â:w r̂:m lúk t̂ă:m p̂û:an (.) mâ:j t̂ĥaj p̂û:an k̂ĥâ:ŋ k̂ĥâ:ŋ ná? (3.0)
(Stand up. Ask your friends, not the ones who sit next to you.)
- 2 tô:ŋ mi: p̂û:t̂ĥa:j jà:ŋ nó:j (.) ŝă:m naj ĥa: (.) t̂ĥû: (.) p̂û:t̂ĥa:j k̂ô: tô:ŋ
(Girls, have to interview three boys. Boys, have to)
- 3 mi: t̂ĥû: p̂û:ĵŋ naj baj ŋa:n ŝă:m naj ĥa: t̂ĥû: t̂ĥên kan (.)
(get three girls' names in your worksheet, too.)
- 4 â: lúk l̂x:j (.) â: lúk t̂ă:m d̂aj l̂x:j (.) â: t̂ĥâ: k̂ĥra:j n̂aŋ jù: k̂àp t̂ĥi:
(So, stand up. Stand up. If you sit down,)
- 5 khru: (.) t̂eà ĥaj ò:k ma: p̂û:t n̂a: t̂ĥán t̂ĥɛ:n
(I'll make you speak in front of the class instead.)
- (ST3, Lesson 2, 9'20")

It was noted earlier that there was limited use of pair and group work. A closer scrutiny also revealed that the majority of it did not reflect the real characteristics of LC instruction. Most of the use of pair and group work activities employed by ST5 and ST6 did not reflect real cooperative learning, communication or interaction. In the observations of ST5's third lesson, two groups did not work cooperatively (see Figure 5.3) and, in addition, two groups of students worked individually, and did not share responsibility or help or learn from one another (see Figure 5.4). This non-cooperation may have resulted from the activities as well as the tasks not requiring authentic communication, a lack of monitoring by the teacher whilst group work was in progress, and her shallow understanding of the underlying principles of the use of

group work. The task used by ST5 involved writing down as many questions as possible in five minutes, using ‘What’s the weather like?’ or ‘What’s the weather like today? It’s ____.’ This task was non-interactive, and focused on form and competition. The following piece of classroom data demonstrates what happened in the lesson.

Extract 1g

- 1 T: klùm nî: a klùm năj a (.) mâj ru:am rŭ: (1.0)
(This group, er, which group are you in? Aren't you working together?)
- 2 t^ham maj mâj sămakki: kan lɔ:j lâ
(Why don't you work together?) (ST5, Lesson 3, 33'36")



Figure 5.3 Group work - group members not working cooperatively.



Figure 5.4 Group work - only one student is responsible for completing the task.

Although the use of group work by both ST5 and ST6 was fairly superficial, a few characteristics of LC teaching practices were found. The majority of students still derived some benefit from working in groups, as they had the opportunity to learn how to work cooperatively (see Figure 5.5). Additionally, the students had a chance to help each other, as seen from the teacher talk in Extract 1h below.

Extract 1h

- 1 T: â: t^hûajkantè:ŋ hǎn lǎŋ klàp paj sî (.) hǎn lǎŋ klàp paj (4.0)
(All right, **help each other**. Turn back now. Turn back.)
- 2 (xxx) â: t^hûajkan (.)
(All right, **help each other**.)
- 3 klùm nán lâ (.) sùt^h i: lâ klùm sùt^h i: t^ham rǔ: ŋaŋ (.)
(What about that group? Suthi? Suthi's group, has your group)
- 4 r^h:m ŋaŋ (.) â: t^hûajkan (.) prùksǎ: kan lɛ:j
(started? Has your group started? All right, **help each other**. **Discuss this with a group**.) (ST5, Lesson 3, 30'27")



Figure 5.5 Group work - members working cooperatively.

The data presented here suggest that the STs' stated beliefs about the use of pair or group work were consistent with the LCA, but their practices did not correspond with their stated beliefs, since no strong evidence was found. Within a generally whole-class dominant teaching and learning context, there were some elements of LC teaching practices. Moreover, it is believed that when students are assigned to work in groups, they will do something good. In addition, it is thought that when the physical set-up of classroom is in groups, it is more LC than when it is in lines and rows. This was not really the case in the current study. Group work was observed in the classroom but this was not necessarily an indication of learner-centredness. There was evidence to substantiate the claim that the physical setting and the mode of classroom organisation are not the decisive factor in implementing the LCA. The teacher's role is more important.

5.3.2 *Doing Activities*

The six STs had various understandings of what ‘doing activities’ meant. For them, the meaning of ‘doing activities’ included speaking in front of the class (ST1), doing exercises or completing worksheets, playing games (ST2), listening to a song and summarising the gist (ST3), interviewing their friends and reporting to the class (ST4), singing, and practising a given dialogue in pairs (ST6). The sense of the term ‘activity’, in Thai, is rather broad and different kinds of task and activity can be grouped under it. Furthermore, when they were asked about the deployment of communicative activities, their remarks indicated that they had a low degree of understanding. During the interviews, none of them claimed that they used activities as a tool to provide their students with the opportunity to construct knowledge. The following excerpt manifests ST5’s understanding of communicative activities.

Excerpt 5

- 1 R²⁶: Have you ever used any activities in your lesson?
 2 ST5: Yes, such as a ‘Crossword’ game.
 3 R: What about communicative activities? Have you ever
 4 used any?
 5 ST5: The activities I use are allowing my students to practise a
 6 given dialogue in pairs in front of the class, or they stand up
 7 and practise speaking at their desks.
 8 R: What about other activities like jigsaw reading or
 9 information gap activity?
 10 ST5: What are they? Can you explain?
- (ST5, 8 October 2010, PLI 2²⁷)

²⁶ R refers to the researcher.

²⁷ PLI 2 refers to the second post-lesson interviews.

Every ST considered doing activities (tham kittcàkam-ทำกิจกรรม) as another characteristic of LC teaching, and emphasised the fact that in LC teaching, teachers need to use various kinds of activity, instead of just chalk and talk. ST6 explained her beliefs about the benefits of the incorporation of activities into her lesson, saying:

Excerpt 6

I use activities to make my lesson fun and to attract my students. Activities are able to arouse students' interest ... Whilst doing activities, students learn to do things by doing. They also learn to work cooperatively with others. Doing activities permits students to do something. (ST6, 14 October 2010, PLI 2)

Learning by doing was also mentioned by ST1 and ST3. ST1 said,

Excerpt 7

Activities give students the opportunity to speak and do something. Students are given the opportunity to develop their language learning by doing activities. Thus, the teacher will know what they have learned and how much they understand. Students cannot speak when they don't understand ... in order to teach students how to speak, they need to learn by speaking. Learning how to write, students need to learn by writing, rather than by being told about writing. One way to learn how to do something is by doing it. Students cannot learn by listening to a series of lectures. (ST1, 1 October 2010, PLI 2)

ST2 also elaborated on this, saying that in a LC classroom, 'the teacher needs to use learning activities, exercises, or games. I help my students learn by using worksheets and games' (ST2, 29 September, 2010). The extract which follows illustrates her rationales for using worksheets and games.

Excerpt 8

When students carry out activities, they try to think and guess first. Learning becomes something the students do instead of something done to them ... I also use exercises in order to give students the opportunity to practise writing questions, to review what they have learned and to learn how to write as well as to read. Whilst doing exercises, students learn to write and read through their active involvement in the process. (*ST2, 29 September 2010*)

ST3 also added that if a teacher is LC, he/she will not use only textbooks, chalk and talk. Textbooks, chalk and talk are insufficient to help students learn. The exploitation of a wide variety of teaching materials (see examples of teaching materials in Excerpt 3) made her lesson more interesting, together with creating a more meaningful context for the language presented. Games can diffuse tension and enliven the proceedings. ST2 and ST6 asserted that learning is enhanced when the teacher incorporates various kinds of teaching materials as well as activities into his/her lesson.

However, the analysis of the STs' lesson plans and the observations of all eighteen lessons revealed less evidence of the use of activities which allowed students to learn by doing, to work cooperatively and to have more opportunity to practise. Additionally, communicative activities, which promote interaction, negotiation of meaning and the use of activities for knowledge construction, were employed in only two lessons (ST3's second and third lessons). Extract 3a shows how ST3 employed the activity in her lesson. This extract is taken from ST3's second lesson, and the task is interviewing classmates about what time they get up.

Extract 2a

- 16 k^hamsàŋ mi: wâ: (.) nǎj lɔ:ŋ à:n k^hamsàŋ p^hró:m p^hró:m kan sî
(*The instruction is. Try to read the instruction together.*)
- 17 Ss: hâj nákrì:an sò:p t^hǎ:m we:la: tù: nɔ:n k^hǒ:ŋ p^hû:an dâj pràjò:k
(*Ask what time your friends get up using this sentence.*)
- 18 What time do you get up?
- 19 T: hâj nákrì:an sò:p t^hǎ:m pràjò:k hâj nákrì:an sò:p t^hǎ:m we:la: tù:nɔ:n
(*You ask, using this sentence. Ask what time your friend gets up*)
- 20 k^hǒ:ŋ p^hû:an do:j t^hǎj pràjò:k What time do you get up ? kô: ku:
(*using this sentence.*) (That is,)
- 21 hâj (.) hâj raw paj hǎ: p^hû:an ki: k^hon kô: dâj k^hǎ:an naj
(*you go to find out what time your friends get up. Write their names*)
- 22 t^hh̄:ŋ t^hh̄ û: wâ: t^hè pen t^hh̄ û: t^heiŋ t^hh̄ û: l^hen
(*in the name column. You can use their forenames or their nicknames.*)
- 23 hǎ: hâj dâj t^hǎŋmòt hǎ: k^hon t^h:ŋ t^hǎ:m dâj pràjò:k
(*Ask five people altogether. You have to ask them using this sentence.*)
- 24 What time do you get up? lé:w k^hon t^h:p kô: t^h:ŋ t^h:p pràjò:k ní:t^ha:(.)
(*The one who answers has to use this sentence, Nicha.*)
- 25 N: I get up at 6.00 o'clock. (ST3, Lesson 2, 7'11")

Interestingly, the activities used by ST5 and ST6 neither reflected real cooperative learning nor encouraged the sharing of knowledge. In five of the observed lessons, non-communicative activities were also utilised by ST5 and ST6, since the tasks involved practising how to ask and answer questions in pairs (What are you doing? I am ____.), drawing Mind Maps (vocabulary revision), writing questions and answers in groups (What's the weather like? It's ____.) (ST5), drawing Mind Maps (summarise parts of speech), reading a passage in groups, summarising the story in Thai, and writing the meaning of the unknown words in Thai (ST6). These tasks put greater emphasis on practising form than on communicative abilities; furthermore, drawing Mind Maps, used by ST6, was not aligned with the pedagogical goals of the

lesson (see lesson descriptions in Appendix Q). The following extracts provide a picture of how non-communicative activities were used by ST5 and ST6.

In Extract 2b, taken from ST5's second lesson, after pre-teaching the prescribed model question (What are you doing?) and answers (I am ____.), the students practise these structures together and individually, in order to prepare themselves for pair practice. The students work in pairs to practise asking and answering questions.

Extract 2b

- 1 T: â: k^hraw ní: khru: teà hâj ná:kri:an teàp k^hû: lé: (.) teàp k^hû: sí (.)
(All right, now I want you to work in pairs. Pair up.)
- 2 k^hû: k^hû: kan nía nâj k^hû: kan (.) só:m thă:m só:m à:n đăaw khru:
(Sit in pairs. Practise asking questions and reading. In a moment, I am
- 3 teà hâj sùm lé:w hâj ná:kri:an ò:k ma: khon nùj thă:m khon nùj à:n
(going to randomly select some of you to speak in the front of the class. One asks and the other one answers.)
- 4 â: jôk tu:ajà:ŋ te^hên (.) k^hû: ní: k^hû: ra:ni: Stand up please. (2.0)
(All right, here is the example. This pair, Ranee's pair.)
- 5 ((The teacher points to Ranee. Ranee and her partner stand up.))
- 6 â: du: du: k^hû: ra:ni: ná? wâ: k^háw phû:t wâ: ŋaj
(All right, look, look at Ranee's pair and see how they speak.)
- 7 â: ra:ni: p^hû:t wâ: What are you doing? (.)
(All right, Ranee, say,)
- 8 p^hû:t ta:m khru: Repeat after me.
(Repeat after me.)
- 9 R²⁸: ⁰What are you doing? ⁰
- 10 T: hăn nâ: k^hâw hă: kan k^huj kan ((Ranee and her partner face each other.))
(Face each other. Talk to each other.)
- 11 S1 ⁰I am sleeping.⁰ (ST5, Lesson 1, 33'55")

²⁸ R refers to Ranee.

Subsequently, to reinforce the parts of speech used in the activities, the students were assigned to draw individual mind maps. It should be noted that ST6 spent about 37 minutes on this activity. The following extract is taken from ST6's first lesson.

Extract 2c

- 1 T: ɲa:n tɛ^hín t^hí: lé:w k^hru: hâj t^ham àraj nû: team dâj mǎj (.)
 (What was the last task? Could you remember?)
- 2 hâj jê:k pràp^hê:t (.) k^hŋ parts of speech t^háŋ pè:t tɛ^hanít (.)
 (Ah, classify the words according to their parts of speech.)
- 3 â: nákri:an t^ham paj lé:w tò: paj kô: pen bajɲa:n t^hí: sǒ:ŋ ná? k^há (.)
 (Right, you have done it. Next is the second worksheet,)
- 4 tɛà pen mind mapping k^hraj rú:teak mind mapping bâ:ŋ (.)
 (mind mapping. Anybody knows mind mapping?)
- 5 k^hx:j dâj jin mǎj k^há mind mapping
 (Have you ever heard of mind mapping?)
- 6 Ss: k^hx:j k^hrap²⁹
 (Yes.) (ST6, Lesson 1, 6'06")



Figure 5.6 Mind mapping

²⁹ 'khrap' /k^hrap/ is a masculine word used at the end of sentences as a mark of politeness. This word has no real meaning.

Most of the observed lessons were not dominated by a textbook, chalk and a blackboard, but the teaching was supplemented by various teaching aids (worksheets, handouts, word cards, flashcards and pictures). The pictures were used to assist them in explaining the meaning of words, and making their presentation more meaningful, as well as interesting, while the word cards together with flashcards (see Figure 5.7) were used to teach spelling, and help the students learn the meaning of words more easily.



Figure 5.7 Flashcards

All the teaching materials used by the six STs are listed below. An asterisk in Table 5.4 indicates non-communicative activities.

Box 5.1 Teaching materials	
1. Worksheets	9. Computer
2. Pictures	10. Projector
3. Word cards	11. Screen
4. Activities	12. PowerPoint Presentation
5. Handouts	13. Realia
6. Games	14. English-Thai dictionary
7. Textbook	15. Sentence cards
8. Flashcards	16. Test paper

Table 5.4 Teaching materials

	Teaching materials	ST1			ST2			ST3			ST4			ST5			ST6			Total lessons
		L1	L2	L3	L1	L2	L3	L1	L2	L3	L1	L2	L3	L1	L2	L3	L1	L2	L3	
1.	Worksheets	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	16
2.	Pictures	✓			✓					✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓	✓	11
3.	Word cards	✓			✓	✓	✓							✓	✓	✓		✓		8
4.	Activities								✓	✓				✓*	✓*	✓*	✓*	✓*		7
5.	Handouts		✓	✓			✓					✓	✓				✓			6
6.	Games				✓									✓	✓	✓				4
7.	Textbook	✓				✓														2
8.	Flashcards								✓									✓		2
9.	Computer							✓												1
10.	Projector							✓												1
11.	Screen							✓												1
12.	PowerPoint Presentation							✓												1
13.	Realia																		✓	1
14.	English-Thai dictionary																	✓		1
15.	Sentence cards															✓				1
16.	Test paper										✓									1

From the data in Table 5.4, it is apparent that all the STs employed worksheets in nearly every lesson; however, a closer examination of the worksheets revealed that the focus was on forms, rather than on promoting communicative abilities. Yet the students did derive some benefit from doing the worksheets. For example, they had opportunities to put what they had learned into practice, and the teacher was able to assess the students' understanding quickly. Whilst the students were doing their worksheets individually, they were able to progress at their own pace, obtain individual attention and ask for individual help. Unlike the other STs' worksheets, the worksheets used by ST3 in her second and third lessons did not simply focus on forms.

Apart from using communicative and non-communicative activities, games (bingo, and musical box) were exploited in four lessons by ST2 and ST5. During the observation, the games appeared to be fun and able to sustain the attention of all the students; in addition, all the students were involved in them. The games not only made the students excited, but they also learned from them unconsciously.

The STs' classroom practices were deemed to be consistent with their stated beliefs. Their attempt to utilise both communicative and non-communicative activities, worksheets, games, and different kinds of teaching material was evident during their lessons. However, their teaching practices seemed to be less learner-centred and the students derived little benefit, owing to the inappropriateness of the activities employed. The majority of the STs seemed to lack skill in designing communicative activities, since they were found in only two lessons. Moreover, it was found that the

students did not work on different tasks in every lesson and the STs did not utilise different materials to cater for student differences. It also became evident that they did not fully understand the rationale for using activities in the LC classroom, as their utilisation of materials focused on the delivery of knowledge, rather than on consolidating the students' understanding of the concept or on letting students embark on a learning experience (De Groot, 2012).

5.3.3 Student Involvement

The majority of the STs considered that actively involving the students constituted learner-centredness in their teaching. ST1 and ST6 described LC teaching as the students' chance to participate: 'Students should be given a chance to participate in learning as much as possible' (ST1, 1 October 2010, PLI 2). According to ST1, in a transmission-oriented classroom, there is no active involvement of students, as they sit still and listen to the teacher. The teacher spends the entire period teaching by telling, instructing, directing and explaining. By the same token, ST4 described himself as being partly LC because:

Excerpt 9

In my lesson, I don't talk all the time, or students don't learn passively ... During the whole lesson, my students have opportunities to answer my questions, to interact with me or their classmates or to speak English, as learning English means learning to speak. (*ST4, 30 September 2010, PLI 2*)

It became apparent that for ST4, 'answering questions', interacting with the teacher or their friends, and 'having a chance to talk' were strategies for involving students in learning.

ST1 saw the LCA as ‘a joint enterprise between the teacher and students’ (ST1, 1 October 2010, PLI 2). For her, in a LC classroom, every student is expected to participate actively in the process of teaching and learning. LC teaching practices move away from the distribution of knowledge by the teacher towards involving students directly. She continued to explain the ways in which she involved her students, as shown in Excerpt 10 below.

Excerpt 10

Students are more engaged, as the teacher provides them with opportunities to participate as much as possible ...When the teacher only disseminates learning and knowledge, students only listen and write things down in their notebooks. It is hard for the teacher to know whether they understand. Students should be actively engaged in the process of learning by practising asking and answering questions with their peers, allowing them to speak in front of the class, giving responses, giving them time to practise and keeping them busy by getting them to do something after a brief explanation. (*ST1, 27 September 2010*)

The interview data presented here provide clear examples of how the STs interpreted the meaning of student involvement in the LC classroom. It is interesting to note that, for them, if their students do not merely sit down and listen to the teacher, or if they are occupied with doing something, such as responding to teachers’ questions, or having an opportunity to speak to one another or in front of the class, it means they are already participating in the learning process. The sentiments expressed suggest that their concept of student involvement is not the same as the learner involvement in learner-centredness (see section 2.6). This reflects their misconceptions about student involvement in the LCA.

Evidence of these misconceptions was also found in the STs' practice in the observed lessons. The STs asked questions in order to involve the students in learning, but most of the questions posed by them were designed to elicit factual or one-word responses, which are outcomes of the students' recall. Furthermore, the questions tended to be display questions to which they already knew the answer or to which they had a specific idea in their minds as to 'what will count as a proper answer' (van Lier, 1996, p. 150). Unfortunately, very few opportunities for the students to initiate questions were observed. The students participated in answering a series of questions, since the dominant structure of instructional interaction was question-answer sequences. The following extract shows the participation of students in response to the STs' questions.

Extracts 3a below is taken from one of ST1's lessons, the main focus of which was on teaching how to pronounce words that are used to describe the weather and tourist attractions. This episode occurred halfway through the initial stage of the 40-minute lesson. ST1 focuses on teaching what she planned to teach (vocabulary: temple), by providing input (meaning (lines 9 and 12), pronunciation (line 14) and the spelling of a word (lines 17-19)). As can be seen in this extract, the students' responses were ignored (lines 4-6 and 11), as she does not provide them with an opportunity to learn or have them explore the vocabulary on their own and allow them to set off on a learning experience. Moreover, the organisation of interaction (in lines 1-9; 12-14; 17-21) in this extract is dominated by the basic three-turn structure of IRE (initiation-response-evaluation) (Mehan, 1979) or IRF (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975), which represents the traditional classroom interaction (Jarvis and Robinson, 1997).

Extract 3a

- 1 T: àjút^hàja: mi: àraj jǎ ↑
(*What are the many things that Ayuthaya has?*)
- 2 S1: wát ↑ wát ↑ wát ↑
(*temple temple temple*)
- 3 S2: (xxxx)
- 4 S3: liŋ
(*monkey*)
- 5 S4: p^hrá [t^hâ:t
(*pagoda*)
- 6 S5: [k^hwaj
(*buffalo*)
- 7 S6: mi: wát jǎ ↑ (.)
(*There are a lot of temples.*)
- 8 T: ((The teacher sticks the picture of Ayuttaya on the board))
- 9 t^hâj mi: wát jǎ ↑
(*Yes, there are a lot of temples.*)
- 10 S7: wát=
(*Temple*)
- 11 S8: =mu: aŋ kàw
(*ancient city*)
- 12 T: lé:w wát ↑ p^ha:sā: aŋkrit ku:àraj
(*What is the word 'wat' in English?*)
- 13 S9: ⁰te::mple⁰(.) te::mple
- 14 T: te::mple (.) te::mple (1.0)
- 15 ((The teacher sticks the word 'Ayuttaya' on the board.)) â p^hût
(*All right, repeat.*)
- 16 Ss: te::mple
- 17 T: k^h raj sàkót kamwâ: temple penbâ:ŋ (1.0) ((One student hands up.))
(*Who can spell the word 'temple'?*)
- 18 S10 (xxxx) (.)
- 19 T âw lɔ:ŋ sàkót sí
(*Try to spell this word.*)
- 20 S9: T-E-M-P-L-E

- 21 T: â:kèn̩j mâ:k pròp muu: hâj p^hû:an nò:j (2.0)
(*Very good. Give your friend a big hand.*)
- 22 ((All students clap their hands. The teacher shows the word ‘temple’ .))
- 23 te::mple (.) wát ↑ ná? k^há
(*Temple.*)
- 24 ((The teacher sticks the word ‘temple’ on the board.))
- (ST1, Lesson 1, 5’10’)

Throughout this extract, it is clear that the typical classroom interaction is IRF. For example, ST1 asked her students questions (in lines 1, 12 and 17) (initiation), then the students gave their responses (in lines 2-7, 10-11, 13, 16, 18 and 20). Next, ST1 evaluated their responses or gave feedback (in lines 9, 14 and 21). This pattern of classroom interaction was found in all the observed lessons, which demonstrates the transmission model, as knowledge is still being transmitted by the teachers, rather than being constructed by the students. The teacher becomes a leader, whilst the students are followers (van Lier, 1996); the control remains in the hands of teachers, and this type of exchange means that the language lesson does not become ‘a joint enterprise’ owing to the rarity of student initiation, questions asked by students, active participation and involvement on the part of students in determining either the content or the form of the language learning, and no student involvement in setting learning goals or choosing the study mode (Nunan, 1988; Tudor, 1993; 1996).

The data here suggest that the STs misunderstood not only the actual concept of learner involvement, but also the concept of active participation in a LC classroom. For them, when their students are given the opportunity to do something, this means that they are active and involved. Allowing her students to present their dialogues

with their partners to the whole class was one of the ways in which ST1 maximised her students' involvement in her lesson. Her misconception about student involvement is illustrated in Extract 3b. After completing the given dialogue on the worksheet, the students were asked to present it, in pairs, in front of the class. The following extract is taken from ST1's second lesson.

Extract 3b

- 1 T: sùp^hoŋ t^hɿ :pen (.) k^hon t^hî: sǐ:a sàrà ma:k (2.0)
(*Supong, come on, why don't you come to the front?*)
- 2 S³⁰: paj montri: (5.0) ((Supong and Montree go to the front.))
(*Let's go, Montree.*)
- 3 S1: (xxxx)
- 4 S2: à:n paj lé:w raw a à:n paj lé:w (2.0)
(*I've already done it [read already]. I've already done it.*)
- 5 T: sǐ:aŋ daŋ faŋ tɛ^hát
(*Say it out loud.*)
- 6 S: How was your trip in (sic) Chonburi?
- 7 M³¹: I (sic) was very impressive. (ST1, Lesson 2, 34'15")

Here, the students did not merely sit idly and listen to the teacher; they were observed being kept busy, doing different things, such as repeating after the teacher, completing worksheets and presenting a dialogue in pairs to the whole class, at various times during the same lesson. The fact that the students did things in class did not mean that they were actively involved in the learning process, however, since they did not engage in performing higher-order thinking tasks, or giving responses which promoted their thinking, or in constructing knowledge. If the LC classroom is defined as a classroom where students have a voice, make choices and share control

³⁰ S refers to Supong.

³¹ M refers to Montree.

over curricular decisions and their own learning (for further discussion see chapter 2, section 2.6), in this instance they were not able to put these ideas into practice. In addition, the teachers' stated beliefs about learner involvement did not correspond with the concept of learner involvement in the LCA.

The data presented here suggest that the STs' stated beliefs about student involvement were closely aligned with what they did in the classroom whilst teaching. However, their stated beliefs seem to reflect their limited knowledge or understanding of what constitutes student involvement in the teaching-learning process in the LC classroom. Although they were well aware of the fact that in a LC lesson students need to be involved, they could not provide a clear explanation of the features of this student involvement. Moreover, no evidence of student decision making concerning course selection, study modes, management issues and assessment procedures was observed.

5.3.4 Teacher Roles

During the interviews all the STs stated their beliefs that LC teachers should adopt different roles, which were a mélange of the traditional and LC roles. The multiple roles mentioned by them are summarised in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5 Multiple roles of the teacher as perceived by student teachers

Student Teacher	Teacher roles
ST1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - knowledge transmitter - model - activity organiser - learning advisor - counsellor
ST2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - knowledge transmitter - helper - observer - monitor - group organiser
ST3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - knowledge transmitter - helper - activity organiser
ST4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - knowledge transmitter - counsellor
ST5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - knowledge transmitter - helper
ST6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - knowledge transmitter - guide - helper - resource - learning advisor - motivator

The majority of the STs perceived that in a LC classroom, teachers take on more roles than in the traditional classroom. When asked, ‘What are your roles as a teacher in the classroom?’ ST6 stated:

Excerpt 11

The role of the teacher is to stimulate students to learn, and to help them when they experience difficulties. Sometimes I am a resource when I answer their queries. Sometimes I am a learning advisor. (ST6, 14 October 2010, PLI 2)

In addition to saying they played more than one role, ST2 saw herself as acting as a learning helper. She elaborated on the roles she played in Excerpt 12.

Excerpt 12

One of my roles is to teach students. Teach them to learn how to speak, read and write. Whilst they are doing exercises or tasks, I always circulate and observe how they are working. I give them advice and offer them individual help, as sometimes they may be afraid to ask, or they dare not put their hand up to ask questions during the whole-class teaching ... Whilst they are completing their worksheets, I have to move around to help them individually ... For some students who don’t listen to me, I can also monitor what they are actually doing ... I occasionally teach them about life, and how to behave properly, as well as speak politely. (ST2, 29 September 2010)

ST1 went on to explain the additional roles played by the teacher in a LC classroom, as shown in the following excerpt.

Excerpt 13

The role of the teacher is that of a knowledge provider, as well as an organiser of activities so that learning objectives can be fulfilled ... Additionally, I should be able to give students advice on their learning, and they can consult with me about other issues apart from their studies. (ST1, 27 September 2010)

At various stages throughout the interviews, ST5 emphatically stated that when she played the role of knowledge provider, sometimes she was unable to educate students well, owing to her own limited knowledge of English. Her remarks demonstrated her insufficient English language proficiency. However, she tried to overcome this weakness. She explained this as follows:

Excerpt 14

I always lack confidence, and sometimes I am not sure about a topic that I have to teach because I also do not have much knowledge and I am not knowledgeable ... but I try my best by preparing well, together with making myself clear about a topic. (*ST5, 6 October, 2010*)

ST1 also added that when students asked her questions, she could not immediately give the right answer. She had to search and needed time to find the correct answer because she believed, as she stated, 'my knowledge of English is very limited' (ST1, 27 September 2010). Interestingly, none of them expressed the belief that they played the role of a 'facilitator'.

In comparison, the findings from the STs' classroom practices suggest that all the STs adopted the role of knowledge transmitter, especially when the focus of the lesson was on grammar. They constantly explained, questioned, drilled and gave examples. They played other roles at different stages of some lessons when they employed communicative activities and incorporated pair or group work into the lesson. Other roles played by them included that of activity organiser, group organiser, guide, helper, supporter, knowledge resource, monitor, assessor and controller. However, their playing of these roles was something of a rarity and occurred infrequently.

When the STs acted as controllers, they had control over not only student discipline when working in pairs or groups (they may act as disciplinarians) and the language they used to complete the given task, but also over their use of their first language. These roles of controller and monitor are illustrated in the extract below. In Extract 4a, taken from ST3's second lesson, she divides the students into two groups and then each student interviews five people asking, 'What time do you get up?'

Extract 4a

- 1 T: t^ham d^uaj k^hwa:m pen teiŋ ná? m^haj t^haj l^h:k p^hu:an d^haw khru: teà
(All right, do it truly, not copying from your friend. In a moment, I'll)
- 2 h^haj ò:k ma: nam sanč: d^uaj ka:n s^um tu:alê:k (2.0)
(randomly choose a number to let you present it .)
- 3 s^um tu:alê:k (21.0) n^h: khru: h^haj t^hă:m pen pr^hajò:k pha:să: aŋkrit (.)
(Randomly choose numbers. I want you to ask your friends in English.)
- 4 w^hisànú What time do you get up?
(Wisanu,)
- 5 m^haj t^haj (.) w^hisànú t^u:n k^h: mo:ŋ (.) l^h:w t^hâ: ŋán
(Don't ask, Wisanu, t^u:n k^h: mo:ŋ. If you ask in Thai,)
- 6 khru: teà h^haj f^u pr^hajò:k t^hammaj (8.0) t^hă:m pen pr^hajò:k pha:să:aŋkrit
(why I will allow you to practise this sentence. Ask your friends in English)
- 7 ná? k^há³² (ST3, Lesson 2, 12'33")

As shown in the extract above, ST3 controlled the students as they interviewed their classmates in order to complete the task, and used English to obtain the information. The following extracts shed light on the additional roles played by the STs during their lessons.

³² 'kha' / k^há / is a feminine word used at the end of sentences as a mark of politeness. This word has no real meaning.

Extract 4b is taken from ST1's second lesson to illustrate the role the teacher played whilst students were completing the dialogue. The worksheet contained a dialogue with words missing. The students were asked to complete the dialogue (Where did he/she visit? How was the trip? How long was the trip? What was the weather like? etc).

Extract 4b

- 1 S1: a:tea:n tɛ^hɔ̃:ŋ ní: tɔ:m àraj
(Ajarn³³, which word should be filled in this blank?)
- 2 T: àraj ná? (.) sǒmmút kì: wan kô: k^hĩ:an paj (.)
(What? Just write how many days it is supposed to be. Write it down.)
- 3 I stayed in (.) Chonburi kì: wan (.) k^hĩ:an paj
(How many days? Write it down.)
- 4 S1: (xxxx) ((The teacher nods her head.))
- 5 T: kì: wan k^hun tɛà paj tâwraj
(How many days? How many days are you going to stay there?)
- 6 S1: pè:t wan
(Eight days)
- 7 T: pè:t wan (.) kô: àraj
(Eight days. Eight what?)
- 8 S1: (xxxx)
- 9 T: pè:t pha:sǎ:ŋkrit eight àraj (2.0)
(‘pè:t’ in English. ‘Eight’ what?)
- 10 S2: ⁰eight days⁰
- 11 T: sǒmmút pè:t wan wan pha:sǎ:ŋkrit kuu: àraj (.) wan
(Eight, supposed it's eight days. What is ‘wan’ in English? Day.)
- 12 week kuu: nùŋ a:t^hít week plɛ: wâ: a:t^hít sù:an wan plɛ: wâ: (.)
(‘Week’ means ‘a:t^hít’. Week means ‘a:t^hít’ and ‘won’ means what?)
- 13 wan kuu: àraj=
(What is ‘wan’ in English?)
- 14 S3: =DAY
- 15 T: Er, day. (ST1, Lesson 2, 30'28")

³³ In Thailand, a teacher is called by his/her job title (Khru or Ajarn) instead of by names.

Extract 4b illustrates the role which the majority of the STs played. Thus, the STs were seen circulating, providing assistance to the students who were working in pairs or by themselves. Therefore, their role moved from that of a knowledge provider to that of a guide, helper, monitor, controller and facilitator. The students were also encouraged to ask the teacher questions to improve their understanding. It was also observed that during individual work, some students had opportunities to teach and assist each other.

The observation findings suggest that the role played by all the STs can be defined as being more didactic, and that they acted as knowledge transmitters. However, their teaching still underscored the importance of the teacher and teaching, rather than that of the students and learning. Hence, their teaching strategies emphasised the delivery of knowledge, rote learning, as well as factual knowledge. Their teaching style, classroom discourse, their deployment of activities, learning arrangements, along with interactional patterns, reflected their concepts of teaching and learning as ‘the presentation of knowledge, and ... its absorption’ (Thamraksa, 2011, p. 64).

Although none of the STs mentioned in their interviews that they adopted the role of facilitator, it was observed that they did play this role, but very infrequently. Consequently, one may infer that they may not have been aware of the fact that they had developed these skills. Even though it was found that the majority of the STs played other roles apart from that of a knowledge transmitter, this happened very infrequently. The observational data clearly reflect the fact that the STs’ stated beliefs were inconsistent with their actual practices.

5.3.5 Student Roles

Most of the STs conceptualised the LCA in terms of the roles played by their students. It became apparent that within the LC classroom, students no longer play only one role (a passive recipient of knowledge). When asked, ‘What kinds of roles do you think your students always play?’ they listed several roles, as shown in Table 5.6.

Table 5.6 Student roles

Student Teacher	Student roles
ST1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - listener - carrying out activities - answering teachers’ questions
ST2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - active learner - talking to each other - tutor - being responsible for their own learning - carrying out activities
ST3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - active learner - doer - participant - carrying out activities - helping each other - being responsible for their own learning
ST4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - receiver - follower

Table 5.6 (*continued*)

Student Teacher	Student roles
ST5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - receiver - follower
ST6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - listener - doer - carrying out activities - making comments - answering questions - making decisions about their learning

These roles reflect both TC and LC teaching practices. Interestingly, ST4 and ST5 seem to describe only the roles of the students in a traditional classroom. ST4 also added a comment on how the role of students is misinterpreted by some teachers:

Excerpt 15

According to my opinion, the LCA doesn't mean that the students are neglected or learn by themselves without the teacher ... or students learn from programmed instruction. (*ST4, 30 September 2010, PLI2*)

ST6 believed that in the LC classroom, students need to have more opportunities to think, and try to do things by themselves. ST6 explained the roles that she wanted her students to play, as shown in Excerpt 16:

Excerpt 16

Students are expected to take on several roles. They do activities, learn through cooperation, brainstorming, learn by doing, together with learning independently ... They also have the right to express their opinions, and answer my questions. (*ST6, 14 October 2010, PLI 2*)

ST2 and ST3 emphasised the fact that, in the classroom, students were more important than teachers, but when asked why students were important, ST3 claimed ‘I think that in the classroom students are more important as they are able to learn independently, but if there are no students, how can the teacher teach?’ (ST3, 27 September 2010). ST2 and ST3 strongly believed that their students were active learners. For ST3, her students were active because ‘they are always doing something ... The students do more than I do ... The students actively do activities, rather than just sitting down and listening to me’ (ST3, 27 September 2010). ST2 went on to give additional reasons for why her students became active, as shown in the following excerpt.

Excerpt 17

My students are active, as they converse and talk to one another. If I teach them a dialogue, I will read first. Subsequently, they will read with me, and then they try to read that dialogue alone. I give them the opportunity to work in pairs, so they can talk to their partners ... They can discuss and share with their partners; furthermore, they can help one another. (*ST2, 1 October 2010, PLI 2*)

The prominent roles of students, which were emphasised by ST2, were tutoring, helping and learning from each other, as the students were prepared to shoulder the responsibility.

ST6 also mentioned another significant role played by students in a LC classroom: students assume responsibility for their own learning. She continued, ‘students might be able to choose topics that they want to study by themselves. They have the right to choose’ (ST6, 1 October 2010). However, when asked about her students’ opportunities to be involved and have a voice in classroom decisions regarding how and what to learn, and how their learning should be assessed, she replied that there was very little student involvement.

From the interview data, it is apparent that the STs’ beliefs about student roles tended to be more learner-centred than transmission-oriented. However, roles such as ‘initiator’, ‘knowledge constructor’, ‘group worker’ and ‘investigator’ were not mentioned by any of the STs.

It was found from the observations that the classroom is still ‘a place for teaching’, not ‘a place for learning’. Knowledge is still transmitted directly to students, rather than constructed by them. Therefore, in the majority of classrooms, students play the role of recipients of knowledge. During explanations, students became listeners, responded one by one, in unison or in groups, and answered questions voluntarily when the teacher did not call on anyone. No evidence was found of students having opportunities to initiate activities or to make decisions in the classroom, since they were not placed at the centre of the teaching-learning process.

In the observed lessons it was rarely found that the STs made their students learn by either discovering or constructing the knowledge on their own, as knowledge was

always provided by the STs. In their teaching, there was only limited use of pair or group work, or communicative activities. Most of the activities assigned by the majority of the STs were highly teacher-directed. Moreover, LC teaching methods, such as problem-solving learning, project work and role-playing, were not employed. Consequently, the students were expected to respond to questions and do whatever the teacher assigned them to do.

However, when the students were allowed to work with their peers in groups or to work individually, it was observed that some of them became tutors or teaching assistants. They were in charge of helping each other to learn. Additionally, students' collaborative learning was promoted by learning to work together, helping each other, as well as learning from one another. When a pair in front of the class was unable to say a word accurately, did not know what to say, or said something inaccurately, their classmates would always help them, but these occasions were infrequent because the pair work did not take place very often. The following extract demonstrates the roles assumed by students in ST2's second lesson, where ST2 permitted students to do pair practice in order to improve their pronunciation after reading the dialogue on page 34 in unison.

Extract 5a

- 1 T: à:n môt lɛ:j (2.0) à:n môt lɛ:j (.) kʰô:j kʰô:j à:n
(Read the whole dialogue. Read the whole dialogue. Carefully read.)
- 2 kʰô:j kʰô:j tɛ̀p kʰû: kan fùk kʰû: kan ná? kʰá lɔ:ŋ **tɛ̀ûaj kan** (2.0)
*(Pair up.) (Practise with your partner. Try to **help each other.**)*
- 3 ((The teacher walks to one pair of students and asks them.))

- 4 de:te^ha: k^hráp t^ham àraj k^hráp (xxxx) â: à:n kàp (2.0)
(*Decha, what are you doing?*) (*Er, read with*)
- 5 ((The teacher is trying to recall the student's name.)) sǒmp^hoŋ (.)
(*Sompong.*)
- 6 ((The teacher then walks to the next pair.)) (xxxx) â: te^húaj kan (.)
(*Erm, help each other.*)
- 7 ((The teacher then moves to the front of the class.)) fùk à:n
(*Practise reading.*)
- 8 ì:k k^hon nùŋ pen Greg ì:k k^hon nùŋ pen mother
(*One is Greg, and the other is 'Mother'.*)
- 9 səlàp kan à:n du: ná? k^há
(*Then swap the reading part, alright?*)
- 10 ((Students practise pronouncing the dialogue in pairs.)) (11.0)
- 11 ((The teacher goes to stand beside one pair of students and asks))
- 12 ⁰dáj mǎj⁰ (3.0)
(*Can you read?*)
- 13 S1: (xxxx)
- 14 T ⁰I am hungry.⁰ ((The teacher tells S1.)) (10.0)
- 15 S2: ⁰k^hru: k^hráp ma: nî: nò:j k^hráp⁰ (4.0)
(*Teacher³⁴, come here, please.*)
- 16 ((The teacher walks towards the boy who called.))
- 17 S2: (xxxx)
- 18 T: ⁰I am hungry⁰ (11.0)
- 19 ((The teacher moves to the next pair and tells that pair))
- 20 lɔ:ŋ fùk (.) mother du: ná? k^há (7.0)
(*Try to practise being 'Mother'.*)
- 21 ((The teacher walks to see the next pair.))
- 22 S1: (xxxx)
- 23 T: What is there for lunch? ((The teacher tells the pair.)) (9.0)
- 24 S3: ⁰a:tea:n k^hráp a:tea:n k^hráp a:tea:n k^hráp⁰ (xxxx) (.)
(*Ajarn krap, Ajarn krap, Ajarn krap.*)
- 25 T: ((The teacher walks towards the student who called.))
- 26 lunch lunch (2.0)

(ST2, Lesson 2, 16'40")

³⁴ In Thailand, a teacher is called by his/her job title (Khru or Ajarn) instead of by names

This extract clearly illustrates the roles adopted by ST2 and her students. When the teacher was not playing the role of knowledge transmitter, students had more roles to play. As we can see in lines 13, 15, 17, 22 and 24, the students ask for some help from the teacher (see Figure 5.9 below). This never happened during whole-class teaching. Throughout this extract, ST2 emphasises the fact that her students should ‘learn from one another’, and ‘help each other’ by repeating, ‘tɛ^huaj kan’ (help each other) in lines 2 and 6. At those moments, the students had to talk to each other and help each other learn the right pronunciation of the words in the dialogue. Thus, they became ‘sharers, initiators and helpers’.



Figure 5.8 Students obtain individual assistance during pair work.



Figure 5.9 Students initiate questions, and request individual assistance during pair practice.

It was also observed that the students assumed different roles and became more active when the STs used communicative activities along with pair or group work, because they interacted with their classmates, performed a task and worked together. Additionally, they were also engaged in doing something in order to learn. Unfortunately, this happened infrequently. This role is also linked to the teacher's role.

In brief, as the observational data here suggest, the students rarely assumed these different roles, and it was found that 'learning is still a spectator sport' (Chickering and Ehrman, 1996). They seldom took responsibility for their own learning or were given a voice. They were offered little opportunity to have a say in their own learning in terms of goal setting, mode of instruction, activity selection, choice of materials or assessment (Tudor, 1993). Rules and regulations, together with stipulations, were imposed by the teachers. It was not observed that students were told to monitor, or

evaluate their own progress, or reflect on their own learning. Simply put, the students were not empowered; in addition, the responsibility for learning was rarely put in the students' hands.

The data presented here seem to suggest that some of the STs' stated beliefs were reflected in their classroom practices. The majority of the STs' beliefs about student roles were an eclectic mixture of didactic and LC approaches, while their classroom practices were more didactic. Unlike the other STs, ST4's stated beliefs corresponded to his teaching practices, which were heavily transmission-oriented. By contrast, ST5's explanation of student roles diverged from her classroom practices. Her beliefs were very didactic, but her teaching practices were less didactic.

In this section, I have attempted to shed some light on the STs' understanding of the LCA and their classroom practices. Five themes were discussed. These themes were the use of pair or group work, doing activities, student involvement, teacher roles and student roles. The STs tended to exhibit a combination of both TC and LC modes of instruction in their beliefs and classroom practices.

5.4 The Relationship between Stated Beliefs and Classroom Practices

In order to highlight the congruence and divergence between the STs' stated beliefs and classroom practices, Table 5.7 provides a summary of their beliefs about the LCA and their classroom practices. The aim of this section is to answer the third research

question, 'What is the relationship between their understanding and their teaching practices, with regard to the LCA?'

Table 5.7 Summary of the relationship between stated beliefs and classroom practices

Characteristics of LC teaching practices	Stated beliefs	Classroom practices	Comments								
Use of pair or group work	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> All the STs emphasised the fact that in a LC classroom, students need to work in pairs or groups. They mentioned several benefits in the interviews. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The use of pair or group work was very limited. <table border="0" style="margin-left: 20px;"> <tr> <td>Whole-class teaching</td> <td>59.35%</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Pair work</td> <td>1.10%</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Group work</td> <td>5.36%</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Individual work</td> <td>34.19%</td> </tr> </table> TC teaching practices were infused with some elements of LC teaching practices. 	Whole-class teaching	59.35%	Pair work	1.10%	Group work	5.36%	Individual work	34.19%	The STs' stated beliefs were in line with the LC elements, but their beliefs were not strongly reflected in their classroom practices.
Whole-class teaching	59.35%										
Pair work	1.10%										
Group work	5.36%										
Individual work	34.19%										
Doing activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The STs did not comment on the use of activities as a tool to provide their students with the opportunity to construct knowledge, or to cater for 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The STs' classroom practices were consistent with their stated beliefs. The use of communicative activities or activities for knowledge construction was 	The STs' stated beliefs were consistent with their classroom practices, but their stated beliefs were only partially congruent with the LCA.								

Table 5.7 (continued)

Characteristics of LC teaching practices	Stated beliefs	Classroom practices	Comments
Student involvement	<p>individual differences.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • They stated the benefits of utilising activities, teaching materials, exercises and games in the classroom. <p>Active involvement of learners was defined as answering questions, presenting in front of the class, having a chance to talk and being kept busy.</p>	<p>limited.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The use of worksheets, games and other kinds of teaching material was evident in their lessons. • The use of different materials to cater for student differences was not observed. • Their students were observed to be kept busy doing different things, such as responding to teachers' questions. • The STs were not able to put their beliefs about learner 	<p>The STs' stated beliefs were closely aligned with what they did in the classroom whilst teaching, but their beliefs about student involvement did not match the concept of learner involvement in the LCA.</p>

Table 5.7 (continued)

Characteristics of LC teaching practices	Stated beliefs	Classroom practices	Comments
Teacher roles	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The traditional and LC roles of the teacher were stated. • Main roles of the teacher in a LC classroom were not mentioned. 	<p style="text-align: center;">involvement in a LC classroom into practice.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The STs mainly adopted the role of knowledge transmitters. • Instances of other roles being played by any of the STs were limited. • The role of the teacher as a facilitator was occasionally observed. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There was inconsistency between their stated beliefs and their actual practices. • The STs' stated beliefs were partially consistent with the LC elements. • Unlike other STs, ST4 and ST5 articulated more roles of the teacher in a TC classroom.
Student roles	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The STs' beliefs about student roles tended to be more LC 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students mainly adopted the role of recipients of knowledge. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The STs' stated beliefs were partially consistent

Table 5.7 (continued)

Characteristics of LC teaching practices	Stated beliefs	Classroom practices	Comments
<p>than transmission-oriented.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The roles of initiator, knowledge constructor, group worker and investigator were not mentioned. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Students were slightly responsible for their own learning, and had a voice. Evidence of student opportunity to have a voice in curricular decisions, assessment and management tasks, and be responsible for their own learning, was not found. 	<p>with the LC elements.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> There was a mixture of congruence and incongruence between the STs' stated beliefs and their classroom practices. ST1, ST4 and ST5 expressed more roles of the teacher in a TC classroom than the other STs. However, in ST1's and ST5's lessons, students seldom adopted the role of learners in a LC classroom. 	

5.5 Things Observed and not Observed in Relation to Learner-Centred Teaching Practices

In this section those characteristics of LC teaching practices which were found during the observations are identified. This section comprises two sub-sections, things observed and things not observed, with regard to the LCA. The findings in this section were drawn from classroom observation data, field notes and the STs' lesson plans.

5.5.1 Things Observed

- Whole-class teaching was the dominant learning arrangement, while individual work was the second most common lesson format. Consequently, most of the teaching was traditional, teacher-fronted. Teachers were dominant. Collaborative learning and teamwork skills were hardly promoted at all.
- There were two variations in the way whole-class teaching was used, one being very TC, where teaching was in the form of a whole-class question-and-answer session, and repetition practices led by the STs. Here, the STs spent most of their class time teaching and explaining. Interaction was between the teacher and the whole class or between the teacher and an individual student or group of students. The ST did not incorporate pair or group work. The second variation was less TC with some characteristics of LC teaching practices. The data from the present study seem to suggest that the percentage of classroom organisation is not a good indicator of how much the ST tended to lean towards an LC or TC approach.

- There was not very much pair or group work in all 18 lessons observed. Furthermore, when students were assigned to work in groups, some worked cooperatively but some did not. However, most of the students were given the opportunity to help, teach, and learn from each other, whilst working in pairs or groups.
- Learner-centredness was promoted when a task used by the teacher involved real communication, sharing information, negotiation of meaning and interaction (Nunan and Lamb, 1996) .
- It was observed that the students were encouraged to make choices and were given a voice in the classroom by choosing their own partner or groups when they did pair or group work, along with behaving responsibly whilst working in pairs or groups, but this occurred infrequently.
- The main teaching resources were teacher-made handouts and worksheets. In the handouts and worksheets, language exercises were frequently found. They were form-focused rather than meaning-focused. Few worksheets were meaning-focused. Textbooks were used briefly in only two lessons (ST1's first lesson and ST2's second lesson). Pictures, word cards and flash cards were commonly used by the STs to teach vocabulary. All teaching materials were frequently used to deliver knowledge.
- Opportunity for students to participate actively was rarely observed.
- Questions employed by the STs required students merely to display factual information.
- There were minimal opportunities for students to construct knowledge, ask questions, or initiate ideas during their teaching.

- ST4 employed a pre-test to find out the students' prior knowledge, and a post-test to inform him how much the students had learned.
- All the STs (except ST4) and their students took on a range of roles, but this occurred infrequently. The STs mainly played the role of knowledge transmitter, rather than that of a facilitator. The content of lessons and how they were taught was under the teachers' control. Teachers did not devolve power, control or responsibility to the students.
- The STs only to a limited extent provided an environment in which knowledge could be constructed. Additionally, an environment conducive to learning was not often created.
- Classroom atmosphere was safe, relaxed, well ordered, friendly and non-threatening.
- Grammar was frequently taught explicitly, as well as being very TC.
- Most of the teaching focused on form rather than on meaning.

5.5.2 Things not Observed

- Evidence of learning goals being made explicit to students was not found.
- Teaching did not focus on students and learning.
- All the STs failed to set multiple tasks, to cater for student differences, and to accommodate different learning styles. Students had no choice in the selection of their own learning tasks. All the students performed the same tasks at the same time.
- No deployment of communicative tasks, such as information-gap or problem-solving activities, project work, role-plays, discussion, etc.

- There was limited use of activities to facilitate the process of knowledge construction.
- Opportunities for students to take control of their own learning, make decisions on ‘content selection, methodology and evaluation’ (Nunan, 1989, p. 19), set their own learning objectives, or initiate content and activities were not observed.
- It was not found that the teachers piqued the students’ curiosity, nor did they introduce them to all the learning resources (Weimer, 2002).
- Students were not equipped with meta-cognitive strategies (‘strategies that manage learning’ (Hedge, 2000, p. 77)).
- It was not observed that the STs integrated peer- and self-assessment within the teaching process. Thus, students were not trained to monitor their own progress.
- Students were not nurtured to think critically and independently. They were not empowered or valued.
- Students were not motivated to learn intrinsically.
- Teachers did not incorporate a confluence of affective and cognitive learning (Brandes and Ginnis, 1996).

5.6 Summary

This chapter has presented the data on the STs’ beliefs about the LCA and their classroom practices. The use of pair or group work, doing activities, student involvement, teacher roles and student roles are the characteristics of the LC teaching

practices which were acknowledged by all the STs. There appeared to be different types of connection between the STs' beliefs and their classroom practices. While there was some congruity between the STs' beliefs and their classroom practices, incongruent relationships were also evident. Some of their stated beliefs and classroom practices were both consistent and inconsistent with LC teaching practices. In the next chapter, the findings will be discussed in relation to earlier and current studies in the field of the LCA and teacher cognition.

Chapter 6. Discussion

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the key findings are discussed in light of the questions posed in the study, the conceptual frameworks underpinning this study, and the literature in the field. It begins with a discussion of student teachers' (STs) understanding of the learner-centred approach (LCA) and their misconceptions about the principles and practices of learner-centred (LC) teaching (section 6.2). The next section (6.3) focuses on an account of how STs apply the LCA to teaching. The mismatch between the STs' stated beliefs and their classroom practices is highlighted in section 6.4. The final section (6.5) argues that various factors have an impact on the divergence between the STs' stated beliefs, their classroom practices and their application of the LCA.

6.2 What is the Thai Student Teachers' Understanding of the Learner-Centred Approach?

6.2.1 *Understanding of the Learner-Centred Approach*

This study explored non-native speaker (NNS) pre-service English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers' understanding of the principles and practices of the LCA during their teaching practicum in schools. It provides insight into how six STs conceptualised learner-centredness. Their knowledge and understanding of the LCA was inferred from the major themes which emerged from the investigation, and their

account of the principles and practices of this approach, as reflected in their ability to ‘articulate the principles of ... [LC] teaching and awareness of the implications for classroom practice’ (Carless, 2003, p. 489). The data show that the STs’ conception of a model of instruction exhibited more learner-centredness than their actual practice. This result is consistent with Fung and Chow’s (2002) findings, which found that the professed beliefs held by fifty-nine first-year pre-service teachers in Hong Kong were more LC, while their actual classroom practices were more didactic.

The findings of the current study suggest that the STs had some understanding of the practices of the LCA, since they were partially able to articulate some characteristics of LC teaching practices. In this study, when the STs thought of the LCA, they thought about the use of pair or group work, doing activities, and student involvement in the teaching-learning process, along with the multiple roles played by the teacher and students (see Table 5.7). These features (see Table 2.3) are commonly cited in the literature, both in mainstream education and in language teaching (e.g., Cuban, 1993; Tudor, 1993; 1996; Graan, 1998; Weimer, 2002; Jones, 2007; McCombs and Miller, 2007). They were also able to describe some potential advantages of the use of pair or group work and activities. Most of them (ST1, ST2, ST3 and ST6) were able to describe some constructivist elements of learner-centredness, for instance, learning by doing, helping each other learn and learning from each other. Four of the STs (ST1, ST2, ST3, and ST6) were able to identify some roles of teachers and learners in a LC classroom (see Table 5.5 and Table 5.6). There is evidence to suggest that ST3 and ST6 had a better understanding of this approach than the others. The data also highlight the fact that all the STs had a positive attitude towards the LCA and

welcomed this approach. Some of them (ST1, ST3 and ST6) believed that this approach was important in terms of maximising students' learning.

The STs evidently lacked a clear understanding of the LCA, since their account of the principles and practices of this approach was superficial and fragmented. Although their description touched on some main elements of learner-centredness, and all of them believed that students benefitted from working in pairs or groups and doing activities, closer examination of the data suggests that they did not have a clear understanding of the theoretical foundation that explicates the rationale and the principles underlying each LC element stated. In addition, it would appear that they had not only inadequate pedagogical practices to put LC teaching into practice, but also a limited understanding of how to apply the LCA in real classrooms, as well as how to turn their understanding of the tenets of this approach into practice. It was also found that some LC elements were misunderstood. Their superficial and fragmented understanding of the LCA seems to have had an impact on their actual classroom practices, and may have led to varied degrees of application of the LCA by the STs.

The absence of the remaining key features of the LCA gave a clear indication that they did not understand the concepts, principles and practices which constitute the LCA. Based on the findings presented in chapter 5, there are numerous points worth noting. Even though LC teaching was conceptualised as five themes, mentioned above, many of the key features of LC teaching were never mentioned in the interviews. The areas of consideration that were not mentioned were:

- placing great emphasis on student learning and knowledge construction (see section 2.3),
- putting the needs of learners at the centre of the teaching-learning process,
- emphasising the engagement of the learner in the decision-making process,
- taking account of individual differences (see section 2.4.1),
- motivating students to learn intrinsically,
- empowering learners to think, and take responsibility for their own progress,
- promoting learner training (see section 2.6),
- developing the learner as a whole person (see section 2.3.2).

These omissions reflect not only the complexity STs faced in defining their knowledge of learner-centredness or describing their beliefs about the LCA, but also their lack of in-depth understanding of this approach.

The STs' understanding of this approach tends to exert influence on what they do in their classrooms. The findings provide some evidence that the characteristics of LC instruction which were not stated by the STs in the interviews were almost completely absent from their pedagogical practices (see Table 5.7 and section 5.5). For example, none of them mentioned 'learner training' and the role of the teacher as a facilitator of learning, both of which are of central importance in the successful adoption of the LCA. They did not express their view about the use of activities as a tool to provide their students with the opportunity to construct knowledge, to learn by discovering, and to cater for individual differences. Another example of this is evident in their account of opportunities for students to have a voice and share in the making of decisions regarding a language course in terms of goal setting and content,

as well as study mode selection, setting assessment criteria, and classroom rules (Nunan, 1988; Tudor, 1993; Haney and McArthur, 2002). This tenet is also essential in this approach, since it leads to the achievement of the ultimate goal of this approach, learner empowerment (Tudor, 1996).

The absence of these key tenets in their accounts may illustrate their inadequate understanding of learner-centredness. The complete absence of these tenets may stem from their shallow understanding of the LCA, and their lack of understanding of the underlying principle of these tenets in language education (National Institute for Educational Development, 2003), pedagogical practices and experience. This might have been owing to their lack of any metalanguage to describe why they do what they do. Alternatively, they may not have been well enough equipped and prepared to adopt this approach. The degree of their application of the LCA may well have increased if they had fully understood these tenets and their theoretical underpinnings, and been aware of how and what they should do to translate their understanding into practice.

These results have a number of similarities with Brush and Saye's (2000) findings. The teacher in their study also had difficulties understanding the role of the teacher as a facilitator, owing to her lack of experience of student-centred learning and her limited knowledge of her responsibilities as a classroom facilitator.

The STs' understanding of the principles and practices of the LCA is likely to be central to guiding their classroom practices. This absence of some key LC elements in

their accounts not only reveals that all the STs lacked a good understanding of the LCA, but also that this lack of understanding may have led to its absence from their pedagogical practices. This finding substantiates the mutual interaction between the beliefs and classroom practices in the literature (Clark and Peterson, 1986; Phipps and Borg, 2009). STs' beliefs can shape what STs do in the classroom, whilst their instructional behaviour can affect their beliefs. In the current study, the STs were more inclined to translate, reinterpret and integrate their ill-conceived notions of the LCA into their existing teaching routine (Karavas, 1993). Additionally, it seems likely that their understanding of the principles and practices of this approach may facilitate the application of this approach to teaching.

These results confirm the findings from previous mainstream educational research (Cuban, 1993; O'Sullivan, 2004), which found that teachers' understanding affected the extent and ways in which the LCA was implemented. The impact of teachers' understanding on the implementation of EFL innovation has also been reported in Libya (Shihiba, 2011), Hong Kong (Carless, 2003), Greece (Karavas-Doukas, 1995), South Korea (Li, 2001), Japan (Sakui, 2004; Nishino, 2012) and Thailand (Nonkukhetkhong *et al.*, 2006; Prapaisit de Segovia and Hardison, 2009). In the Hong Kong context, Carless (2003) found that three primary school English teachers' understanding of the implementation of task-based teaching was one of the factors that affected the implementation of a task-based pedagogic innovation in his study. Similarly, Karavas-Doukas (1995) investigated the degree of implementation of a communicative learner-centred curriculum and textbooks by fourteen Greek secondary school English language teachers. She found that the limited

implementation of the new curriculum was a result of the teachers' incomplete understanding of the principles and practical implications of the approach. Like Carless (2003) and Karavas-Doukas (1995), Sakui (2004) reported that one reason why CLT (communicative language teaching) was not implemented was the teachers' interpretation of CLT.

6.2.2 Misunderstanding of the Learner-Centred Approach

Another interesting discovery, from close scrutiny of the data, revealed that the STs had some misconceptions about the principles and practices of the LCA. Their misconceptions had considerable influence over their actual classroom practices, as they put these misconceptions into action. These misconceptions may provide an explanation for the rationale behind their teaching practices. Their misconceptions can be summarised as follows:

Misconception 1: Doing activities refers to doing something

Their first misconception of the principles and practices of learner-centredness was related to their inaccurate conception of doing activities. There is some evidence to support the fact that the majority of the STs' interpretation of 'doing activities' was not in agreement with the use of activities encompassed in the LCA (for more details see section 5.3.2). For them, if their students were doing something (see section 5.3.2), they were doing activities. This reflects both their misconceptions about doing activities in the LCA and their inaccurate understanding of the rationale for using activities in a LC classroom in language teaching. Moreover, doing activities tends to

be a surface manifestation of LC teaching, which they possibly confused with the reality of LC teaching (O'Neill, 1991; Tudor, 1996).

In their classrooms, it was clearly evident that most of the STs (except ST4) involved their students in doing something which was not for the purpose of knowledge construction, using English for communication, encouraging negotiation of meaning between students, or producing realistic use of the language (activities used by ST1, ST2, ST5 and ST6). These misconceptions might preclude them from changing their pedagogical practices into an effective use of the LCA. This finding is significant, since it provides some insights into the influence of their misconceptions on what they do in their classroom. It is evident that if the STs do not have a clear understanding of how and why activities are essential for LC teaching, this will prevent them from implementing it successfully.

Misconception 2: If students have a chance to speak and do not only sit down and listen to the teacher, the instruction is LC

Another misconception of how LC teaching operates in practice, and something which helped contribute to the STs' lack of success in adopting the LCA, was how they viewed 'teacher talk' and 'student listening' in the classroom. The majority of the STs held the view that if they did not spend the whole period explaining, their teaching was LC. Alternatively, if their students did not merely sit down and listen to teacher talk, or if their students were occupied with doing something, this constituted LC teaching. One example of this was ST4, who took the view that if, in the lesson, his students had an opportunity to speak or he was not the only one who talked, it was

LC instruction. He said that 70% of his lesson was LC, but in fact there was clear evidence that it was very TC (see more description in section 6.3). In their lessons, it was observed that they did not spend the whole period explaining, but their explanations were always followed by assigning their students to do something. Such ingrained misconceptions might hinder the progression and willingness of the STs to change their pedagogical practices into LC teaching.

Misconception 3: Student involvement

The association of the LCA with the notion of active learning and learner involvement was another misconception. The STs believed that if students were occupied with doing something and had an opportunity to speak or give answers, they were actively involved (see more examples of their misconceptions in section 5.3.3). This sentiment also reflected their misconception about ‘learners’ active involvement’ during the teaching-learning process and ‘learner involvement’ in LC teaching. According to them, ‘learner involvement’ refers to the giving students the opportunity to say something or do something, instead of just sitting down and listening to the teacher during a lesson. The beliefs the STs held were not compatible with the concept of learner involvement in the LCA (see the definition of learner involvement in section 2.6).

In fact, in a LC classroom, students can be actively involved when they have discussions, do small-group projects (Rogers and Freiberg, 1994), brainstorm, solve problems and participate in thinking (King, 1993), together with contributing and sharing ideas in order to enhance their learning. Owing to these misconceptions, it

may prove difficult to change the STs' teaching approach and pedagogical practices into a LCA. These results also confirm the findings of a study by Graan (1998), who found that teachers in Namibia equated the LCA with learner involvement in the learning process. Nonetheless, she observed that keeping learners occupied did not necessarily mean that they were learning.

This study produced results which corroborate the findings of a great deal of work conducted in the field of ELT (Karavas-Doukas, 1996; Thompson, 1996; Li, 2001; Shihiba, 2011). Shihiba, who investigated conceptions of the communicative learner-centred approach held by secondary school English teachers in Libya, found that the teachers' misconceptions of the communicative learner-centred approach had an impact on their implementation of this approach, or made them hesitate to adopt this approach. In addition, the teachers' misconceptions may make it hard for them to change their classroom practices. Some instances of their misunderstanding from his study included it being an approach that caused 'undisciplined and noisy classrooms' (Shihiba, 2011, p. 193) and the teachers were afraid that they could be disempowered if they implemented this approach. In Li's study, one of the main reasons that led eighteen South Korean secondary school English teachers to reject CLT was their misconceptions about it. They viewed CLT as an approach that did not allow them to teach grammar (Li, 2001). In a similar vein, Thompson (1996) concluded that eliminating misconceptions about CLT was indispensable in adopting this approach. Such teacher misconceptions as a setback to the implementation of a new approach are nothing new. Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991) also warn us that 'people will always

misinterpret and misunderstand some aspect of the purpose or practice of something that is new to them’.

6.3 To What Extent Did Student Teachers Apply the Learner-Centred Approach to Teaching During their Internship?

One of the primary aims of the present study was to discover how STs applied the LCA to teaching during their internship. Classroom observations revealed that they applied this approach to their teaching to a limited extent (see section 5.5). Their pedagogical practices were still teacher-dominant. The characteristics of their teaching practices were more teacher-initiated than student-initiated, focusing more on imparting knowledge to the students than on constructing knowledge, and more on teaching than on learning, and more in favour of involving low thinking skills than higher order thinking skills. The deployment of pair or group work and communicative activities remained limited; additionally, they still adopted, primarily, the traditional role and retained control of the learning process. Some STs only applied a ‘label or a surface feature of the learner-centred pedagogical theory’ (Mtika and Gates, 2010, p. 402), for instance, classroom group work, where students still did not work cooperatively.

The degree of the application of LC pedagogy varied from ST to ST, even though all the STs believed in the value of this approach, and clearly stated that they used the LCA in their classes. However, there was little evidence to suggest that some LC elements were being adopted (see section 5.5). It was observed that ST3 exhibited

more elements of the LCA than the other STs. In her lessons, she utilised group work and communicative activities (see Table 5.3 and Table 5.4). She provided her students with the opportunity to practise using English (for more information see section 5.3.1). At that moment, several characteristics of LC teaching practices were evident in her lessons. These included cooperative learning, negotiation for meaning, constructing knowledge, collaboration, focusing on learning, and multiple roles played by the teacher and students.

It was clearly evident that all the STs (with the exception of ST4) opted to use a hybrid of TC and LC teaching practices (see section 5.5). They tended to apply the TCA (teacher-centred approach) more than the LCA to their actual classroom practices. None could be confidently classified as an LC teacher, since their classroom practices, only occasionally, reflected the philosophical and psychological foundation, together with the characteristics of learner-centredness (see sections 2.3.1, and 2.3.2 and the characteristics of LC teaching practices in Table 2.3).

Little adoption of the LCA was observed in ST4's lessons. His pedagogical practices were very didactic. He devoted most of his lesson to the explanation of grammatical rules in Thai, through the use of drills and repetition. This meant his teaching was whole-class teaching (see Table 5.2). After he had talked at length, he gave room for his students and, in consequence, they had a chance to speak when the teacher allowed them to answer questions. He viewed his students as 'organisms that can be directed by skilled training techniques to produce correct responses' (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 62). Nevertheless, they mainly listened to the teacher. When a

student could not answer his questions, he constantly answered his own questions, and asked a student to repeat the answer after him (see Extract 1d). He did not employ any techniques to help the student learn how to answer his questions. He did not assign students to work in pairs or groups or utilise any communicative activities in his three lessons. Nevertheless, he adopted the role of facilitator, when he assigned students to do grammatical exercises individually in his third lesson. He circulated around the class, providing students with individual help, but this only lasted for 11 out of 138 minutes.

One remarkable finding of this study which advances our knowledge of learner-centredness is the possibility of LC instruction in a classroom which is arranged in lines and roles. Classroom arrangement is and has been one of the major barriers to implementing pedagogical initiatives, but the findings of this study indicate that this traditional arrangement of desks in rows and lines did not impede the application of LC teaching. Interestingly, there was no direct correlation between the application of the LCA and the classroom layout in this study. The physical setting of the classroom in the schools involved in the present study was still in lines and rows, but students' desks and chairs are movable. In sixteen lessons observed, the arrangement of desks and chairs was in lines and rows facing a board (see Table 5.2 and Appendix M- Figures 1A, 1B and 1C). This study also found that although the class was organised in lines and rows, three STs (ST3, ST5 and ST6) could conduct LC teaching or use group work. On the contrary, the arrangement of desks and chairs that allowed students to sit in groups (see Appendix M- Figure 1D) did not facilitate the deployment of group work or the adoption of the LCA. Crucially, in this study, it

would appear that the physical setting of the classroom was not necessarily a determinant feature which indicated whether the instruction was TC or LC. LC teaching thus could be performed when students sat in lines and rows facing the blackboard. This study offered some evidence to substantiate the claim that the arrangement of the classroom was not a barrier to LC teaching, if the teacher chose to adopt this approach. This result contradicts previous results reported in Nunan (1999) and Cuban (1993), who state that teaching is most probably TC when students sit in lines and rows.

Another important finding in this study is that the degree of STs' learner-centredness did not always correlate with the percentage of the mode of classroom organisation (see Table 5.3 and section 5.3.1). This finding is supported by Graan (1998), who makes it clear that learner-centredness is not always equal to group work. Therefore, the percentage of how much the classroom was organised could not be used as a *bona fide* indicator of LC teaching. This finding lends support to the previous findings in the literature, claiming that the teacher is a key agent in the adoption of pedagogical initiatives (Frymier, 1987; Kennedy, C 1999; Fullan, 2007; Bullock, 2011).

The findings in this study strongly suggest that the use of pair or group work does not ensure that the teaching is LC, unless it is properly undertaken. Without a proper understanding of the underlying principles and theoretical foundation of grouping students, group work cannot help students to participate actively, or guarantee that language learning needs can be achieved. This study suggests that when an appropriate choice of task is employed, together with proper classroom management

(see Extract 1e), pair or group work is highly beneficial. It promotes language learning, cooperative learning and collaboration (Long and Porter, 1985; Nunan, 1988; Legutke and Thomas, 1991; Karavas-Doukas, 1996; Jacobs, 1998; Ellis, 2003), along with improving students' communicative skills (Moloi *et al.*, 2008). In the observations (in ST3's second and third lessons), the conditions mentioned above (more details on this topic can be found in Ellis, 2003) enabled her students to have opportunities to share their ideas and learn from, as well as help, each other. In addition, they have more opportunities to use the language in a more meaningful and realistic way, and it also increases students' motivation, as they are more involved (for more advantages of group work, see Long and Porter, 1985; Jacobs, 1998; Ellis, 2003). The findings of the current study are consistent with the ideas of Ellis (2003) and Jacobs (1998) who suggested that 'it is not enough to simply put students into groups to complete a task' (Ellis, 2003, p. 269).

The use of group work by ST5 in her lessons reflected not only her superficial knowledge without clear understanding of principles underpinning group work, the cooperative principles, but also the underlying instructional rationales. Moreover, the data seem to suggest that she did not have a clear understanding of how to put group work into practice. The use of group work and the task designed by ST5 in her third lesson focused on competing, rather than on fostering collaboration and cooperation (for a detailed review on this topic, see Jacobs, 1998).

The findings related to the teachers' roles in the classroom reveal that the STs failed to adopt the roles required for the application of the LCA. This means that they rarely

adopted the role of facilitator, activity organiser, guide, monitor, helper, motivator and counsellor. Additionally, none of them catered for individual differences, needs and interests. All the STs mainly assumed the role of dominant knowledge transmitter, controller and authority.

There are several possible explanations for this failure. Firstly, adopting the LCA requires greater teacher capabilities, extra responsibilities and new pedagogical skills which may not be ‘explicitly developed in all teacher training programmes’ (Tudor, 1996, p. 230). Secondly, sharing control and responsibilities requires more confidence on the part of the STs, and greater willingness to take risks. Inexperienced STs may not be ready to ‘employ shared control strategies’ (Haney and McArthur, 2002, p. 798). Thirdly, it may be related to the interpersonal aspects of the role (e.g., the teacher’s personality, attitudes, beliefs and prior learning experiences) and task-related aspects of roles – ‘teachers’ and learners’ expectations about the nature of learning tasks and the way in which individuals and groups deal with learning tasks’ (Wright, 1987, p. 12). Finally, the failure may be a result of the STs’ limited use of pair or group work and communicative activities. These results also suggest that they did not truly conceptualise what role the teacher needs to play in the LCA, and understand the rationale behind these roles.

The results of this study seem to be in accordance with the earlier findings reported by Evans (1997) and Sato and Kleinsasser (1999). Sato and Kleinsasser studied ten Japanese teachers’ views and practices of CLT and found that their instruction was still didactic. Likewise, Evans (1997) reported that a didactic style of teaching is still

dominant in the Hong Kong secondary English language classroom. Owing to the minimal implementation of CLT, the roles played by Hong Kong teachers and learners in the teaching-learning process were very traditional. Power, authority and control remain in the teachers' hands, while students are mainly involved in listening to the teacher.

In the same vein, the students still adopted traditional roles, such as those of listener and receiver. The students did not assume responsibility for their learning because all the STs maintained control and their teaching and learning process focused on teaching rather than learning. The roles adopted by their students were influenced by, and reflected, the STs' basic assumptions about how students learn (Huba and Freed, 2000), their personal view of teaching, and their teaching philosophy (Richards and Lockhart, 1996). In order to alter the roles played by the learner, there must be a change in the roles adopted by the teacher (Tudor, 1993).

Two unanticipated findings in the current study are worth mentioning here. First, the classroom practices of the majority of the STs were very TC when the focus of a lesson was on grammar. It was observed that grammatical rules and sentence structures were explicitly taught, using fill-in-the-blank worksheets (in ST1's and ST2's third lesson, ST4's lessons, ST5's first lesson and ST6's third lesson). The present findings seem to be consistent with those of other research, which found that teachers continue to employ the traditional approach to teaching grammar (Richards *et al.*, 2001; Farrell and Lim, 2005; Wang and Ma, 2009). This finding is particularly important in the sense that these STs need more training in order to be capable of

teaching grammar in a more LC way. A similar point is made by Numrich (1996), who discovered that novice ESL teachers also experienced difficulties in teaching grammar in context, and furthermore that they felt that they did not have sufficient knowledge to teach grammar.

Second, all six STs used their first language (L1) as the main language of instruction (see all extracts in Chapter 5). In fact, as English teachers, their teacher education programme expects them to use English as the medium of instruction (Gao and Benson, 2012) because they tend to be the main source of input (Gill, 2005; Harmer, 2007). Their overuse of L1 may reflect the fact that they are transmission-oriented teachers. In addition, this could raise questions about the effectiveness of their teaching method and whether their students receive enough English language input. Their overuse of L1 deprived their students of opportunities to exposure to the real use of English for communication, especially since schools are not always located in big cities.

It also seems questionable whether the STs' ways of approaching English language teaching and their overuse of L1 in class were acceptable. According to Cook (2008), 'the less the first language is used in the classroom, the better the teaching' (p. 180). The present findings are in accordance with the findings of Kırkgöz (2008) and Orafi and Borg (2009). These studies also reported limited evidence relating to the use of English in the observational data, especially in a context where English is taught as a foreign or second language, such as Thailand.

The current study provides important insights not only into how the STs understood learner-centredness, but also their misconceptions about the LCA. It also sheds new light on the extent to which their understanding was in line with learner-centredness, their application of this approach, the extent to which their actual classroom practices converged with their stated beliefs about the principles and practices of this approach, and the factors influencing the STs' ability to adopt this approach. Numerous obstacles, recurrently identified by all six STs during the interviews, were probably responsible for their limited application of this approach. For instance, all six STs struggled in deciding whether or not to use pair or group work, together with which activities to use, and how to maintain discipline. Their pre-existing personal beliefs, combined with their understanding of this approach and their misconceptions about it and their students, appear to be the dominant factors shaping their classroom practices.

6.4 What is the Relationship between their Understanding and their Classroom Practices with Regard to the Learner-Centred Approach?

This current study examined STs' stated beliefs about the LCA, their classroom practices (enacted beliefs), and the relationship between their stated and enacted beliefs. The findings of this study provide a considerable insight into the relationship between STs' beliefs and actual classroom practices. It becomes clear that there is an inter-relationship between pre-service teachers' stated beliefs and classroom practices (Li and Walsh, 2011). Some of their actual classroom practices reflected their beliefs. Surprisingly, the investigation of the linkage between the STs' stated beliefs and

practices provided evidence that the STs' actual practices concurred with their stated beliefs in the areas of doing activities and student involvement, which were their misconceptions about the LCA (see section 6.2.2).

The findings clearly demonstrate that there was a limited relationship between the STs' stated beliefs and their actual practices. Nevertheless, there is *prima facie* evidence to suggest that the beliefs the STs expressed did not always converge with their teaching practices. Similar findings have been widely reported in other teacher cognition research (Sato and Kleinsasser, 1999; Richards *et al.*, 2001; Basturkmen *et al.*, 2004; Sinprajakpol, 2004; Farrell and Lim, 2005; Mitchell, 2005; Orafi and Borg, 2009; Phipps and Borg, 2009; Basturkmen, 2012). Li and Walsh (2011, p. 52) assert that the linkage between teachers' beliefs and their pedagogical practices is not 'single, straightforward and linear'. Moreover, their relationship is 'complex and personal and closely related to contextual factors'. Some instances of the divergence between professed and enacted beliefs (Speer, 2005) which were found in the present study were as follows:

Mismatch 1: STs believe that working in pairs or groups is beneficial, but their use of pair or group work is limited

As discussed in section 5.3.1 and 5.4, all the STs were disposed to the use of pair or group work. In their observed practices only 1.10% were spent on pair work and 5.36% on group work (see Table 5.3). The STs reported that there were some factors and constraints preventing them from putting this belief into practice. For example, they experienced some difficulties when they attempted to use it. ST2, ST5 and ST6

clearly stated that their use of pair or group work was blocked by their students' behaviour (these constraints will be discussed in detail in section 6.5 below.).

Mismatch 2: STs rarely employ activities although they think that doing activities is one characteristic of LC teaching

All the STs agreed that in a LC classroom, a teacher should allow students to do activities, but in their actual practices, only two communicative activities were exploited (see Table 5.4). The findings reveal that these practices do not match with their beliefs. One possible reason for this discrepancy was that the use of activities was time-consuming. Other possible reasons may have been their limited knowledge of designing activities, their superficial understanding of the LCA in practice, their misconceptions, and encountering discipline problems.

Mismatch 3: STs perceive that in a LC classroom, they should play multiple roles; however, in practice they mainly adopt the role of a knowledge transmitter

The majority of STs believed that if the teacher is LC, he/she should adopt various roles. In their actual classroom practices, all of them mainly adopted the role of knowledge transmitter. There was little evidence that they played other roles required by the LCA. Some of the reasons for this discrepancy have already been mentioned in section 6.3.

Mismatch 4: STs believe that students no longer play only one role, but in their practices, students mainly adopt the role of recipient

Three STs (ST2, ST3 and ST6) mentioned several roles that students should play in a LC classroom. However, in all the lessons observed, they tended to place greater emphasis on passing on knowledge. This made their students mere passive receptors of information (Attard *et al.*, 2010). Students' opportunities to adopt other roles were comparatively rare. This disparity could be influenced by a number of possible reasons (for more discussion, see section 6.5).

The illustration of the relationship between the STs' stated beliefs about the LCA and their actual classroom practices is presented in Figure 6.1.

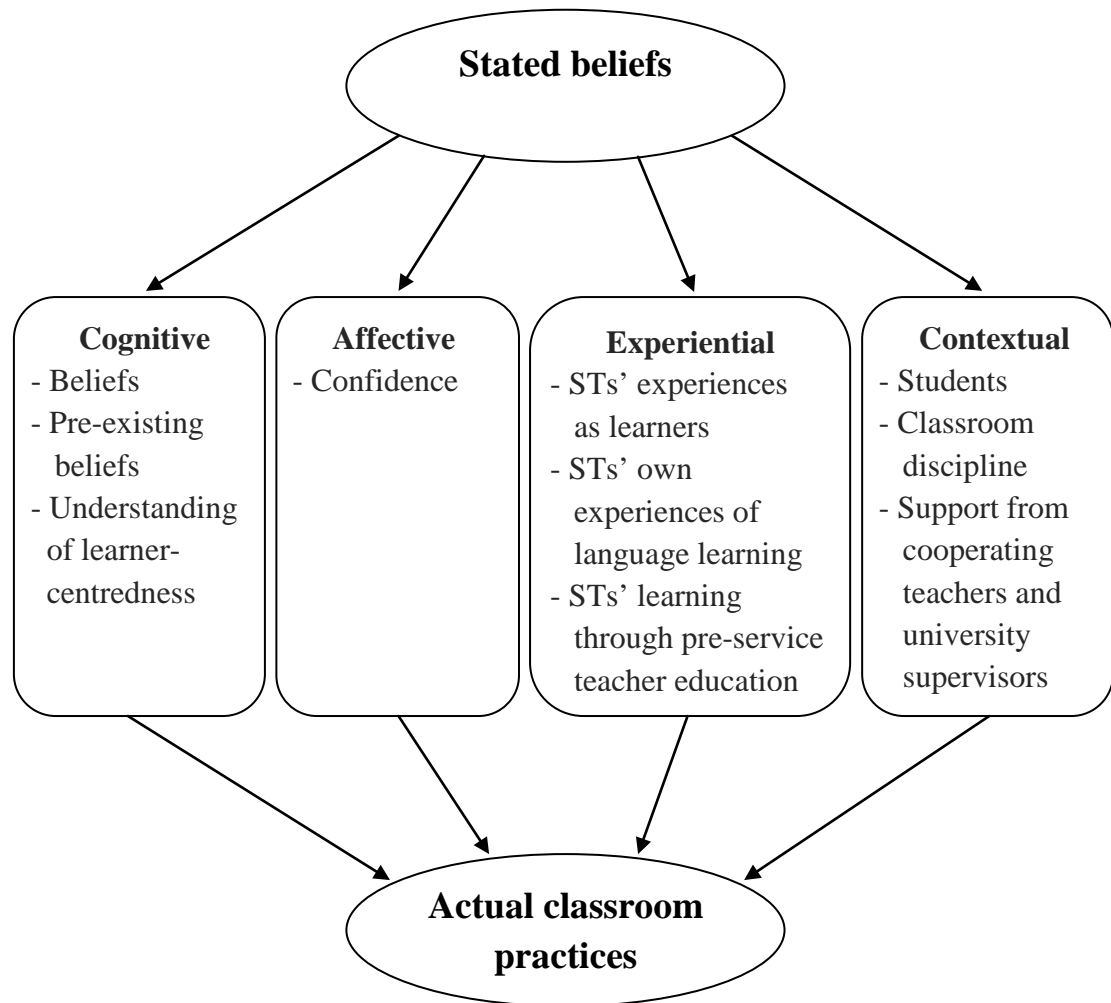


Figure 6.1 Student teachers' belief-practice relationship

The STs' ability to adopt the LCA and to put what they believed into practice may have been hampered by certain factors. As shown in Figure 6.1, contextual factors come into play in mediating the relationship between STs' stated beliefs and practices (Basturkmen, 2012). This result confirms the findings of previous studies (e.g., Burns, 1996; Fang, 1996; Johnson, 1996; Karavas-Doukas, 1996; Woods, 1996; Richards and Pennington, 1998; Andrews, 2003; Farrell and Lim, 2005; Farrell and Kun, 2008; Lee, 2009; Basturkmen, 2012) that contextual factors and constraints are

highly significant in shaping what teachers do in the classroom (for more details, see section 3.6).

The relationship between what the STs said and did in this study was not straightforward (Calderhead and Robson, 1991). The following are examples of the relationship between the two:

I understand the LCA, and I apply it to teaching.

I understand the LCA, but I do not have to apply it to teaching.

I probably do not understand the LCA, but I apply it to teaching.

Their adoption of the LCA and their pedagogical practices tended to be affected by cognitive, affective, experiential and contextual factors (Borg, 2006b; Phipps, 2009). It can be stated that the findings of this study also provide compelling evidence from the field of English language teaching (ELT) that support Borg's (2006b) and Pajares's (1992) fundamental assumptions about teachers' educational beliefs. As claimed by Pajares, beliefs 'play a critical role in defining behaviour and organising knowledge and information' (p. 325).

One of the most striking results to emerge from the analyses of the link between the STs' understanding and their pedagogical practices is what made two STs (ST3 and ST6) more capable of putting the LCA into practice than the others, but also what factors influenced their adoption of this approach. These findings are very important, since it is not possible to suggest an appropriate course of action to tackle their

incapability of adopting this approach. In what follows, factors obstructing their ability to adopt the LCA are discussed in detail.

6.5 Factors Affecting the Application of the Learner-Centred Approach

There are a multitude of factors which may have affected the degree of application of the LCA and the mismatch between the beliefs the STs hold and their actual classroom practices. These factors had an impact on both their cognition and their adoption of this approach. As Borg (2006b, p. 275) points out, ‘the study of cognitions and practices in isolation of the contexts in which they occur will inevitably, therefore, provide partial, if not flawed, characterizations of teachers and teaching’.

Factors that limited the STs’ ability to put the LCA into practice and the discrepancy between their beliefs and actual practices can be divided into cognitive, affective, experiential and contextual factors (Borg, 2006b; Phipps, 2009). The interaction between these factors is dynamic (Borg, 2006b). These factors tend to be hierarchical. The cognitive factor, which includes both the STs’ own beliefs and the pre-existing beliefs they brought with them on entering a teacher education programme, as well as their understanding of learner-centredness, is the most important determinant. Successful application of this approach rests on these factors.

Apart from these factors, the STs’ intentions, enthusiasm and proficiency in English may have affected their adoption of the LCA. The STs’ intention to adopt (or not to

adopt) this approach is the most immediate determinant of their application of the approach (Kennedy and Kennedy, 1996; Kennedy, D 1999; Ajzen, 2005). For example, ST4's intention to use this approach seemed to be less than that of the other STs. In addition, the way he taught signified that he was not as enthusiastic as the others, since his lessons were not lively. He did not put a great deal of effort into making his lesson interesting (see section 6.3). His proficiency in English was the lowest of all the STs (the STs' levels of proficiency in English were obtained from the grades they achieved in all English courses that they took at their university). The discussion of the impact of these factors will be presented in the subsequent sections. For clarity of data presentation, each factor will be discussed separately; however, in practice, these factors are inextricably interrelated.

6.5.1 Cognitive Factors

There is evidence to suggest that cognitive factors had a major impact on the STs' ability to adopt the LCA. These factors include their beliefs, pre-existing beliefs and understanding of learner-centredness. In the sections that follow, the influence of each factor will be examined individually.

Student Teachers' Beliefs

The STs' beliefs obviously play a part in shaping their pedagogical practices. It seems clear that ST4, who held a strong belief that he did not have the ability to teach by applying LC pedagogy, adopted LC principles and practices to a very limited extent. This belief may have had a considerable influence on his instructional choices, and his decision to cease trying to adopt this approach in his lesson, even after being

given significant support from his cooperating teacher. As he tended to adhere strictly to this belief, it is, perhaps, this belief that prevented his adoption of the LCA. During the interviews, he also stated that he asked his cooperating teacher to allow him to focus on teaching grammar only, owing to this belief. He believed that activities were not essential, if his students had an opportunity to interact with him. There was no evidence of the use of activities and pair or group work in his three lessons. Unlike ST4, both ST3's and ST6's pedagogical practices reflected more learner-centredness. This may be because they did not have a fixed mindset. Ajzen (2005, p. 127) highlights 'the role of beliefs in determining the [teacher's] intention' to adopt a particular change.

Student Teachers' Pre-Existing Beliefs

The STs' limited application of the LCA may have been affected by their deep-seated traditional beliefs about teaching, learning and learners. Aside from these firm beliefs, mentioned earlier, it is widely acknowledged that pre-existing beliefs have a powerful impact on how the teacher teaches, and might deter them from applying LC teaching (Calderhead, 1991; Calderhead and Robson, 1991; Kagan, 1992a; Pajares, 1992; Johnson, 1994; Almarza, 1996; Calderhead, 1996; Borg, 1998b; Richardson, 2003). Within the field of language teacher cognition, there is ample evidence that 'teachers' learning and teaching theories, although implicitly and in many cases unconsciously held, have an effect on their classroom behaviour and are a potent determinant of teachers' teaching style' (Karavas, 1993, p. 44).

The results of this study would seem to indicate that STs' pre-existing beliefs may impinge on the varying degrees of adoption of the LCA, and serve as a 'filter through which they determine the priorities of different factors' (Chen, 2008, p. 67). Some STs had the view that teaching is a process of filling an empty vessel, and that their role is that of knowledge provider; students are very innocent and are like clean and clear water; transmitting knowledge to students is similar to adding colour to water. Their view reflected transmission beliefs (see Table 2.1).

It should be noted that these six STs' backgrounds and learning experiences seem to be fairly didactic. The way they taught and the roles they enacted might stem from their pre-existing beliefs (Pajares, 1992; Johnson, 1994; Almarza, 1996; Johnson, 1999; Richardson, 2003), which are still transmission-oriented. This finding concurs well with Kember (1997), and also confirms previous findings in the literature (Bullock, 2011; Borg and Al-Busaidi, 2012).

Kember's (1997) study indicated that teaching conceptions have an influence over teaching practices. Consequently, in order to change a teaching approach, there is a need to change beliefs about teaching. Kember (*ibid.*) further stated that 'a lecturer who holds an information transmission conception is likely to rely almost exclusively upon a unidirectional lecture approach' (p. 270). A similar conclusion was reached by Karavas (1993), and Kennedy and Kennedy (1996). Within educational research, one of the primary obstacles in introducing the new innovation is teachers' beliefs. The importance of altering teachers' beliefs was also underscored by Fullan (2007). He

contends that to change teachers' classroom practices and to achieve lasting reform, it is essential to change their beliefs.

Student Teachers' Understanding of the Learner-Centred Approach

A full and clear understanding of the principles and features of learner-centredness and its practical implication might assist STs in successfully adopting the LCA in their classroom. As mentioned in sections 6.2.1 and 6.2.2, the STs' lack of understanding of and their unclear conceptions as well as misconceptions about learner-centredness were a barrier to their successful adoption of the LCA, and led to the discrepancy between their expressed beliefs and pedagogical practices. It would appear that the influence of their understanding and their misconceptions was immense. This finding is in line with those of previous studies (e.g., Karavas-Doukas, 1995; Li, 2001; Carless, 2003; Chen, 2008; Attard *et al.*, 2010; Shihiba, 2011), which found that teachers' understanding of and misconceptions about an innovation are crucial in determining whether or not they adopt it. ST3 and ST6, who had a better understanding of this approach than the others, were more likely to put this approach into practice successfully. The limited adoption of this approach in ST4's observed lessons was probably caused by his equally limited understanding of this approach and his misconceptions about LC teaching and learning. Additionally, he did not believe in this approach and lacked the desire to adopt it. Thus, understanding without believing cannot increase LC teaching practices.

6.5.2 *Affective factors*

Student Teachers' Confidence

Lack of confidence may be one reason why the STs were reluctant to adopt the LCA. It seems clear that if their confidence in their own English proficiency and teaching was enhanced and nurtured, their pedagogical practices and classroom teaching might have been more learned-centred. As Berry (1990) and Sakui (2004) posit, to increase the teacher's confidence, there is a need to improve the teacher's proficiency. Berry further states that language improvement plays a vital role in facilitating the use of the target language in the classroom and widening pedagogical choices. Teachers who have high proficiency in English seem to be more confident (Amengual-Pizarro, 2007). In this study, ST5, who had a low level of proficiency in English, repeatedly stated that she did not have much confidence in either the subject matter or pedagogical content knowledge. Moloi *et al.* (2008) also found that the teachers in their study avoided teaching grammar owing to their lack of confidence. They observed that the teachers made the pedagogic choices that 'they are likely to regard as "safe" for the maintenance of their authority and the avoidance of challenging tasks in which they would lack confidence' (p. 620). Phipps (2009) and Andrews (2003) reported that teachers' lack of confidence had an impact on their teaching. The finding of the current study corroborates those of other research and the ideas of Wang and Ma (2009, p. 251), who suggested that STs who were more 'competent in subject knowledge were found to be more confident to try learner-centred activities ... while those whose language proficiency was not as good were found to be more traditional and to lack confidence in managing teaching'.

In this study, ST4, who was less proficient in English than ST3 and ST6, was likely to have less confidence in his ability to adopt the LCA. As a consequence, a lack of confidence might have caused ST4 to avoid applying this approach in his lessons, and inhibited him from taking risks in experimenting with this approach.

6.5.3 *Experiential Factors*

The STs' own learning experience may have been the reason why their pedagogical practices were still teacher-dominated. It is widely recognised that the a teacher's learning experience through his/her schooling may profoundly influence how the teacher teaches. Lortie (1975) argues that the influence of an 'apprenticeship of observation' is responsible for preconceptions that teachers have about teaching (Grossman, 1995; Almarza, 1996; Richards and Pennington, 1998; Farrell, 1999; Borg, 2002; Da Silva, 2005). The STs' image of teaching is formed and nurtured during the several years they are required to observe what is going on in the classroom as learners themselves. Research also supports the idea that teachers teach as they have been taught, rather than as they have been trained to teach (Bailey *et al.*, 1996). Furthermore, the way they teach is probably influenced by their prior language learning experience (Johnson, 1994; Burns and Knox, 2005; Borg, 2006b). Freeman (1992, p. 3) concludes that 'the memories of instruction gained through their "apprenticeship of observation" function as *de facto* guides for teachers as they approach what they do in the classroom'.

Mtika and Gates (2010) noted that 'student teachers can only then end up using teaching and learning approaches which mimicked their lectures' (p. 399), if they

have inadequate pedagogical knowledge and practice. In particular, if lecturers at a university mainly adopt a transmission-oriented approach (see Excerpt 1), STs will inevitably lack adequate practical expertise to adopt LC teaching. This suggests that it is necessary for teacher educators to model and illustrate using collaborative as well as cooperative learning extensively, whilst delivering all courses (Mtika and Gates, 2010). In Thailand, the teaching-learning process still relies heavily on a didactic approach (Nonkukhetkhong *et al.*, 2006).

6.5.4 Contextual Factors

Student Factors

Difficulties caused by their students possibly contributed to the reluctance of the STs in this study to adopt the LCA, and their inability to put what they believe into practice. It appears that the majority of the STs (except ST3) perceived this factor as being the most obstructive. These difficulties include student discipline, lack of student cooperation, unmotivated students, students' low English proficiency, and students' responsibility, together with students' mixed abilities. Students' ability and discipline could possibly have been the dominant factors that hindered ST1 and ST2 from using group work and activities in their lessons, while for ST5, a lack of cooperation and responsibility on the part of the students made her reduce the frequency of her use of group work and activities. Moreover, she also had difficulties when assigning students to work in groups, since demotivated students or weak students did not want to do anything. Only the more competent students did a task. The lack of cooperation and responsibility from weak students was evident in her third lesson (see Figures 5.3 and 5.4). Five (out of six) STs (with the exception of

ST3) expressed their concern about students' low proficiency. These difficulties are probably powerful enough to override their positive attitudes toward the use of pair or group work and activities (Kennedy and Kennedy, 1996).

These results reflect those reported in Smith (1996), Richards and Pennington (1998), Li, (2001), Moloji *et al.* (2008), Wang (2007), Yilmaz (2007), and Nishino (2012). Smith (1996) studied the pedagogical decision of nine experienced ESL (English as a second language) teachers. She found that teachers commented on a wide range of goals of using tasks in their classroom, but only two jigsaw tasks were used. Student characteristics had a major impact on teachers' decision making. Richards and Pennington (1998) also found evidence that the constraints of the teaching context, students' lack of discipline and students' low English proficiency were factors that inhibited first-year English teachers in Hong Kong from implementing the CLT in their classroom.

In addition to these factors, Thai students are used to rote-learning and memorisation; furthermore, they are never trained to share responsibility, make a decision or monitor their own progress. The structure of Thai society and the influence of Thai culture (see section 1.3.1) may make students in Thailand find it hard to become an active learner. These challenges were also found in Turkey (Yilmaz, 2007).

Classroom Discipline

Another factor that had a powerful influence on the STs' instructional practices was their difficulties in handling noise and controlling classroom discipline. The STs'

beliefs about the importance of classroom discipline might deter them from applying LC teaching (Sato and Kleinsasser, 1999; Carless, 2004). The findings seem to suggest that the two STs (ST3 and ST6) who had fewer difficulties with classroom discipline tended to apply more LC teaching in their teaching. ST4 mentioned that he had some problems in handling noisy and disruptive students. Three STs (ST1, ST2, and ST5) hesitated to employ group work and activities because they were used to experiencing difficulties when they employed them. ST2, who recurrently referred to her difficulty in monitoring student performance during the use of group work in the interviews, explained that if she could have managed chatty and disruptive students well, it would have allowed her to use more activities and group work. It was observed that she avoided using group work in her lesson (see Table 5.3). During the observation, there was evidence to support their concern (in ST5's and ST6's lessons). Classroom management is a big hurdle for pre-service teachers to cross and one of their key problems (Joram and Gabriele, 1998; Gao and Benson, 2012). These factors have been documented by other researchers (e.g., Sato and Kleinsasser, 1999; Li, 2001; Carless, 2004; Nishino, 2012). Carless (2004, p. 653) found that the teachers in his studies experienced 'tensions between the desire to carry out activities and a wish to maintain a quiet, orderly classroom'.

The STs in the current study tended to have the view that learning could not be achieved and that they could not teach effectively if the class was not well managed. For them, classroom management appears not only to be an essential but also a prerequisite condition for learning to take place. This result is similar to Joram and

Gabriele's (1998), who found that this view coincides with a transmission model of learning.

The finding also suggests that the majority of the STs lacked the ability or practical skills to manage their class successfully. A teacher education programme needs to provide STs with more training in handling noise and maintaining classroom discipline.

Another possible reason why they were concerned about classroom discipline might be related to school policies. Additionally, from their point of view, teaching is not effective if the class is noisy. ST5 said that when she utilised activities, the classroom was always noisy and chaotic. It was not good for her, as she was a ST, and the policy of the school was that the class should be quiet. This challenge appears to resonate with twenty-four second-year BA TESL pre-service teachers' perceptions about CLT and their difficulties in adopting CLT in Hong Kong, as Miller and Aldred (2000) discussed. In their findings the pre-service teachers stated that the 'school will not allow pair work as it is too noisy' (Miller and Aldred, 2000, p. 13). There is ample evidence to suggest that the STs' ability to adopt practices which reflect their professed beliefs or to put LC teaching into practice is likely to be hampered by these factors.

Insufficient Support

Support from a university supervisor and a cooperating teacher was vital for the STs' adoption of the LCA. ST6 stated that the application of the LCA was emphasised by

her first university supervisor. She encouraged her to employ this approach and, after the first observation, she gave her some advice on how to improve her teaching to make it more LC. ST3 explained that her university supervisor's advice assisted in helping steer her teaching in the right direction. The STs' desire for helpful advice and guidance from a university supervisor is evident in this study. However, two STs (ST2 and ST4) stated that they had never been observed by a university supervisor, and the rest had been observed only once, during the period of ten months when they were on school placement. In the case when their university supervisor visited them once or twice a semester at their schools, he/she still did not have an opportunity to observe their teaching. The supervision from a university supervisor is likely to have had some influence on the application of the LCA. The non-implementation of this approach by ST4 is probably caused by a lack of supervision from his university supervisor. There may be a greater tendency for STs to apply the LCA to their teaching if they obtain more support and supervision from their university supervisors.

It is worth mentioning that each ST was under a cooperating teacher's supervision. Essentially, all six STs obtained cooperating teachers' comments about their lesson plans. ST1 complained about the lack of advice from her cooperating teacher. She further added that she was never observed by her cooperating teacher whilst she was doing her internship at this school for nearly a whole academic year. She did not know whether what she did was right or wrong or proper or improper, and furthermore, she could not improve her teaching because she was not given enough

feedback. This factor appears to be regarded as an impediment to STs' application of the LC teaching.

The majority of the STs further recounted that they had two kinds of feeling. The first was their wish for their teaching not to be observed by their university supervisors, as they wanted to obtain a good grade. In contrast, the second was that they wanted to be observed by their university supervisors more frequently, as they wanted to obtain advice from them on how they could correct their teaching mistakes (Mtika and Gates, 2010). When asked about which one they preferred, all of them chose to be observed by their university supervisors. This suggests that they intended to learn how to teach and improve their teaching. The findings of this study are consistent with those of Beck and Kosnik (2002), who found that STs need sufficient feedback from a cooperating teacher and a university supervisor for their growth, while Farrell (2007a) reported that discussion with a university supervisor might help improve STs' 'understandings of what it means to teach' (p. 200). Mak (2011) also found that the participants in her study were able to adapt their teaching when they frequently discussed it with their teaching advisor.

This current study provides considerable insight into a university's and schools' policy on the adoption of the LCA. Although the LCA has been a requirement in the Thai National Education Act since 1999, most of the STs' university supervisors and cooperating teachers did not have a clear policy on the adoption of the LCA. The results suggest that the application of this approach does not seem to be a prerequisite of their university. These findings were unexpected and suggest that teacher

education programmes should take these findings into consideration in terms of the policy on the adoption of this approach and the frequency of university supervisors' and cooperating teachers' supervision.

The findings of these factors widen our knowledge of the LC instruction adopted by STs and would strongly suggest that the STs' inability to adopt learner-centredness is a consequence of the interplay between these factors. The juxtaposition of factors that play a part in ST3's success in adopting the LCA and ST4's inability to adopt this approach may demonstrate the complex interplay of such factors. Table 6.1 summarises these factors.

Table 6.1 Factors facilitating and obstructing student teachers' ability to adopt the learner-centred approach

Factors	ST3	ST4
Intention	Strong intention	Weak intention
Enthusiasm	More enthusiastic	Less enthusiastic
Proficiency in English	Intermediate	Low
Beliefs	No strong beliefs	Holds strong beliefs in his inability to adopt the LCA
Pre-existing beliefs	Similar	Similar
Understanding of learner-centredness	Better understanding	Poor understanding

Table 6.1 *(continued)*

Factors	ST3	ST4
Misconceptions about learner-centredness	Fewer misconceptions	More misconceptions
Confidence	More confident	Less confident
Learning experiences	Similar	Similar
Students	No constraints	Some constraints
Classroom discipline	No difficulties	Some difficulties
University supervisor's support	Obtain some support	Obtain less support
Cooperating teacher's support	Sufficient support	Sufficient support

As can be seen from Table 6.1, a number of factors assisted ST3 in applying the LCA:

- her strong intention
- her enthusiasm
- her intermediate proficiency in English
- her understanding of learner-centredness
- her few misconceptions about learner-centredness
- her confidence in her ability to teach
- her partial support from her university supervisor.

These factors probably put ST3 in a favourable position. However, it is not meant to imply that the application of the LCA can be fostered by these factors alone (Carless, 2001). It appears that misconceptions about this approach and the strong personal beliefs held by ST4 played an important role in preventing him from adopting this

approach. These findings suggest that in order to learn to adopt a new approach, these are characteristics that a ST should possess, and what he/she needs to be able to do. Without any relief from these factors and constraints, it may be hard for the STs to adopt this approach effectively, or they may stop experimenting with this approach.

Apart from all the factors mentioned above, the reasons that underlie the limited relationship between the STs' stated beliefs and practices, along with the application of the LCA, may be complicated. Some constraints, reported by all the STs were evident in some of the observed lessons, while others might simply be the excuses the STs used to justify their teaching practices (Lee, 2009). However, understanding these constraints helps us fathom the complexity of the STs' mental lives, which is 'central to the process of understand teaching' (Borg, 2006b, p. 1) and have a better understanding of 'what language teachers think, know and believe - and of its relationship to teachers' classroom practices' (p. 1).

6.6 Summary

This chapter has discussed how the STs understand learner-centredness. From the findings, it is apparent that the STs tended to understand only some surface features of the LCA. Their understanding of this approach was limited, fragmented and superficial, as they did not have a good understanding of the principles underlying the LC teaching practices. Moreover, they also had inadequate pedagogical practices to enact LC teaching. The data demonstrate that their understanding of, and their misconceptions about, learner-centredness had an impact on their actual classroom

practices, as well as on their application of this approach. There was little employment of this approach during their internship, owing to various impediments. To some extent, the stated beliefs of the STs are reflected in their actual classroom practices. The findings corroborate the widely acknowledged view that the relationships between the STs' understanding of the principles and practices of the LCA, their actual classroom practices and constraining factors are complex. Various factors contribute to the STs' inability to adopt this approach and these factors are closely interrelated. In the final chapter the conclusions of the study are presented, along with the implications as well as the limitations of this study, and suggestions for further research.

Chapter 7. Conclusions

7.1 Introduction

In this chapter a brief summary of the present study is first provided. In section 7.3 the main findings are discussed in relation to the research questions. The pedagogical implications of the findings for teacher education along with the contributions of this study are elaborated in sections 7.4 and 7.5; this is followed by a discussion of the limitations of the study. The final section outlines suggestions for future research.

7.2 Summary of the Study

This study has explored non-native speaker (NNS) pre-service English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers' beliefs about the learner-centred approach (LCA) and their teaching practices. The study has sought to provide an account of what they believed, knew and did (Borg, 2003) in regard to the LCA during the last semester of their internship at schools in Thailand. To elicit their understanding of the LCA and to capture the complexity of their mental lives to help in understanding their pedagogical practices, multiple data collection methods were employed. These included introductory interviews, two post-lesson semi-structured interviews, three sets of classroom observation, the pre-service teachers' lesson plans, teaching materials, and the curriculum of the language teacher education programme (English). The sample consisted of six pre-service teachers from a five-year teacher education

programme, specialising in English, and carrying out their internship in four different schools.

The purposes of the current study were to uncover how pre-service teachers understand the principles and practices of the LCA, their adoption of this approach, and the linkage between their beliefs and their actual classroom practices. The study has shed light on impediments that prevented these pre-service teachers from translating their beliefs into their teaching practice and limited their application of the LCA (see section 6.5 and Table 6.1). The aim of this study was not to judge or evaluate pre-service teachers' classroom practices, but to describe their understanding of the LCA and the degree of their application of this approach, since the changes in pre-service teacher training, initiated in 2004. The main theoretical framework underlying the study combined Borg's (2006b) concepts of language teacher cognition (see chapter 3) with the concept of the LCA (see chapter 2) in mainstream education (e.g., Weimer, 2002; McCombs and Miller, 2007), as well as the LCA in language teaching (Nunan, 1988; Tudor, 1996). The study addressed the following questions:

1. What is the Thai student teachers (STs)' understanding of the LCA?
2. To what extent did STs apply the LCA to teaching during their internship?
3. What is the relationship between their understanding and their classroom practices with regard to the LCA?

7.3 Main Findings

As discussed in section 6.2.1, the pre-service teachers' understanding of the LCA seemed to be superficial and fragmented. The level of their understanding of this approach varied. As shown in chapter 5, it was found that they understood some surface features of LC teaching practices, had an incomplete understanding of the principles underlying the characteristics of LC teaching practices, and did not actually understand how to put some features of LC teaching into practice. Some of the main tenets of learner-centredness were not understood by them, which led to a complete absence of their adoption of these tenets. It seems clear that their conceptualisations only partially matched the notion of learner-centred (LC) teaching practices (see Table 5.7 and Table 2.3). This study has also provided some insights into not only areas of their incomplete understanding of the LCA, but also areas of their misconceptions about this approach. It was also found that their understanding of and their misconceptions about the LCA affected what they actually did in their classrooms.

There was a limited attempt to apply the LCA in the STs' teaching practices (see sections 5.5.1, 5.5.2 and 6.3). It seemed that they lacked confidence and the willingness to take the risk of applying this approach to their teaching and, in addition, they were not required by the course to use this approach. As a consequence, they incorporated only a few elements of LC teaching practices, such as student mobility and students' opportunities to assist, learn from and teach each other, and neglected to use other key features, such as learner training and joint decisions

about content selection. Their instructional practices were teacher-dominant, even though all the STs valued the LCA.

More divergences between the STs' stated beliefs and their actual classroom practices were found in the current study. The investigation of the relationship between what they said and what they did in their classrooms shed light on the complexity of the relationship between their beliefs and their actual classroom practices and on those factors that assisted them in adopting the LCA (Figure 6.1 and Table 6.1). These factors included their intentions, enthusiasm, proficiency in English, and confidence in their ability to teach. The STs' superficial and fragmented understanding of learner-centredness, their misconceptions about this approach, their strong personal beliefs, together with pre-existing beliefs, their apprenticeship of observation, their learning experience on the teacher education programme, and difficulties caused by their students, as well as difficulties in handling noise and indiscipline, all helped to contribute to the STs' reluctance to put the LCA into practice. These findings confirm those of previous studies and contribute additional evidence that suggests that the support offered by their university supervisors and cooperating teachers plays an important and integral role in steering their teaching in the right direction. Moreover, the STs' own positive attitudes towards their teaching can help them overcome a variety of difficulties and constraints which are an inherent aspect of teaching, and in so doing, help open their thinking toward accepting and adopting the LCA.

Some of the findings of this study conflict with those found in the literature. (Cuban, 1993; National Institute for Educational Development, 1999; Nunan, 1999). First,

there appeared to be no direct link between the adoption of the LCA and the classroom arrangement. This study thus provides new insights into the possibility of LC teaching in a classroom where the arrangement of desks is in lines and rows, since in this study, it appeared that the traditional arrangement of desks in lines and rows did not actually impede the application of the LC teaching. Second, according to the literature, group work signifies LC instruction. People have previously thought that if the class is arranged in groups, the instruction will be learner-centred. The findings of this study suggest that just because group work is occurring, this does not necessarily mean that the LCA is being applied. The use of pair or group work does not guarantee that the instruction is LC unless it is properly used, with appropriate tasks and effective classroom management. Simply put, group work is not necessarily always going to be LC instruction. Third, the link between the degree of the STs' learner-centeredness and the percentages of the mode of classroom organisation was found to be tenuous.

7.4 Pedagogical Implications

It is hoped that the findings obtained from this study will be beneficial for teacher educators at universities who teach various courses training teacher candidates how to teach. In light of these findings, this study also has a number of important implications for future practice, and suggests several courses of action for teacher educators at the university where all the participants in this study came from. The findings may have wider implications for other Rajabhat and elite universities in

Thailand, as well as for other developing countries with similar contexts and where English is taught as a foreign language (FL).

7.4.1 Explicitly Focusing on Beliefs

The results of this study demonstrate the influence of beliefs on both classroom practices and on learning how to teach. This finding points to the need for university courses to foster a self-awareness among pre-service teachers of their tacit beliefs which they bring to a teacher education programme and of the positive and negative effects these beliefs can have on their teaching and learning; this can be done by providing them with opportunities critically to reflect on their beliefs in light of input and their instructional practices (Crandall, 2000; Russell, 2005; Li and Walsh, 2011). By integrating ST's values, beliefs and knowledge into the learning process, the entire process of teacher education becomes reflective and rewarding (Kumaravadivelu, 2001).

STs' pre-existing beliefs have a profound effect on the input they receive from a teacher education programme (Kagan, 1992b; Pajares, 1992) and on their learning how to teach. If these pre-existing beliefs are left unexamined, the possibility of their forming new ideas and new habits of thought and action is reduced (Borg, 2009). The growth in the STs' knowledge about teaching relies on their opportunities to make their pre-existing beliefs explicit, to scrutinise and challenge them (Calderhead and Robson, 1991). Borg (2002, p. 424) argues that 'the lack of discussion of the beliefs that they [trainees] brought with them to the course must be considered a weakness'; thus, if teacher educators help STs to become aware of the strong and pre-existing

beliefs they hold, and to understand why they hold them, this could reduce the impact of ‘belief block’ (ibid.).

It is evident that the pre-existing beliefs of the STs in this study are still transmission-oriented. Without altering these pre-existing beliefs, it is hard to make a shift from TC to LC teaching practices. This study suggests that teacher training courses should not only provide input into LC teaching practices, but also help STs shift their transmission-oriented view of teaching to a constructivist view of teaching (for conceptual change strategies, see Korthagen (2004)). It is not easy to change STs’ beliefs, but it is possible (Sinprajakpol, 2004; Cheng *et al.*, 2009).

7.4.2 Maximising Student Teachers’ Understanding of the Learner-Centred Approach

This study represents an initial step toward enhancing our understanding of how pre-service teachers understand the LCA. As discussed in chapter 6, the STs lacked any understanding of the strong philosophical and psychological foundation of this approach and of some of the key features of LC teaching practices, as well as of the principles underlying these features and how to put this approach into practice. One implication of these findings is that teacher educators need to take both their unclear understanding of and their misconceptions about the LCA into account. Teacher educators could make use of these findings to design learning activities. They also need to ensure that STs have a sound understanding of LCA practices, as well as of the principles underlying this approach, and at the same time know how to put it into practice, in order to minimise their failure to adopt this approach.

The findings in this study can be of great value to teacher educators, in helping to inform them about which principles and practices of the LCA the pre-service teachers misconstrued or did not fully understand (see section 6.2.2). It is highly recommended that teacher educators spend more time on these areas. The insights from this study suggest how teacher educators can assist pre-service teachers in having a better understanding of this approach.

An examination of their classroom practices indicates that it is important for teacher educators to incorporate LC pedagogy in their own practices, since during Thai STs' long apprenticeship they are exposed to a teacher-centred rather than to any other approach (Prapaisit, 2003). Having no opportunity or few opportunities to see LC teaching practices makes it even harder for them to change their beliefs (Nespor, 1987). To increase the application of this approach, this study suggests that teacher educators should try to find a balance between pedagogical theory and pedagogical practice. As Lortie (1975) argues, the 'apprenticeship of observation' is one of the most powerful influences in shaping an image of teaching. For this reason, to enable pre-service teachers to see a new way of teaching, by using this approach whilst they are being trained, may enable them to translate this approach more into their teaching practices. Without adequate modelling and demonstration, the adoption of this approach is bound to fail. This means that it is a must for a teacher educator to teach by consistently and repeatedly demonstrating the behaviour and attitudes he/she expects STs to use in their teaching (Bailey *et al.*, 1996). In other words, teacher educators need to 'teach what they preach' (Korthagen, 2004, pp. 88-89).

STs need to have both pedagogical knowledge and practice to guide them, as well as to help them form the image of LC teaching and to encourage them to use this approach. Accordingly, teacher educators should not only model a LC teaching and learning environment, but also provide STs with more opportunities to put what they have learned into practice. This study also highlights the importance of the practical aspect, as it helps STs who lack not only sufficient exposure to, but also an understanding of LC teaching practices, to learn how to apply this approach. It is in fact not easy for STs to adopt this approach on their own (Zeng, 2012).

Teacher educators could maximise STs' knowledge of learner-centredness by using examples of transcripts of real classroom events or a video recording of teaching by STs, to help stimulate discussion and reflection whilst the principles and pedagogical practices of learner-centredness are being learned, and thus their teaching would become more illustrative. Viewing transcripts of real classroom events or a video recording of teaching would also allow them to 'develop an understanding of their thinking and the ability to verbalize and think through what they are doing' (Almarza, 1996, p. 75). Incorporating real data of actual classes into the delivery of teacher education programmes (Phipps, 2009) offers STs opportunities to learn how to teach using the LCA, helps to make their beliefs and practices explicit, and enables them critically to reflect on all possible aspects of LC teaching in order to learn how to improve their teaching and overcome various difficulties. Clearly, teacher training plays a key role in preparing pre-service teachers to be capable of adopting the LCA.

7.4.3 Training Pre-Service Teachers to Become Reflective Practitioners

Critical reflection can help minimise the divergence between STs' stated beliefs and their classroom practices, mismatches of which they may be unaware. According to Williams and Burden (1997, p. 53), 'if teachers are to be effective in whatever approach they decide to take, it seems reasonable to expect them to act consistently in accordance with their expressed (or 'espoused') beliefs'. However, Argyris and Schön (1974, p. 7) argue that the 'theory that actually governs [an individual's] actions' (theory-in-use) is likely to be inconsistent with his/her espoused theory. A large amount of inconsistency tends to make students 'receive confused and confusing messages' (Williams and Burden, 1997, p. 54). Therefore, to reduce the degree of discrepancy, teacher educators need to equip STs with the ability to engage in ongoing critical reflection, in order to become reflective practitioners (Schön, 1991).

Critical reflection implies that 'teachers should be aware of their belief systems and constantly monitoring how far their actions reflect those beliefs or are in keeping with them' (Williams and Burden, 1997, p. 55). Critical reflection can provide STs with opportunities to evaluate their teaching, decide what changes they should make and monitor the effects of these changes (Wallace, 1991; Richards and Lockhart, 1996; Farrell, 2007b). When STs become reflective practitioners, they not only 'turn thought back on action' (Schön, 1991, p. 50), but are also able to reflect on their own teaching and their implicit beliefs.

STs are able to make their tacit or implicit knowledge explicit through reflection on action. Additionally, critical reflection may unlock the impact of their pre-existing beliefs on their teaching (Farrell, 1999), give them insight into the rationale behind their teaching (Johnson, 1999), and assist them in questioning their own practices, all of which leads to improvement. Through reflection and ‘knowing-in-action’ (Schön, 1991), they gain more experiential knowledge (Wallace, 1991). Various strategies can be used as a power tool to encourage reflective practice. These strategies include a case investigation (LaBoskey, 1993), journal writing, and conducting action research (Daniels, 2002; Farrell, 2007b). Becoming a reflective practitioner is beneficial to an individual’s growth, as well as to his/her continuing professional development, and promotes deep learning. Furthermore, it is also a powerful ‘vehicle for enhancing the development of effective teachers’ (Allen and Casbergue, 1997, p. 741).

7.4.4 Requiring Additional Training in Some Areas

The evidence from this study suggests that STs need additional training in specific areas. One of the weaknesses of the STs who took part in this study was a lack of knowledge and skills in designing activities to include tasks that develop students’ communicative skills (see Table 5.4). In a LC classroom, a task becomes not only a ‘central pedagogical tool for the language teacher’ (Williams and Burden, 1997, p. 168), but also an important tool to encourage cooperation and cooperative learning and to construct knowledge. Their teaching would have been more LC if they had better understood how to design communicative activities and the purpose of using activities in language learning and in a LC classroom.

This study has shown that STs adopted a transmission approach to teach grammar. Explaining grammatical rules in Thai, followed by exercises, was the common technique used by the STs. They need to be trained how to teach grammar effectively. All STs should be equipped with a knowledge of grammar and with the skills needed to adopt inductive approaches to teaching grammar. Medgyes (1999, p. 184) also claims that ‘an EFL teacher with faulty English may be compared to a music teacher who can play no musical instrument and sings out of tune’.

7.5 Contributions of the Study

This study also highlights the importance of an investigation of pre-service teachers’ pedagogical practices through the cognitive bases of their teaching behaviour, and shows the value of disentangling and understanding the thinking that underlies their classroom practices in relation to learner-centredness.

Although the national goal of the Thai education system is a LC education, there has been no empirical data published on the current status of Thai pre-service teachers’ beliefs about the LCA and their practices. The findings of this study therefore enrich our understanding of the issue and make a substantial contribution to the literature. The findings also contribute to pre-service teacher training and ELT (English language teaching) beyond Thailand. The current study thus makes methodological contributions to research on teaching and language teacher cognition and undoubtedly contributes toward teacher education.

7.5.1 Methodological Contributions

This study confirms previous claims that employing semi-structured interviews in conjunction with classroom observations yields rich data, providing access to the complex nature of STs' beliefs, as well as uncovering and providing a clearer understanding of how STs' stated beliefs translate into their actual classroom practices (Li and Walsh, 2011). Analysing both what STs say and what they do in their classrooms also provides a better understanding of belief-practice relationships, and sheds light on the extent to which beliefs coincide with practices. Moreover, through the use of this methodology, extensive, realistic and in-depth data were generated.

Through combining the analysis of interviews with classroom observation, a 'finer-grained understanding' (Li and Walsh, 2011) of STs' beliefs, teaching and their thought processes can be obtained. In addition, it makes the investigation of STs' beliefs and their practices easier and more accurate. The richness of the data would not have been obtained, and thus the researcher may have run the risk of telling half the story (Kane *et al.*, 2002), if only one data collection method had been used. The present study has confirmed that studies of language teacher cognition should not be conducted in isolation from what the teachers do (Borg, 2006b).

The analytic approach adopted in the current study also makes an important contribution to investigations of teaching and teacher cognition. Analysing classroom observation data deductively and inductively allowed salient issues to emerge throughout the analysis, and revealed a fuller and more accurate understanding of

what STs do in their classrooms than the use of a pre-determined coding system, such as COLT, would have done. The use of structured observation schedules to analyse classroom observation data has been criticised by Seedhouse (2004) and Walsh (2006), since ‘potentially insightful classroom events and behaviours’ (Borg, 2006b, p. 243) may be ignored. This study suggests that fully to understand teaching practices, the coding and analysing of observational data need to be inductive and open. Additionally, there is a need to analyse more than one set of classroom data in order to obtain an accurate and complete understanding of STs’ beliefs and actual classroom practices.

7.5.2 Contributions to Teacher Education

The current study is one of the very first to investigate pre-service teachers’ beliefs and their pedagogical practices concerning the LCA. Furthermore, the context of this study (public secondary schools in Thailand) and the unique attributes (NNS and pre-service teachers from a five-year education programme) of the participants of the study have received little attention in the field of language teaching and language teacher cognition. This study not only fills the gaps in the early research, but also adds to a growing body of literature on learner-centredness.

The exploration of Thai pre-service teachers’ understanding of learner-centredness has never been performed before, and this study, together with its findings, has provided some valuable contributions. First, the current findings contribute to the literature on how NNS pre-service EFL teachers on a five-year teacher education programme understand the LCA, extend the current knowledge of how pre-service

teachers conceptualise the LCA, and add new insights into EFL pre-service teachers' beliefs about the LCA and pedagogical practices. The findings also reveal their actual classroom practices in relation to the literature on TEFL in Thailand, since learning reform through the LCA was stipulated by the enactment of the National Education Act in 1999. This study may also make a contribution to how pre-service teachers in developing countries understand learner-centredness.

Second, the investigation of the relationship between STs' beliefs and their practices contributes to a new direction in the investigation and understanding of STs' teaching performance (Borg, 1998a). As 'teaching is more than observable behaviour' (Almarza, 1996, p. 75), teacher educators or university supervisors should take STs' teaching process and their reasons for what they do in class into account, rather than merely focusing on outcomes (STs' pedagogical practices). Johnson (1999) argues that the exploration of why STs teach as they do is of vital importance to understand the complexity of teaching and the process of learning to teach.

Through this kind of investigation, our understanding of the role of beliefs and the major factors that prevent STs from translating these beliefs into their classrooms in regard to learner-centredness has been broadened. In addition, STs will be able to obtain more help and support to assist them in putting their beliefs into practice, together with applying this approach more in their teaching. The interaction of second language teachers' beliefs, practices and these factors is complex, and how they interact is elusive (Sato and Kleinsasser, 1999). This study suggests that it is

necessary to understand the beliefs which lie behind STs' instructional practices, in order fully to understand their teaching.

Third, this study has made a significant contribution to the provision of pre-service teacher training in Thailand, regarding STs' current understanding of learner-centredness, and the extent to which this approach is being applied in teaching English. This study has also shed light on the difficulties in understanding and adopting learner-centredness. These findings are particularly important, in the sense that teacher educators could make use of these findings to structure their learning tasks more appropriately.

Fourth, the findings also add substantially to our understanding of the factors that are facilitating and hindering pre-service teachers' adoption of the LCA. These factors are complex and interrelated, and help show the difficulty of using this approach, as well as of learning how to teach. In order for teacher educators effectively to help pre-service teachers to adopt this approach, these factors need to be taken into consideration.

The analysis of the constraints that made their actual classroom practice diverge from their stated beliefs, and of the factors that were preventing pre-service teachers from applying this approach in their teaching, reflects the nature and the complexity of pre-service teachers' work. The identification of these constraints and contextual factors offers us a real insight into not only what sort of assistance and support they need to help foster their capability to adopt this approach, but also in which areas and

pedagogical skills they need additional training and preparation. This identification reflects what action should be taken to help STs overcome these challenges, and has implications for action on the policy of university supervisors', as well as cooperating teachers' supervision. To promote LC teaching practices, this study suggests that extending the length of an internship may not be helpful, if a university supervisor and a cooperating teacher do not provide STs with sufficient support and supervision during their one-year internship.

Lastly, by becoming more aware of what STs believe, know and do not know, as well as do, concerning the LCA, teacher educators will be able to be more effective in moving pre-service teachers towards more LC teaching practices. The current study may also make a significant contribution to introducing some necessary changes to pre-service teacher training, in preparing Thai pre-service EFL teachers to become more learner-centred. Moreover, the findings of this study may help facilitate a revision in the design of teacher education programmes for training and preparing pre-service teachers, so that they are better equipped and more capable of adopting the LCA, as well as more knowledgeable about the principles and practices of the LCA.

7.6 Limitations of the Study

Some limitations of this study need to be considered. Firstly, the drawbacks of this study stem from the exploratory nature of the research which limits the scope of this study. The number of participants was relatively small (six pre-service teachers), and

they were selected from only one Rajabhat university, which was not located in a big city. As a consequence, these results cannot be extrapolated to the whole population of pre-service EFL teachers in Thailand. However, although the results might not be transferable to the greater pre-service teacher population studying at other universities in Thailand, they might be applicable to other Rajabhat universities which have similar contexts to the university in this study.

Secondly, during the post-lesson interviews, it was found that occasionally the STs lacked the metalanguage to describe their teaching behaviour. Sometimes they were not able to verbalise the rationale behind their pedagogical practices, or to recall their thinking. This may have been caused by the delay in holding the post-lesson interviews which stemmed from their teaching commitment, delays in transcribing data, along with the nature of the elicitation, and their unfamiliarity with critical reflection. In this study, extracts from their lessons were used to help them recall their thought processes and to facilitate a discussion of their understanding of the LCA, as well as the reasons for their limited application of the LCA. The STs would have been more able to give an account of their underlying thinking if a video recording had been employed. Similar pitfalls were encountered by Basturkmen *et al.* (2004), Sinprajakpol (2004), and Farrell and Kun (2008).

Finally, the researcher had no opportunity to observe how the courses (Principles of learning management and English language learning based on learner) that prepared STs to adopt the LCA were delivered because they were given before my study started. It is suggested that more insights into pre-service teachers' beliefs about the

LCA and their classroom practices could be gained if the process of training could be integrated. This might have provided a more vivid portrait of both the STs' pedagogical practices and their thinking, which was missing in the present study. Nonetheless, this limitation does suggest a new avenue for future research, which is discussed in the following section. Generally speaking, however, the above limitations do not decrease the importance of the findings obtained in the study.

7.7 Recommendations for Further Research

The findings of this study provide the following insights for future research. The participants in this study lacked sufficient knowledge about learner-centredness, and furthermore, the limitations of this study, as indicated above, have led me to suggest that it may prove more fruitful for future research to investigate what is being taught and modelled in pre-service teacher training concerning LC teaching practices. Research of this type could provide a deeper insight into why pre-service teachers have little knowledge of learner-centredness.

Future research could adopt a methodology similar to that used in this study to explore the beliefs about the LCA and the teaching behaviour of pre-service teachers from other universities in Thailand. This would be of great help in the design of pre-service language teacher education programmes, to better equip pre-service teachers, produce more confident, capable and learner-centred future teachers and to promote LC educational reform in Thailand (Dunn and Rakes, 2011).

More insights into the complexity of the dynamic interaction between ST's beliefs about the LCA, their teaching behaviour, and the factors influencing their adoption of this approach could be obtained through a longitudinal study. Consequently, future studies may consider using a longitudinal mode of investigation to yield richer data and gain a deeper understanding. Using the data at different stages of their internship, from start to finish, may provide further insight into this complex issue.

In general, the cooperating teacher and university supervisor are influential in guiding and developing the pedagogical practices of pre-service teachers. The current study has only examined the beliefs about the LCA and classroom practices of pre-service teachers, without the integration of data (beliefs and classroom practices) from university supervisors and cooperating teachers. Further research should be conducted to investigate and compare the relationship between the beliefs of the university supervisor, the cooperating teacher and the assigned ST. Any lack of compatibility or contradiction between their beliefs about the LCA may cause unwelcome friction. By contrast, pre-service teachers may obtain much needed support and benefits when their beliefs have a synergy with those of their university supervisor and their cooperating teacher. Future research needs to be conducted to determine whether there is any mismatch between a pre-service teacher's beliefs and those of the university supervisor and the cooperating teacher. If a mismatch is found, the consequences of this mismatch need to be explored. The results of such a study would be interesting and fruitful.

Since the aim of this study was not to investigate the factors that influenced the application of the LCA, but merely to highlight factors which may be highly influential in either facilitating or impeding the application of the LCA among pre-service teachers, the present researcher believes that a more clinical investigation into these factors and into how they affect and influence pre-service teachers' teaching choices, approaches and practices, may prove extremely beneficial in enhancing future teacher training programmes.

7.8 Concluding Remarks

This study has contributed to an area of research in language teaching by showing the central role that pre-service teachers' mental lives play in shaping their instruction. It broadens our understanding of how pre-service teachers conceptualise learner-centredness and their adoption of this approach.

It has been argued that the investigation of pre-service teachers' rationales for their teaching performance not only provides accurate pictures of their teaching, but also gives teacher educators better ideas concerning how to offer help and support to their teacher candidates in order to promote LC teaching practices and improve their teaching.

This study has provided me with opportunities to learn about all aspects of research. I have developed a broader understanding of pre-service teachers' lives, their beliefs, as well as their teaching practices regarding learner-centredness. It has changed my

understanding of pre-service teachers' teaching from consisting solely of their external behaviour in the classroom to including how the teachers think about their pedagogical practices and what they do in their classrooms. This empirical knowledge will be extremely beneficial to my academic life.

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Appendix A: Consent Form for Participation in Research

I agree to participate in a research project conducted by Darett Naruemon (PhD candidate at Newcastle University, School of Education, Communication, and Language Sciences in the UK).

1. I confirm that I have been informed by the researcher about the purposes and aims of the study.
2. I confirm that I have read and understand the explanation provided to me. I have had all my questions answered to my satisfaction.
3. I voluntarily agree to participate in this study. I can withdraw and discontinue participation at any time, without affecting my grades.
4. Participation involves being interviewed by the researcher three times and three consecutive lessons of mine will be observed. Each interview will last approximately 40-60 minutes. I agree that my interviews and lessons can be audio- and video-recorded.
5. I give my consent to the researcher to use portions of interviews and episodes of classroom observations for academic and research purposes only. I understand that my views will remain confidential from my university supervisor and the cooperating teacher.
6. I understand that the information gained in this study may be published in any final research reports and/or in academic journals as explained. At all times my identity will remain anonymous.

7. I have been given a copy of this consent form.

Participant's signature

Date

I certify that I have explained the study to the participant and consider that she/he understands what is involved and freely consents to participation.

Researcher's name

Researcher's signature

Date

For further information, please contact:

Darett Naruemon

PhD Candidate in Educational and Applied Linguistics

School of Education, Communication, and Language Sciences

Newcastle University, UK

E-mail: darett.naruemon@ncl.ac.uk

Appendix B: Course Descriptions**Instances of compulsory courses in the Bachelor of Education Programme in****English which focus on learner-centredness****Principles of learning management (Course number: 1122303)**

Study and discuss the meaning and importance of learning management, types and models of learning process, learning management skills, methods and planning, and the arrangement of activities to promote learning focusing on learner-centredness and the classroom environment and atmosphere. Practise learning management skills, and write learning management plans. Experiment with learning management in a real situation.

English language learning based on learner (Course number: 1124616)

Study the principles of learner-centeredness in English language learning, teaching and learning activities, instructional materials, and assessment.

Appendix C: Learner-centred Psychological Principles

Cognitive and metacognitive factors**1. Nature of the learning process.**

The learning of complex subject matter is most effective when it is an intentional process of constructing meaning from information and experience.

2. Goals of the learning process.

The successful learner, over time and with support and instructional guidance, can create meaningful, coherent representations of knowledge.

3. Construction of knowledge.

The successful learner can link new information with existing knowledge in meaningful ways.

4. Strategic thinking.

The successful learner can create and use a repertoire of thinking and reasoning strategies to achieve complex learning goals.

5. Thinking about thinking.

Higher order strategies for selecting and monitoring mental operations facilitate creative and critical thinking.

6. Context of learning.

Learning is influenced by environmental factors, including culture, technology, and instructional practices.

Motivational and affective factors**7. Motivational and emotional influences on learning.**

What and how much is learned is influenced by motivation. Motivation to learn, in turn, is influenced by the individual's emotional states, beliefs, interests and goals, and habits of thinking.

8. Intrinsic motivation to learn.

The learner's creativity, higher order thinking, and natural curiosity, all contribute to motivation to learn. Intrinsic motivation is stimulated by tasks of optimal novelty and difficulty which are relevant to personal interests, and provide opportunities for personal choice and control.

9. Effects of motivation on effort.

The acquisition of complex knowledge and skills requires extended learner effort and guided practice. Without the motivation to learn, the willingness to exert this effort is unlikely without coercion.

Developmental and social factors

10. Developmental influences on learning.

As individuals develop, there are different opportunities for and constraints on learning. Learning is most effective when differential development within and across the physical, intellectual, emotional, and social domains is taken into account.

11. Social influences on learning.

Learning is influenced by social interactions, interpersonal relations, and communication with others.

Individual differences factors

12. Individual differences in learning.

Learners have different strategies and capabilities for and approaches to learning that are a function of prior experience and heredity.

13. Learning and diversity.

Learning is most effective when differences in linguistic, cultural, and social background are taken into account.

14. Standards and assessment.

Setting appropriately high and challenging standards and assessing the learner as well as the progress of learning – including diagnostic, process, and outcome assessment – are integral parts of the learning process.

Source: Task Force on Psychology in Education (APA Work Group of the Board of Educational Affairs, 1997, pp. 2-7)

Appendix D: Bachelor of Education Programme in English B.E. 2549 (2006)**Philosophy**

The Bachelor of Education degree curriculum aims to provide learning under educational implementation and suitable educational arrangements for the development of people, work and working systems, according to the principles of equality, and justice. It aims to produce teachers with professional knowledge, capability, quality, morals and ethics, according to the National Education Act of 2542 B.E. and its Amendments (Second National Education Act B.E 2545 (2002)), together with the criterion and conditions set down by the Teaching Profession Council.

Objectives

The general objective of the Bachelor of Education degree curriculum of the Faculty of Education is to produce graduates who have the following qualifications:

1. Love, faith, pride and a professional code of conduct in the teaching profession
2. Morals, ethics, kindness, and clemency for learners
3. Consciousness of both social and self-development, a democratic mindset, and the ability to work with others effectively
4. A personality and behavioural conduct, appropriate for the teaching profession as is required of a good role model

5. The knowledge and capabilities, which are integral parts of the teaching profession, according to the professional standards, and the ability to analyse and resolve teaching-related problems effectively
6. Eagerness to actively want to learn, continual pursuit of knowledge to enhance self-development, and the ability to apply the knowledge gained to ease learner receptiveness and production in the classroom
7. Ability in using Thai and the foreign language communicatively, as well as the ability in using modern technological media
8. Ability in producing educational tools and media in order to promote and accelerate learning
9. Knowledge, ability and skills in the graduates' chosen majors

Structure of the Curriculum

1. General education	31	credits
1.1 Language and communication	9	credits
1.2 Humanities	8	credits
1.3 Social sciences	6	credits
1.4 Science and mathematics	8	credits

2. Professional teacher training	125	credits
2.1 Teaching profession	37	credits
2.1.1 Compulsory	30	credits
2.1.2 Electives	7	credits
2.2 Teaching specializations	74	credits
2.2.1 Compulsory	56	credits
2.2.2 Electives	18	credits
2.3 Practical teaching experience	14	credits
3. Electives	6	credits
Total	162	credits
Teaching Profession	37	credits
1. Compulsory	30	credits

Course number	Course title	Credits
1002701	Computing for teachers	3(2-2-5)
1004701	Administration in school	3(2-2-5)
1111106	Education and self actualization for Thai teachers	3(3-0-6)
1122201	School curriculum development	3(2-2-5)
1122303	Principles of learning management	3(2-2-5)
1132101	Innovation and information technology in education	3(2-2-5)
1142105	Principles of educational measurement and evaluation	3(2-2-5)
1143411	Educational research for learning development	3 (2-2-5)
1151106	Psychology for teachers	3 (3-0-6)
2312707	English for teachers	3 (3-0-6)

2. Electives

7

credits

Course number	Course title	Credits
1002405	Thai education laws	2(2-0-4)
1004702	Activities for learner development	2(1-2-3)
1111201	Educational sociology	2(2-0-4)
1112101	Education for minority groups in Thailand	2(2-0-4)
1112102	Leisure time activity in education	2(2-0-4)
1112201	Education and community development	2(2-0-4)
1113102	Educational policy	2(2-0-4)
1113201	Community school management	2(2-0-4)
1113202	Comparative education	2(2-0-4)
1113204	Educational activities for local	2(2-0-4)
1113205	Educational economics	2(2-0-4)
1113206	Politics and education	2(2-0-4)
1113207	Education and the environment	2(2-0-4)
1113208	Education and cultural adaptation	2(2-0-4)
1113504	Alternative education	2(2-0-4)
1114901	Independent study in education	2(2-0-4)
1114902	Seminars in educational problems	3(2-2-5)
1121206	Curriculum and texts for basic education	2(2-0-4)
1122302	Remedial teaching	2(2-0-4)
1122501	Classroom management techniques	2(2-0-4)
1123201	Co-curriculum activity	2(2-0-4)
1123209	Media and text construction	2(2-0-4)
1123210	Local curriculum development	2(1-2-3)
1123301	Teaching skills and techniques of teaching	2(2-0-4)
1123302	Instructional supervision	2(1-2-3)
1123303	Instructional models	2(2-0-4)
1123304	Media and activities for learning the Thai language	2(2-0-4)
1123305	Media and activities for learning the English language	2(2-0-4)
1123306	Media and activities for learning science	2(2-0-4)
1123307	Media and activities for learning mathematics	2(2-0-4)
1123308	Media and activities for learning computing	2(2-0-4)
1123309	Media and activities for learning social studies	2(2-0-4)
1123310	Media and activities for training	2(2-0-4)
1123601	Skills for science teachers	3(2-2-5)

Course number	Course title	Credits
1123603	Innovation in the classroom	3(2-2-5)
1131204	Utilisation of mass media in education	2(2-0-4)
1132502	Media construction	2(1-2-3)
1133102	Educational innovation	3(2-2-5)
1134101	Telecommunications and distance learning	2(2-0-4)
1142201	Test construction	2(1-2-3)
1143102	Education evaluation	2(1-2-3)
1143107	Performance evaluation	2(1-2-3)
1143110	Ethics measurement methodology	2(1-2-3)
1143409	Statistics and research for teachers	2(1-2-3)
1144201	Aptitude test construction	3(2-2-5)
1151101	General psychology	2(2-0-4)
1151102	Personality development in early childhood	2(2-0-4)
1151103	Child psychology	2(2-0-4)
1151105	Developmental psychology	2(2-0-4)
1151203	Applied psychology for learning	2(1-2-3)
1151301	Theory and group dynamics practice	2(1-2-3)
1151501	Methods of effective study	2(1-2-3)
1151701	Psychological and school guidance services	2(1-2-3)
1151702	Psychological and school guidance information services	2(1-2-3)
1152101	Psychology of motivation	2(2-0-4)
1152102	Psychology of personality and adjustment	2(2-0-4)
1152201	Child psychology and services	2(2-0-4)
1152301	Human relations for teachers	2(2-0-4)
1152503	Mental health in school	2(2-0-4)
1152602	Intelligence assessment in school guidance services	2(1-2-3)
1152701	Life and career planning	2(1-2-3)
1152702	School guidance and student affairs management	2(2-0-4)
1153302	Theories and practices in social psychology	2(2-0-4)
1153304	Human relations in teacher education	2(2-0-4)
1153401	Behaviour modification in school	2(1-2-3)
1153402	Special child psychology	2(2-0-4)
1153501	Adolescence guidance psychology	2(2-0-4)
1153502	Guidance psychology	2(2-0-4)
1153506	Creative thinking process	2(1-2-3)
1153508	Group counselling for Adolescents	2(1-2-3)

Course number	Course title	Credits
1153509	Elementary school child psychology and guidance	2(2-0-4)
1153601	Personality assessment in school guidance services	2(2-0-4)
1153602	Child's behaviour observation	2(2-0-4)
1153613	Group work in school	2(2-0-4)
1153702	Guidance activities for life development	2(2-0-4)
1154101	Parent education	2(1-2-3)
1161101	Principles of educational administration	3(3-0-6)
1161103	Behaviour for educational leaders	2(2-0-4)
1162501	Institutions and development of the teaching profession	2(2-0-4)
1163101	Education business	2(2-0-4)
1163104	Vocational education	2(2-0-4)
1163303	Personnel administration	2(2-0-4)
1164301	Executive fiscal and commodity administration	2(2-0-4)
1171102	Child care and child development	3(3-0-6)
1173203	Early childhood curriculum	3(3-0-6)
1173501	Education for parents of pre-school children	2(2-0-4)
1183601	Inclusive education	3(3-0-6)
1092701	Physical education and recreation for teachers	2(1-2-3)
4234202	Botanical garden in school 1	3(2-2-5)
4234203	Botanical garden in school 2	3(2-2-5)

Teaching Specializations **74 credits**

1. Compulsory 56 credits

Course number	Course title	Credits
1124601	Methods of teaching the English language 1	3(2-2-5)
1124602	Methods of teaching the English language 2	3(2-2-5)
1124616	English language learning based on learner	3(2-2-5)
1124903	Seminar in teaching English	3(2-2-5)
2303107	Phonetics and phonology 1	3(3-0-6)
2311101	Introduction to grammar 1	3(3-0-6)

Course number	Course title	Credits
2311104	Introduction to grammar 2	3(3-0-6)
2311211	Oral communication 1	3(3-0-6)
2311212	Oral communication 2	3(3-0-6)
2311231	Guided writing	3(3-0-6)
2312104	Paragraph reading strategies	3(3-0-6)
2312109	Morphology and syntax 1	3(3-0-6)
2312213	Oral communication 3	3(3-0-6)
2312222	Reading for interpretation	3(3-0-6)
2312304	Introduction to literature	3(3-0-6)
2313105	Paragraph writing	3(2-3-4)
2313201	Translation 1	3(2-2-5)
2313509	Culture in the English speaking world	3(3-0-6)
2313715	Construction and development of language tests and tools	3(3-0-6)

2. Electives

18

credits

Course number	Course title	Credits
1123701	Instruction in English with computers	3(2-2-5)
1123708	Developing of learning units for English lessons	3(2-2-5)
1124919	Independent studies in the process of learning English	3(2-2-5)
2301103	Introduction to linguistics	2(2-0-4)
2303312	Semantics	3(2-2-5)
2312107	Academic writing	3(2-3-4)
2312110	Morphology and syntax 2	3(3-0-6)
2312403	Prose	3(3-0-6)
2313108	Introduction to psycholinguistics	3(3-0-6)
2313109	Introduction to sociolinguistics	3(3-0-6)
2313112	Introduction to pragmatics	3(3-0-6)
2313214	Oral presentation 1	3(3-0-6)
2313218	Translation 2	3(2-2-5)
2313223	Critical reading	3(3-0-6)
2313233	Essay writing	3(3-0-6)
2313404	Poetry	3(3-0-6)

Course number	Course title	Credits
2313405	Short stories	3(3-0-6)
2313407	Contemporary literary works	3(3-0-6)
2313410	Asian literature	3(3-0-6)
2313502	Classroom management for the language teacher	3(3-0-6)
2313510	Thai studies	3(3-0-6)
2313708	Discussion and debate	2(1-3-2)
2313904	Skills development through English camp	2(90)
2314111	Applied linguistics	3(3-0-6)
2314112	Introduction to discourse analysis	3(3-0-6)
2314309	Children's literature	3(3-0-6)
2314406	Mythology and folklore	3(3-0-6)
2314408	Modern novels	3(3-0-6)
2314409	Novels and society	3(3-0-6)
2314411	Feminism and feminist literature	3(3-0-6)
2314412	Language learning through drama	3(2-2-5)
2314413	Modern drama	3(3-0-6)
2314414	Drama before the 20th century	3(3-0-6)

Practical Teaching Experience**14 credits**

Course number	Course title	Credits
1003803	Practicum 1	2(1-2-3)
1004801	Practicum 2	1(0-2-1)
1004802	Practicum 3	1(0-2-1)
1005801	Internship 1	5(450)
1005802	Internship 2	5(450)

Appendix E: Sample Questions from Introductory Interviews**Your own language learning experience**

1. Could you please tell me your own language learning experience at school?
How were you normally taught?
2. Did you like the way that you were taught?
3. Do you think the way you teach has been influenced by your own learning experience?

Your teacher training

1. What do you think about how you were taught at the university?
2. In your opinion, have you been prepared to adopt a learner-centred approach?
If the answer is yes, how? If the answer is no, what are the teaching methodologies that you have been trained in?

Your internship

1. Could you please tell me about your teaching here? What subject do you teach?
2. Which grade do you teach?
3. How many periods do you teach?
4. Do you use a textbook? What is it?
5. What are your responsibilities, apart from teaching?
6. How many periods do you use to teach one unit from a textbook?

Your supervision

1. How often have you been observed by your cooperating teacher since you have practised teaching here?
2. Do you think you have received any help or guidance from your cooperating teacher to help you adopt a learner-centred approach?
3. Do you think your cooperating teacher has a policy on the adoption of the learner-centred approach? What about the policy of the school?
4. How often have you been observed by your university supervisor since you have practised teaching here?
5. Do you think you have received any help or guidance from your university supervisor to help you adopt a learner-centred approach?
6. Do you think that the adoption of the learner-centred approach is required by your university supervisor?

Appendix F: Sample Introductory Interview Transcripts

Introductory interview with ST6

School: 4

Date: 20 September 2010

Original transcript (Thai)	Translated version
<p>R: กรุณาเล่าเกี่ยวกับ ประสบการณ์การเรียนรู้ภาษาของท่านที่โรงเรียน</p> <p>ST6: ประสบการณ์การเรียนรู้ภาษา ที่โรงเรียนใช่ไหมคะ ชั้นประถมหรือชั้นมัธยมคะ จริง ๆ แล้วก็คล้าย ๆ กันคือ ส่วนมากคุณครูที่สอนภาษาอังกฤษก็จะสอนโดยใช้ภาษาไทย และส่วนมากคุณครูจะเน้นสอนพวกไวยากรณ์ เช่น tense ต่าง ๆ ครูก็จะอธิบายเป็นภาษาไทย เราเป็นนักเรียนเราก็นั่งฟัง เวลาครูสอนอ่านเนื้อเรื่อง ครูก็แปลเป็นภาษาไทยให้ฟัง โอกาสที่จะได้พูดภาษาอังกฤษในช่วงโมงเรียนมีน้อยมาก</p>	<p>R: Could you please tell me your own language learning experience at school?</p> <p>ST6: My learning experience at school, at primary or secondary level? They were actually very similar. My teachers of English mainly taught English using Thai and they focused on teaching grammar, such as tenses. They explained the structure in Thai. I was a student who only sat and listened to their explanations. When they taught reading, they translated English into Thai. My opportunities to speak English in class were very rare.</p>
<p>R: ท่านชอบวิธีการที่ท่านถูกสอนนี้ไหม</p> <p>ST6: ไม่ชอบเลยคะ เวลาให้เรานั่งฟังอย่างเดียวก็เครียดเหมือนกันคะ แล้วก็ง่วงนอนด้วย จำที่ครูบอกก็ไม่ค่อยได้ เราเป็นเด็กบางครั้งก็อยากให้มีสนุกสนานได้ทำอะไรบ้างในแต่ละชั่วโมง แล้วก็รู้สึกว่าเรียนภาษาอังกฤษมาตั้งหลายปี แต่ก็ยังใช้ภาษาอังกฤษสื่อสารไม่ค่อยได้</p>	<p>R: Did you like the way that you were taught?</p> <p>ST6: I did not like the way that I was taught. When I merely sat and listened to the teacher, I felt sleepy and stressful. I could not remember what the teacher told me. I was a child, so sometimes I would like to have fun and have a chance to do something in each period. I also felt that I spent many years studying English, but I still could not communicate in English.</p>
<p>R: ท่านคิดว่าวิธีการที่ท่านสอน ได้รับอิทธิพลจากประสบการณ์การเรียนรู้ของท่านเองหรือไม่</p>	<p>R: Do you think the way you teach has been influenced by your own learning</p>

Original transcript (Thai)	Translated version
<p>ST6: คิดว่ามีบ้างคะ</p> <p>R: ท่านคิดอย่างไรเกี่ยวกับ วิธีการที่อาจารย์ที่มหาวิทยาลัยใช้สอนท่าน</p> <p>ST6: วิธีการสอนที่อาจารย์ที่มหาวิทยาลัยใช้เป็น ส่วนมากคือ การบรรยายให้ฟัง บางครั้งก็รู้สึกเบื่อๆ เพราะเรียนแต่ละครั้งก็ประมาณสามคาบ รู้สึกว่านานทีเดียวเวลานั่งฟังเฉย ๆ มีบางวิชาที่อาจารย์ผู้สอนให้เราทำโน่นทำนี่บ้าง หรือมีกิจกรรมให้ทำ รู้สึกชอบเวลาอาจารย์สอนแบบนี้ เพราะไม่่วงด้วยและเราต้องคิดด้วยในขณะที่ทำ</p> <p>R: ตามความเห็นของท่าน ท่านได้รับการเตรียมให้ใช้รูปแบบการสอนที่เน้นผู้เรียนเป็นศูนย์กลางหรือไม่</p> <p>ST6: ก็เตรียมมาก่อนนะคะ</p> <p>R: ท่านได้รับการเตรียมมาอย่างไร</p> <p>ST6: จำไม่ค่อยได้ค่ะ มีวิชาหนึ่งที่เรียนเกี่ยวกับการเรียนแบบร่วมมือ cooperative learning ในวิชานี้ก็เรียนเกี่ยวกับการจัดการเรียนการสอนหลาย ๆ แบบคะ จะมีให้เราไปสอนกันเอง แล้วแต่ที่เราจะสอนแบบไหน ให้เราสอนเพื่อนในห้อง ก็ให้เพื่อนในห้องเป็นนักเรียน แล้วก็เราลองออกไปสอน</p> <p>R: มีวิชาเดียวหรือคะ</p> <p>ST6: มีอีกวิชาหนึ่งคะ เค้าจะให้เราเขียนแผน วางแผนการสอน แล้วก็คิด มีกิจกรรม แล้วให้เราเอาไปสอน ก็คล้ายวิชาเมื่อกี้คะ แต่จะเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ</p>	<p>experience?</p> <p>ST6: Yes, I think occasionally my teaching has been influenced by my own learning experience at school.</p> <p>R: What do you think about how you were taught at the university?</p> <p>ST6: The way that lecturers at the university taught me was by lecturing. Sometimes it was boring because each lesson was about three periods (150 minutes). It was quite long when I only sat and listened. There were some courses where lecturers assigned us to do something, or asked us to perform activities. I liked it when I was taught in this manner, as I didn't feel sleepy and I had to think whilst doing.</p> <p>R: In your opinion, have you been prepared to adopt the learner-centred approach?</p> <p>ST6: Yes, I have been prepared.</p> <p>R: How have you been prepared?</p> <p>ST6: I only vaguely remember. There was one course in which I learnt about cooperative learning. In this course, I learnt various kinds of teaching techniques. I had to teach my classmates using the teaching technique assigned to me. My classmates were my students. I did peer teaching.</p> <p>R: Was there only one subject?</p> <p>ST6: There was one more subject. In this subject, we learnt how to write a lesson plan, and plan a lesson in English. We had</p>

Original transcript (Thai)	Translated version
<p>เขียนแผนเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ อะไรก็เป็นภาษาอังกฤษหมด แล้วก็ให้เราออกไปสอน แล้วก็พูดภาษาอังกฤษหมดเลยคะ ให้สอนเพื่อนในห้องเรียน เน้นให้เด็กได้ปฏิบัติกิจกรรม ได้ร่วมมือกัน แล้วก็เรียนเกี่ยวกับการจัดห้องเรียน การเลือกกิจกรรมให้ผู้เรียน เหมือนจะเน้นนักเรียนเป็นศูนย์กลาง</p> <p>R: อาจารย์ที่มหาวิทยาลัยเป็นแบบอย่างให้เราเห็นวิธีการที่จะนำรูปแบบการสอนแบบนี้ไปสู่การปฏิบัติไหม</p> <p>ST6: ตามที่เข้าใจ เขาก็มีบ้างนะคะ แต่มีอาจารย์ไม่กี่ท่าน ที่จำได้แน่ ๆ ก็มีอย่างน้อยสองท่านที่สอนวิชาที่เล่าให้ฟัง อาจารย์บางท่านเขาก็สั่งหัวข้อมา แล้วให้เราไปหาข้อมูล หรือทำรายงาน แล้วก็ออกมานำเสนอคะ แล้วก็มีการกลุ่มบ้างบางครั้ง</p> <p>R: ท่านคิดว่าการสอนแบบนี้คือ การสอนที่เน้นผู้เรียนเป็นศูนย์กลางใช่ไหม</p> <p>ST6: คิดว่าใช่คะ</p>	<p>to think about which activity should be used in order to teach that lesson. This course was similar to the one that I just mentioned, but we had to use English all the time. I taught my classmates. The focus of the lesson was on providing our students with opportunities to do activities and work cooperatively. I learnt about classroom management and how to select activities for students. It seemed to focus on the learner-centred approach.</p> <p>R: Did a lecturer at university model how to put this approach into practice?</p> <p>ST6: According to my understanding, there were some, but only a few. I certainly remember that there were at least two lecturers who I told you about. Some lecturers gave me a topic and we had to search for information, do a report and present it in class. Sometimes I worked in groups.</p> <p>R: Do you think this way of teaching is learner-centred?</p> <p>ST6: I think it is.</p>

Appendix G: Sample Questions from First Post-Lesson Interviews

1. According to your understanding, what does the learner-centred approach mean to you?

(Probe: How would you define learner-centred instruction? What do you know about it?)
2. What are the characteristics of learner-centred teaching practice?
3. What are the things that a teacher needs to do in order to be learner-centred?
4. Do you think the learner-centred approach is important? Why?
5. Do you think you have incorporated the learner-centred approach into your teaching during your internship?

(Probe: If the answer is yes, could you please give some examples of how you incorporated these ideas into your teaching? If the answer is no, why?)
6. According to your understanding, what does the word ‘activities’ mean to you?

(Probe: Can you give me some examples? Do you always use activities in your lessons? What activities do you always use? Do you think an activity is important? Why?)
7. What do you think about pair work or group work?

(Probe: Which type of classroom organisation do you most frequently use? Why do you use it? Have you ever used pair work or group work? What are your reasons for using (or not using) pair work or group work?)
8. What exactly do you understand by the term ‘learner involvement’?

(Probe: Can you tell me more about that?)

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9. Do you think you should collect and analyse information about students' interests and needs in order to plan your lesson?
(Probe: Is it possible? How do you plan your lesson?)
10. Do your students have a chance to participate in planning a lesson?
(Probe: If the answer is yes, how? If the answer is no, why?)
11. Have you ever trained students to be responsible for their own learning during your internship?
(Probe: If the answer is yes, how? If the answer is no, why?)
12. What is your role as a teacher in the classroom?
(Probe: Why do you play these roles? When you play these roles, do you think you are teacher-centred or learner-centred?)
13. What kinds of roles do you think your students usually play?
(Probe: Who is dominant in your class? When your students play these roles, do you think you are teacher-centred or learner-centred?)

In the final part of the interview, I am going to show you some episodes from your teaching.

1. In this episode, please describe your own teaching. Is it more teacher-centred or more learner-centred?
2. Can you give me more details concerning in what ways you think your lesson is learner-centred or not learner-centred?
3. Can you explain to me why you chose to use that/those particular method(s)/ activity (activities)?
4. In this episode, do you think you used any activities?
(Probe: If the answer is yes, what are they? Why did you use these activities? Do you always use these activities? If the answer is no, why?)
5. What are the roles that you are playing in this episode?
(Probe: What are your reasons for adopting this/these role(s)? Do you always play this/these role(s)? When you play this/these role(s), do you think you are teacher-centred or learner-centred?)
6. What are the roles that your students are playing in this episode?
(Probe: What are your reasons for allowing them to play this/these role(s)? Do they always play this/these role(s)? When they play this/these role(s), do you think your teaching is teacher-centred or learner-centred?)
7. Do you think you had any difficulties in adopting the learner-centred approach in this lesson?
(Probe: What were they? Do you always have these difficulties?)

Thank you very much for your time. I have no further questions. Is there anything else you would like to add, or ask about, before we finish the interview?

Appendix H: Sample First Post-Lesson Interview Transcripts

First post-lesson interview with ST6

School: 4

Date: 1 October 2010

Original transcript (Thai)	Translated version
<p>R: ตามความเข้าใจของท่าน รูปแบบการสอนที่เน้นผู้เรียนเป็นศูนย์กลางคืออะไร</p> <p>ST6: ไม่ค่อยแน่ใจว่าหมายความว่าอย่างไร คิดว่าการจัดการเรียนการสอนโดยยึดผู้เรียนเป็นศูนย์กลางก็คือ น่าจะให้เด็กมีส่วนร่วมกับครู มีส่วนร่วมในกระบวนการเรียนการสอน นักเรียนต้องทำบางสิ่งบางอย่าง ไม่ใช่นั่งและฟังครูสอนอย่างเดียว อาจจะทำงานกลุ่ม หรือทำงานเป็นคู่ เพื่อแลกเปลี่ยนความคิดเห็นกับเพื่อน นักเรียนอาจจะสามารถเลือกหัวข้อที่จะเรียนด้วยตนเองได้ มีสิทธิ์เลือก มีสิทธิ์แสดงความคิดเห็น บางครั้งในห้องเรียนอาจจะให้นักเรียนเรียนรู้ด้วยตนเอง หรือศึกษาด้วยตนเองมากกว่าที่จะนั่งฟังครูสอนตลอดเวลา</p> <p>R: ท่านบอกว่านักเรียนน่าจะมีส่วนร่วม การมีส่วนร่วมของนักเรียนนี้หมายความว่าอะไร</p> <p>ST6: คือ นักเรียนควรมีโอกาสทำอะไรบ้าง เวลาเราสอนไม่ใช่ฟังเฉย ๆ เช่น เล่นเกม ตอบคำถามครู ฝึกถามตอบกันบ้าง หรือทำกิจกรรมที่ครูสั่งให้ทำ ไม่ใช่ฟังเฉย ๆ</p>	<p>R: According to your understanding, what does the learner-centred approach mean to you?</p> <p>ST6: I'm not quite sure what it really means. I think LCA means that students cooperate with the teacher. They participate in the process of learning. They have to do something. They don't just sit and listen to the teacher. They may work in groups or in pairs to share their ideas with their friends. They might be able to choose topics that they want to study by themselves. They have the right to choose. They should also have the right to express their opinions. Sometimes in the class, they either learn by themselves or they study on their own instead of listening to the teacher all the time.</p> <p>R: When you said, 'student involvement', what do you mean by this?</p> <p>ST6: I mean students should have opportunities to do something, such as play games, answer questions, practise asking and answering questions, or do activities which I assign to them. They shouldn't only sit and listen to me.</p>

Original transcript (Thai)	Translated version
<p>R: ทำไมนักเรียนต้องทำงานเป็นกลุ่ม หรือทำงานเป็นคู่</p> <p>ST6: เวล่านักเรียนทำงานเป็นคู่ หรือเป็นกลุ่ม นักเรียนมีโอกาสได้ทำงานด้วยกัน และได้ร่วมมือกัน นักเรียนได้ระดมความคิด ได้เรียนรู้ โดยลงมือปฏิบัติจริง และจะได้แชร์ความคิดเห็นกัน เด็กได้ระดมความคิดกันแล้วก็ออกมานำเสนอหน้าชั้นเรียน</p> <p>R: มีเหตุผลอื่น ๆ อีกหรือไม่</p> <p>ST6: ไม่มีแล้วคะ</p> <p>R: การจัดห้องเรียนแบบไหนที่ท่านใช้บ่อยที่สุด</p> <p>ST6: ที่ใช้บ่อยก็เป็นแบบบรรยาย ให้นักเรียนฟังทั้งห้อง แต่บางครั้งก็ให้นักเรียนทำงานเป็นกลุ่ม เป็นคู่</p> <p>R: ทำไมไม่ใช้การจัดการเรียนการสอนแบบบรรยายให้นักเรียนฟังทั้งห้องบ่อยที่สุด</p> <p>ST6: ก็การสอนแบบนี้ ทำให้สอนเนื้อหาได้ครบทุกหัวข้อตามที่วางแผนไว้แต่ละคาบ และนักเรียนก็ไม่วุ่นวาย เสียงก็ไม่ดังด้วยคะ</p> <p>R: ทำไมท่านไม่ค่อยได้ให้นักเรียนทำงานคู่ หรือทำงานเป็นกลุ่ม</p> <p>ST6: ถ้าให้นักเรียนทำงานกลุ่ม เค้าก็แบบอยากจะอยู่กับเพื่อนเค้า มีแต่คนที่อ่อนเหมือนกันแบบนี้คะ ก็เลยทำให้บางทีเค้าไม่สามารถทำงานได้เสร็จตามเวลาที่กำหนด หรือไม่ก็ทำงานไม่ได้ เด็กเก่งก็อยากอยู่กับเด็กเก่งด้วยกัน เด็กอ่อนก็อยากอยู่ร่วมกับเด็กอ่อน ถ้าให้เด็กเก่งกับเด็กอ่อนรวมทำงานอยู่กลุ่มเดียวกัน เค้าก็ไม่ค่อยพอใจ เวล่านักเรียนทำงานเป็นกลุ่ม ก็จะมีเสียงดัง และจะวุ่นวายด้วยคะ</p>	<p>R: Why do students have to work in groups or pairs?</p> <p>ST6: When students work in pairs or groups, they have opportunities to work together and work cooperatively. They brainstorm ideas, learn by doing, and share ideas. They brainstorm their ideas and present them in front of the class.</p> <p>R: Any other reasons?</p> <p>ST6: No.</p> <p>R: Which type of classroom organisation do you most frequently use?</p> <p>ST6: I always give lectures to a whole class, but sometimes I assign students to work in groups or in pairs.</p> <p>R: Why do you always use whole-class teaching?</p> <p>ST6: I can cover all the topics that I planned to teach in each period and the students are not chaotic. The class is not noisy.</p> <p>R: Why do you rarely use pair work or group work?</p> <p>ST6: If I allow students to work in groups, they would prefer to work with a group of their friends who are less competent. This means that the group cannot complete a task on time, or they cannot perform a task. Stronger students would like to work together, while the weaker ones also would like to be in the same group. If I put stronger and weaker students together, they are not happy. When they work in groups,</p>

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<p>R: นี่คือเหตุผลว่าทำไมไม่ใช้กิจกรรมกลุ่ม</p> <p>ST6: ใช่ค่ะ</p> <p>R: เหตุผลเหล่านี้ ทำให้ท่านเลิกใช้การทำงานเป็นกลุ่ม</p> <p>ST6: ไม่ถึงกับเลิกคะ แต่จะลดน้อยลง</p> <p>R: ทำไมไม่เลิกใช้กิจกรรมกลุ่มไปเลย</p> <p>ST6: จริง ๆ การทำกิจกรรมคู่ กับกิจกรรมกลุ่มก็มีประโยชน์ เพราะนักเรียนมีโอกาสได้เรียนรู้และช่วยเหลือซึ่งกันและกัน ได้ฝึกพูดภาษาอังกฤษบ้าง ทำให้เรารู้ว่าเด็กเข้าใจมากน้อยแค่ไหน</p> <p>R: อะไรคือ ลักษณะของการจัดการเรียนการสอนที่เน้นผู้เรียนเป็นศูนย์กลาง</p> <p>ST6: นักเรียนมีโอกาสทำงานด้วยกัน อาจจะเป็นคู่หรือเป็นกลุ่ม แล้วเราก็ต้องมีกิจกรรมด้วยคะ เพราะเด็กจะได้เรียนรู้โดยการลงมือทำ</p> <p>R: ในจัดการสอนที่เน้นผู้เรียนเป็นศูนย์กลางจำเป็นต้องใช้กิจกรรมไหม</p> <p>ST6: จำเป็นคะ เพราะใช้กิจกรรมแล้ว นักเรียนจะสนุกสนาน กิจกรรมกระตุ้นความสนใจ และดึงดูดให้นักเรียนสนใจมากด้วยคะ เด็กรู้สึกผ่อนคลายด้วยคะ การเรียนรู้ของนักเรียนจะเพิ่มขึ้นด้วยคะ เวลาที่ครูใช้กิจกรรม ที่สำคัญคือนักเรียนได้มีโอกาสฝึกใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในห้องเรียน</p> <p>R: มีลักษณะอย่างอื่นอีกไหม</p> <p>ST6: การสอนแบบนี้คือ ให้เด็กได้เรียนรู้ที่จะคิด</p>	<p>they make a lot of noise and are chaotic.</p> <p>R: Are these the reasons for not using group work?</p> <p>ST6: Yes.</p> <p>R: Do these reasons make you give up on using group work?</p> <p>ST6: I do not give up, but I use it less.</p> <p>R: Why don't you stop using group work?</p> <p>ST6: In fact, working in pairs and groups is beneficial because students have opportunities to learn and help each other and practise speaking English. This allows me to know how much they understand.</p> <p>R: What are the characteristics of learner-centred teaching practice?</p> <p>ST6: Students have opportunities to work together. They may work in pairs or in groups. We need to have activities because students will learn by doing.</p> <p>R: Is it necessary to use activities in learner-centred teaching?</p> <p>ST6: It is necessary because when I use activities, the student will have fun. Activities can stimulate their interest and attract their attention. They feel more relaxed. Students' learning is enhanced when the teacher incorporates activities into his/her lesson. The important thing is that students have opportunities to practise using English in the classroom.</p> <p>R: Any other characteristics?</p> <p>ST6: Learner-centred teaching is concerned</p>

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<p>ได้ทำด้วยตนเอง ไม่ใช่ว่าแบบครูจะมาพูดหน้าชั้นเรียนอย่างเดียวแล้วก็ให้ค่านั่งฟัง คิดว่าครูเป็นคนที่คอยกระตุ้นนักเรียน แล้วก็ให้ความช่วยเหลือเวลานักเรียนมีปัญหา เป็นผู้ให้คำตอบที่เค้าไม่เข้าใจจะเป็นคนที่คอยให้คำปรึกษามากกว่าคะ</p> <p>R: ตามความเข้าใจของท่าน ‘กิจกรรม’ หมายความว่าอะไร</p> <p>ST6: กิจกรรมก็จะเป็นพวกเกมต่าง ๆ เช่น เกมบิงโกหรือร้องเพลง ให้นักเรียนได้มีโอกาสฝึกสนทนากันเป็นคู่ ๆ</p> <p>R: มีกิจกรรมอื่น ๆ อีกไหม</p> <p>ST6: ไม่มีแล้วคะ</p> <p>R: ท่านรู้จัก jigsaw reading หรือ information gap activities ไหม</p> <p>ST6: เป็นกิจกรรมที่ให้นักเรียนสำรวจใช้ไหมคะ</p> <p>R: ท่านคิดว่า การจัดการเรียนการสอนที่เน้นผู้เรียนเป็นศูนย์กลางสำคัญหรือไม่</p> <p>ST6: คิดว่าสำคัญคะ เพราะช่วยให้นักเรียนเรียนรู้ได้มากขึ้น แล้วก็นักเรียนมีโอกาสเรียนรู้ด้วยการกระทำ ไม่ใช่เรียนรู้จากการบอกของครู</p> <p>R: ท่านคิดว่าท่านได้ใช้รูปแบบการสอนที่เน้นผู้เรียนเป็นศูนย์กลาง ระหว่างที่ท่านฝึกการปฏิบัติการสอนในสถานศึกษาหรือไม่</p>	<p>with involving students in learning how to think and doing thing by themselves. It does not mean that the teacher only gives a lecture in front of the class and students merely listen to the teacher. I think the teacher should be the one who motivates students and give them help when they have problems. The teacher can be a person who gives them an answer when they do not understand, or the teacher is a consultant.</p> <p>R: According to your understanding, what does the word ‘activities’ mean to you?</p> <p>ST6: Activities include games, such as bingo, singing, or practising a given a dialogue in pairs.</p> <p>R: Are there other activities?</p> <p>ST6: No.</p> <p>R: Do you know Jigsaw reading or information gap activities?</p> <p>ST6: Are they activities that allow students to do a survey?</p> <p>R: Do you think the learner-centred approach is important? Why?</p> <p>ST6: Yes. I think it is important because it helps students learn more. In addition, students have opportunities to learn by doing. They do not just learn from the teacher teaching.</p> <p>R: Do you think you have incorporated the learner-centred approach into your teaching during your internship?</p>

Original transcript (Thai)	Translated version
<p>ST6: มีบ้างค่ะ คิดว่าสักห้าสิบเปอร์เซ็นต์ เพราะบางทีก็ทำได้ยาก เพราะว่าเด็กเค้าแบบจะไม่ค่อยร่วมมือเท่าไร ถ้าจะให้ทำอะไรเค้าไม่ค่อยมั่นใจ และไม่กล้าแสดงออกเท่าไรหรอก สาเหตุอื่น ๆ เช่น ส่วนใหญ่จะไม่ค่อยให้ความร่วมมือ ภาษาอังกฤษเค้าอ่อนด้วยคะ ทั้งห้องจะมีคนที่รู้เรื่อง ก็ไม่ถึงครึ่งคะ</p> <p>R: ท่านบอกว่า 50% ของการเรียนการสอนของท่าน เป็นแบบที่เน้นผู้เรียนเป็นศูนย์กลาง ท่านช่วยอธิบายได้ไหมว่า การเรียนการสอนของท่านมีลักษณะอย่างไร</p> <p>ST6: แทนที่จะให้ นักเรียนนั่งฟังครูพูดอย่างเดียว นักเรียนได้ทำงานกลุ่ม หรือทำงานคู่บ้าง หรือไม่ก็ทำกิจกรรมต่าง ๆ ที่บอกไปแล้ว บางครั้งก็ให้นักเรียนทำใบงาน</p> <p>R: อีก 50 % ของการเรียนการสอนของท่าน มีลักษณะอย่างไร</p> <p>ST6: ก็จะเป็นอธิบายคะ อธิบายแล้วก็อาจจะมีถามคำถามเพื่อสอบถามความเข้าใจ แล้วก็ให้ทำงานเป็นใบงาน ถ้าเป็นเรื่องง่าย ๆ ก็จะใช้อธิบายซะมากกว่า แล้วก็ให้ใช้สื่อด้วย อย่างเช่น บัตรภาพ บัตรคำ แล้วก็อาจจะเป็นสื่อของจริง อย่างเช่น ของในห้องเรียน แล้วก็ถ้าได้ะ ก็ชี้ที่โต๊ะ อุปกรณ์การเรียน มีสื่อมาให้ดูให้เห็นภาพ และใบงานด้วยคะ</p> <p>R: ท่านเข้าใจว่า ‘การมีส่วนร่วมของผู้เรียน’ คืออะไร</p> <p>ST6: ตามความเข้าใจคิดว่า การมีส่วนร่วมของผู้เรียน คือ นักเรียนมีโอกาสที่จะมีส่วนร่วมในกระบวนการ</p>	<p>ST6: I think 50% of my teaching is learner-centred. Sometimes it is quite difficult, as students will not cooperate with me. When I ask them to do something, they lack confidence and feel shy. Other causes are mostly due to their lack of cooperation and low English proficiency. In one class, smart students represent less than half of the whole class.</p> <p>R: You said 50% of your teaching is learner-centred, can you explain to me what your teaching is like?</p> <p>ST6: Instead of sitting idly and listening to the teacher, students work in groups or in pairs, or they do activities that I already mentioned. Sometimes they do worksheets.</p> <p>R: What is the other 50% of your teaching like?</p> <p>ST6: I give explanations. I explain and ask some questions to find out whether the students understand. I give them worksheets and they do worksheets. If it is an easy topic, I explain. I use some teaching materials, for instance pictures, word cards, and realia. Some examples of realia include things in the class (desks, and school supplies). They can look at teaching materials, pictures and worksheets.</p> <p>R: What exactly do you understand by the term ‘learner involvement’?</p> <p>ST6: According to my understanding, learner involvement means that students</p>

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<p>เรียนการสอน โดยการตอบคำถาม, พูดคุยกับเพื่อน เป็นคู่ หรือเป็นกลุ่ม หรือการฝึกพูดเป็นคู่ด้านหน้า ห้องเรียน หรือทำกิจกรรมและทำใบงาน</p> <p>R: บทบาทการเป็นครูของท่านในห้องเรียนคืออะไร</p> <p>ST6: ส่วนใหญ่ก็จะเป็นผู้ให้ความรู้โดยตรงมากกว่า และเป็นผู้สอน แล้วก็ชี้แนะ ส่วนใหญ่จะสอน บางครั้งจะมีให้เด็กไปศึกษาเองบ้าง แล้วเราก็ช่วยเค้า ช่วยเวลาเค้าถาม หรือไม่เข้าใจ</p> <p>R: เมื่อท่านมีบทบาทเหล่านั้น ท่านคิดว่าท่านเป็นครูแบบเน้นครูศูนย์กลาง หรือแบบเน้นผู้เรียนเป็นศูนย์กลาง</p> <p>ST6: ถ้าเป็นผู้ให้ความรู้ คิดว่าตัวเองเป็นครูแบบเน้นครูเป็นศูนย์กลาง แต่ถ้าเป็นผู้ชี้แนะ หรือผู้ช่วย คิดว่า เป็นครูแบบเน้นผู้เรียนเป็นศูนย์กลาง</p> <p>R: ในห้องเรียนที่เน้นผู้เรียนเป็นศูนย์กลาง ครูมีบทบาทหน้าที่อะไรอีก นอกจากเป็นผู้ชี้แนะ หรือผู้ช่วย</p> <p>ST6: ครูเป็นที่ปรึกษา ผู้ให้คำปรึกษาการเรียน ผู้และผู้จูงใจให้นักเรียนอยากเรียน</p> <p>R: ท่านคิดว่านักเรียนของท่าน มีบทบาทอะไรบ้าง</p> <p>ST6: เป็นผู้ฟัง แล้วก็เป็นผู้คอยทำงานตามที่เราสั่งคะ และเป็นผู้ทำกิจกรรมที่เรามอบหมายให้ มีเสนอความคิดเห็น บางครั้งเค้าก็ต้องตัดสินใจเลือกเกี่ยวกับ</p>	<p>have a chance to participate in the teaching and learning process by answering questions, speaking to their classmates in pairs or in groups, or practising speaking in front of the class, or doing activities and worksheets.</p> <p>R: What is your role as a teacher in the classroom?</p> <p>ST6: Mostly, I am a person who provides knowledge for students or the one who teaches and guides students. I mainly teach. Occasionally, I assign them to study on their own and I help them. I give them some help when they ask for it or do not understand</p> <p>R: When you play these roles, do you think you are teacher-centred or learner-centred?</p> <p>ST6: If I am a knowledge provider, I think I am teacher-centred. But if I am a guide or a helper, I think I am a learner-centred teacher</p> <p>R: In a learner-centred classroom, what are the roles of the teacher besides being a guide and a helper?</p> <p>ST6: The teacher is a consultant, a learning advisor and a motivator.</p> <p>R: What kinds of roles do you think your students usually play?</p> <p>ST6: They are listeners. They do the work and activities that I assign to them. They make comments. Sometimes they make</p>

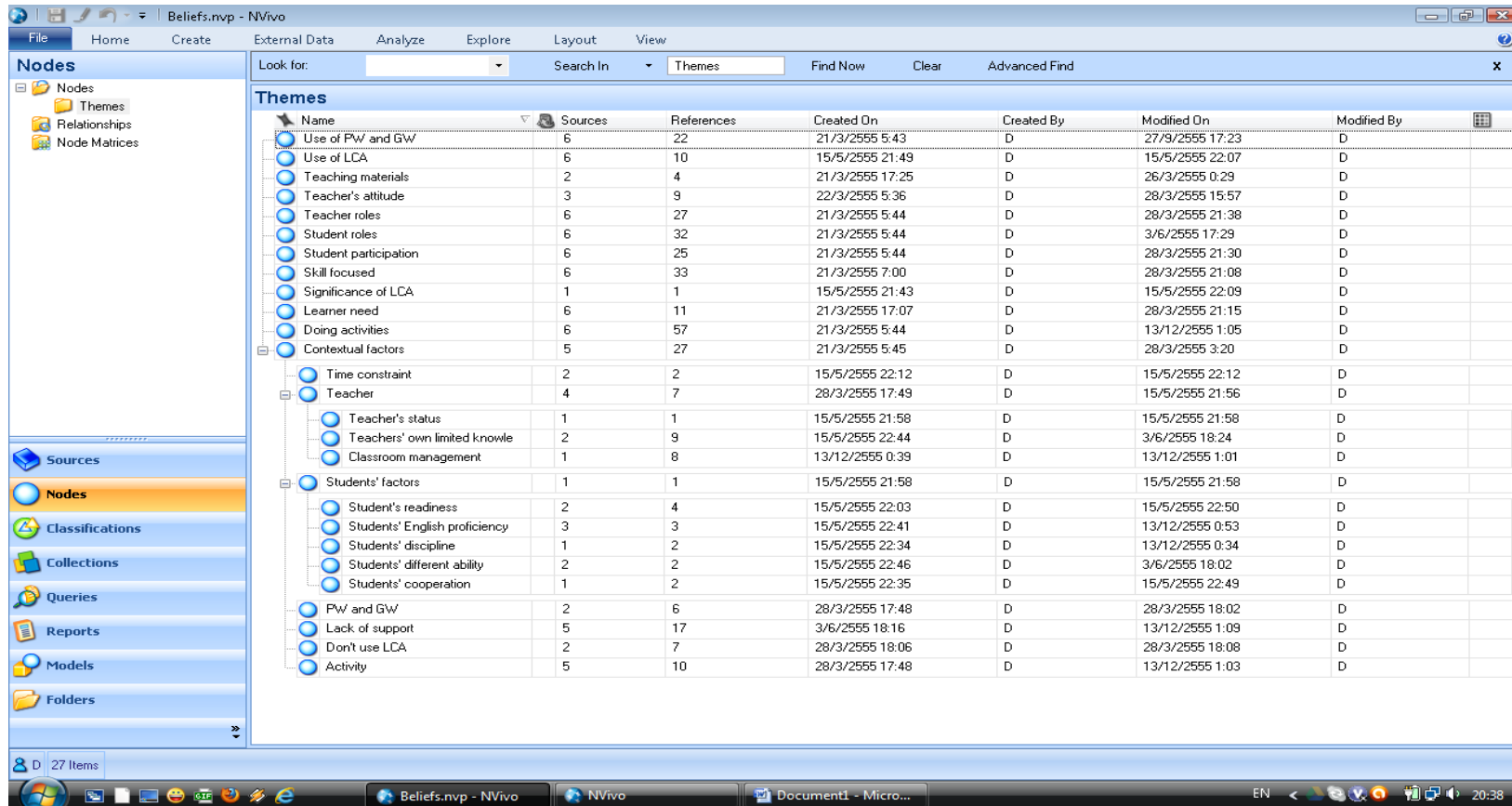
Original transcript (Thai)	Translated version
<p>สิ่งที่เค้าอยากเรียน หรืออยากทำอะไรแล้วก็ได้คำตอบ</p> <p>R: เวลาที่นักเรียนแสดงบทบาทเหล่านี้ ท่านคิดว่าท่านเป็นครูแบบเน้นครูเป็นศูนย์กลาง หรือเป็นครูแบบเน้นผู้เรียนเป็นศูนย์กลาง</p> <p>ST6: ทั้งสองอย่างนะคะ เวลาที่นักเรียนเป็นผู้ทำและผู้ฟัง ตัวเองก็จะเป็นครูแบบเน้นครูเป็นศูนย์กลาง</p> <p>R: ใครมีบทบาทสำคัญในห้องเรียน</p> <p>ST6: ส่วนมากจะเป็นครูคะ เพราะเราต้องวางแผนการสอน เลือกเนื้อหาที่จะสอน นักเรียนมีโอกาสที่จะเลือกเนื้อหาที่จะเรียนน้อย</p>	<p>decisions about what they would like to study or do. They answer my questions.</p> <p>R: When your students play these roles, do you think you are a teacher-centred or learner-centred teacher?</p> <p>ST6: I am both a teacher-centred and a learner-centred teacher. When my students are doers and listeners, I am a teacher-centred teacher.</p> <p>R: Who is dominant in your class?</p> <p>ST6: Mostly, the teacher is dominant because the teacher has to plan a lesson and choose what to teach. Students' opportunities to choose what they would like to study are very rare.</p>

Appendix I: Samples Questions from Second Post-Lesson Interviews

1. Can you describe in more detail in what way you think your teaching in this episode is learner-centred or not learner-centred? Can you reflect on what you perceive to be learner-centred in your teaching?
2. I noticed you did this/ that , what were your reasons for doing this/that?
3. Do you think you used any activities in this lesson? What are your reasons for using or not using activities?
4. Do you know any communicative activities? What are they? Do you think you used them in this lesson? Why?
5. What is/are your role(s) in this lesson? Why have you taken up this/these role(s) in teaching?
6. What are the roles played by students in this lesson? Do they always play this/these role(s) in your lessons? Why?
7. Is it easy or difficult to be learner-centred during your internship? Why?
8. Did you experience any difficulties when you adopted the learner-centred approach?

(Probe: If the answer is yes, what are they?)
9. Are you satisfied with your teaching today? If you had taught this lesson again, would you have taught it differently?
10. Do you have anything else to add?

Appendix J: Screenshot Sample of NVivo Analysis



This analysis was created in the year B.E. 2555 (2012).

Appendix K: Detailed Analysis of Mode of Classroom Organisation

ST3: Lesson 2

Topic: Daily life (What time do you get up?)

Level: Grade 8

Lesson duration: 51'15"¹

Activity	Starting time	Whole class	Pair work	Group work	Individual work	Individual work (V ² or N ³)	Total
Greeting and asking the students about the notice on the WB	0.00						1'26"
1. Vocabulary revision: The teacher shows word cards, and students repeat the words after the teacher.	1.26	✓					2'34"
2. The teacher teaches 'What time do you get up?'. The teacher calls two students (one boy and one girl) to be a model in front of the class. One student asks and the other one answers.	4.00	✓					2'42"

¹ The prime symbol (') and the double symbol (") are used to represent minutes and seconds.

² Volunteered

³ Nominated

Activity	Starting time	Whole class	Pair work	Group work	Individual work	Individual work (V or N)	Total
3. The teacher gives worksheets to the students. The teacher explains how to do the task, and divides the class into two groups.	6.42	✓					2'40"
4. The students do the task by interviewing five classmates, 'What time do you get up?' and writing down answers on the worksheet given.	9.22			✓			5'36"
5. The teacher explains how to write the answer on the worksheet. She/He gets up at _____. Do not forget to add 's' after the verb because the subject is the third person singular.	14.58	✓					2'34"
6. The teacher gives the students two minutes to finish writing sentences on the worksheet.	17.32	✓					1'30"
7. The teacher randomly selects one student to come to the front of the class, and this student calls three classmates, whom he interviewed, to the front.	19.02	✓					1'34"
8. The boy asks each classmate, 'What time do you get up?' and he/ she answers, 'I get up at _____.'	20.36	✓					50"

Activity	Starting time	Whole class	Pair work	Group work	Individual work	Individual work (V or N)	Total
9. The teacher randomly selects one student to come to the front of the class, and this student calls three classmates, whom he interviewed, to the front.	21.26	✓					2'16"
10. The boy asks each classmate, 'What time do you get up?' and he/ she answers, 'I get up at _____.'	23.42	✓					56"
11. The teacher randomly selects one student to come to the front of the class, and this student calls three classmates, whom she interviewed, to the front.	24.38	✓					1'20"
12. The girl asks each classmate, 'What time do you get up?' and he/ she answers, 'I get up at _____.'	25.58	✓					1'02"
13. The teacher randomly selects one student to come to the front of the class, and this student calls three classmates, whom he interviewed, to the front.	27.00	✓					1'16"
14. The boy asks each classmate, 'What time do you get up?' and he/ she answers, 'I get up at _____.'	28.16	✓					54"
15. The teacher asks students to recap how to ask and answer the question. Students reply in unison.	29.10	✓					31"

Activity	Starting time	Whole class	Pair work	Group work	Individual work	Individual work (V or N)	Total
16. The teacher gives the second worksheet, and explains how to do this worksheet.	29.41	✓					3'42"
17. Students do the task individually (Look at the picture, and fill in the blank.)	33.23				✓		12'39"
18. The teacher tells students to swap their worksheets, and writes the answers on the WB. Each student checks whether his/her friend's answers are right or wrong. Some students ask the teacher whether his/her answer is right when the answer is different from the answer that the teacher wrote on the board.	46.02	✓					5'13"
Total	51'15"	31'34"	-	5'36"	12'39"	-	51'15"

Note: The total length of this lesson was 51 minutes and 15 seconds, but in the analysis, the greetings from students at the beginning of the lesson, which lasted 1'26", were excluded. This means that the total length of this lesson was 49 minutes and 49 seconds.

Appendix L: Narrative Descriptions

ST1: Lesson 2	Topic: Did you have a good time?	
Level: Grade 9	Lesson duration: 42'26"	
1'47"	ST1 gave worksheets to the students (Ss) and she told the Ss to try to read the dialogue by themselves first, and then, she asked whether the Ss understood the dialogue. Then, she summarised the meaning of the dialogue in Thai.	T-C
4'08"	ST1 read the dialogue and the Ss listened. After reading, she asked what the dialogue was about. Two Ss voluntarily described the meaning of the dialogue.	T-C T-S
4'52"	ST1 read the dialogue line by line, and the Ss repeated after her. Whilst the Ss were repeating after her, she corrected the Ss' pronunciation when they mispronounced.	T-C
7'07"	ST1 explained the meaning of this dialogue. She sometimes translated the dialogue into Thai, or asked the Ss some questions. Some of the Ss volunteered to give answers. She also told them when they could not answer.	T-C T-S
8'55"	ST1 read the dialogue line by line, and the Ss repeated after her.	T-C
11'40"	ST1 divided the Ss into two groups (A and B) and practised reading the dialogue out loud. When the Ss mispronounced, she corrected their mispronunciation.	Ss-Ss T-Ss T-C
13'53"	They swapped over (A to B and B to A). When the Ss mispronounced, the class helped correct their friends' mispronunciation.	Ss-Ss S-Ss T-C
15'49"	ST1 randomly selected one pair of Ss (one was a girl and the other was a boy) to practise the dialogue in front of the class. She allowed a student to choose to be A or B. She called another boy to help the boy when he could not speak the dialogue correctly. When the Ss, in the front of the class, did not know how to pronounce a word or a sentence, she asked the class to help them, or she provided them with some help. After that, this pair selected the next pair to go to the front of the class.	S-S T-S T-Ss Ss-S T-C

21'07"	The second pair (one girl and one boy) went to the front of the class to practise the dialogue. ST1 allowed them to choose to be A or B. They said the dialogue by themselves. One more pair was selected by the second pair.	S-S
23'04"	The third pair (one girl and one boy) went to the front of the class to practise the dialogue. The boy was B and the girl was A.	S-S
25'10"	ST1 explained how to complete the dialogue on the worksheet given. The Ss individually completed the dialogue on the worksheets, using their own words (Gap-filling). She moved around and offered individual assistance to the Ss. Some Ss asked questions. Some Ss helped each other.	T-S S-S T-Ss S-Ss
33'13"	ST1 randomly selected one boy and that boy selected his own partner to present the dialogue that they had completed in front of the class.	S-S
37'50"	ST1 asked a girl to volunteer to present the dialogue in front of the class. The class and the teacher helped the pair, when they could not pronounce a word.	S-S T-S S-Ss
38'39"	ST1 recapped the lesson.	T-C
40'35"	ST1 told the Ss what they needed to prepare for the next lesson, whilst collecting the worksheets.	T-C
42'26"	The lesson ended.	

T- teacher; C-whole class; S-student; Ss-students

The prime symbol (') and the double symbol (") are used to represent minutes and seconds. The last two activities were excluded from the analysis.

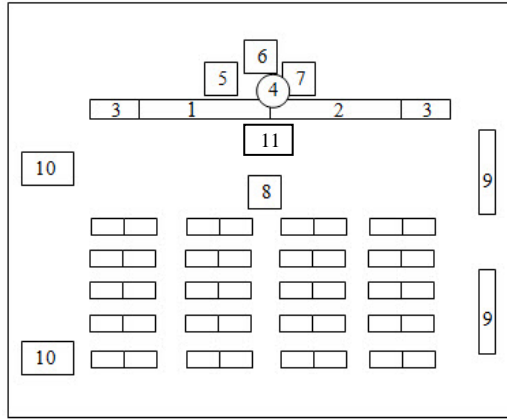
Appendix M: Classroom Layout

All eighteen lessons were conducted in three different types of classrooms. Fifteen lessons were conducted in ordinary classrooms, two lessons were conducted in a language laboratory with booth seating, and one lesson was conducted in an audio visual room. Class settings include the class sizes, classroom types, seating arrangements, and resources available.

Ordinary Classroom

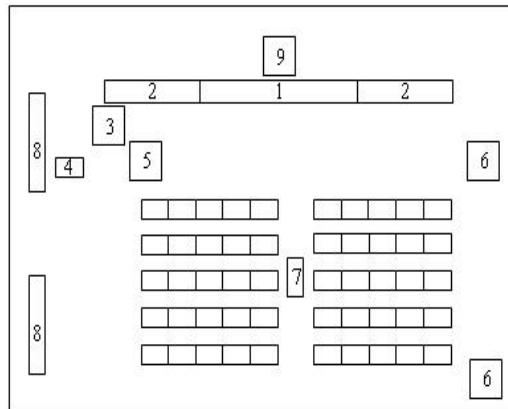
Most of the lessons were conducted in this type of classroom where there were two exhibition boards, a blackboard and/or a whiteboard in front of the class. On the wall above the blackboard, sometimes there were pictures of the King, the Thai flag, and the image of Buddha, and there was a clock under these pictures. The teacher's desk was mostly in the front left-hand corner. In the back right-hand corner of the classroom, there was cleaning equipment, such as brooms, a dust pan, a mop, and a dustbin. All students had their own desks. They were made of wood and were movable but rather heavy. Students sat in rows and columns with two to five students sitting next to each other as illustrated in Figure 1. The most common seating arrangement was in lines and rows.

There were no multimedia facilities, such as tape recorders, video players, CD players, projectors, or visualisers in this type of classroom.



A

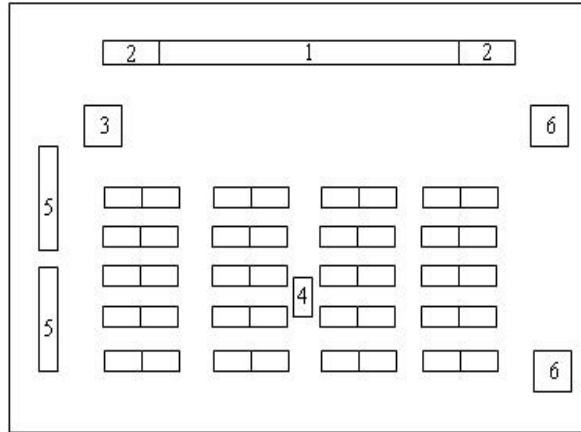
- | | |
|------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1 = blackboard | 7 = picture of the King |
| 2 = whiteboard | 8 = students' desks and chairs |
| 3 = exhibition boards | 9 = windows |
| 4 = clock | 10 = doors |
| 5 = picture of the Thai flag | 11 = teacher's desk |
| 6 = picture of the Buddha | |



B

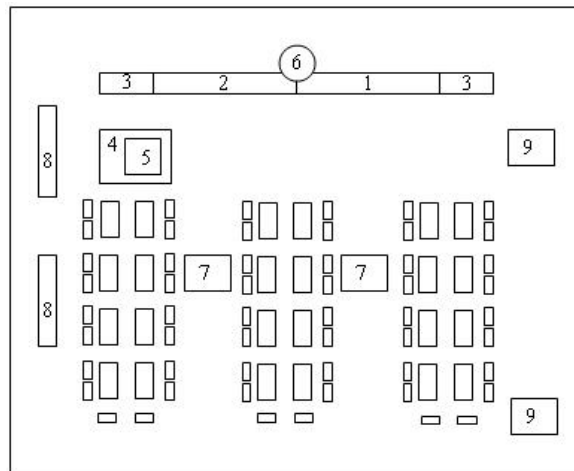
- | | |
|----------------|-----------|
| 1 = whiteboard | 6 = doors |
|----------------|-----------|

- 2 = exhibition boards
- 3 = cabinet
- 4 = electric fan
- 5 = teacher's desk
- 7 = students' desks and chairs
- 8 = windows
- 9 = television



C

- 1 = whiteboard
- 2 = exhibition boards
- 3 = teacher's desk
- 4 = students' desks and chairs
- 5 = windows
- 6 = doors



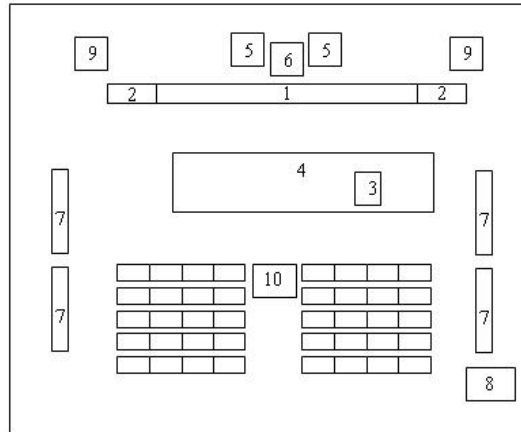
D

1 = blackboard	6 = clock
2 = whiteboard	7 = students' desks and chairs
3 = exhibition boards	8 = windows
4 = teacher's desk	9 = doors
5 = computer	

Figure 1 Ordinary classrooms

Laboratory

The room consisted of a long blackboard in the middle at the front of the classroom with two exhibition boards at each end. Above the blackboard were three pictures; an image of Buddha and pictures of the King and the Queen. In both the left and right corners, there were televisions near the ceiling. In front of the blackboard, there was a master console (the teacher's position) with one computer. The 40 booths were in 5 rows and two columns. Each row comprised of 4 adjacent booths. As the laboratory was adapted from an ordinary classroom, this room was rather plain. It was notable that the room was affected by noise as a result of chair movement in class. Windows were on both sides of the classroom.



1 = blackboard

7 = windows

2 = exhibition boards

8 = doors

3 = computer

9 = amplifiers

4 = counter

10 = students' booths

5 = pictures of the King and Queen

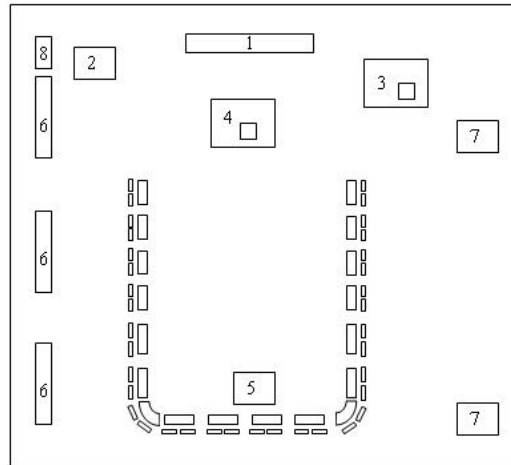
6 = image of Buddha

Figure 2 Laboratory with booth seating

Audio-Visual Room

This room was the best equipped, as there was a TV, an amplifier, a microphone, curtains, a computer, a projector, and a big screen which could be raised and lowered manually in front of the room. All seats were arranged in a U-shape with an open area in the middle. All tables were similar to those in the teachers' offices. Chairs in this room were made of plastic and metal, so they were very noisy when moved. This room is used for staff meetings, faculty activities and the viewing of videos, DVDs,

and CDs. Normally, it was not used as a classroom. It was also more spacious than ordinary classrooms.



1 = screen

5 = tables and chairs

2 = set of altar tables

6 = windows with curtains

3 = table with amplifier

7 = doors

4 = table with laptop

8 = air-conditioner

Figure 3 Audio-visual room

Appendix N: Transcription Conventions

T	teacher
Ss	several students at once or the whole class
S	student (not identified)
S1	identified student
[]	overlapping utterances – (beginning []) and (ending])
=	turn latching: one turn follows another without any pause
(0.4/4.0)	silence; length given in microseconds or seconds
(.)	a micro-pause (1 tenth of a second or less)
::	sound extension of a word (more colons demonstrate longer stretches)
-	an abrupt stop in articulation
(xxxx)	unintelligible utterances
—	underlined letters or words indicate emphasis
↑ ↓	rising or falling intonation
o o	surrounds talk that is quieter
T-E-M-P-L-E	spelling
(())	analyst's notes
→	illustrates the point made
\$ \$	surrounds a 'smiling' voice
DAY	capitals indicate increased volume

Modified from Atkinson and Heritage (1984)

Thai transcription

p ^h a:sǎ:	International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) with Phonemic tones (Naksakul, 2002)
(Thai)	English translation

Appendix P: The International Phonetic Alphabet (Thai)

1. Thai Consonants

1.1 Initials

In each cell below, the first line indicates the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA), and the second indicates Thai alphabets in the initial position (several letters appearing in the same box have identical pronunciation).

Table 1 Thai consonants (initials)

	Bilabial			Labio-dental	Alveolar			Post-alveolar	Palatal	Velar			Glottal
Plosive	/p/ ป	/p ^h / ผ, พ, ภ	/b/ บ *		/t/ ต, ถ, ด, ถ, ฐ	/t ^h / ฐ, ท, ฒ, ฒ *	/d/ ฎ, ฎ *				/k/ ก, ฅ, ฌ, ฌ *	/k ^h / ข, ฃ, ฌ, ฌ *	/ʔ/ อ *
Nasal		/m/ ม				/n/ ณ, น					/ŋ/ ง		
Fricative			/f/ ฟ, ฟ	/s/ ซ, ส, ษ, ศ									/h/ ห, ฮ
Affricate							/tʃ/ จ	/tʃ ^h / ฉ, ช, ฌ					
Trill						/r/ ร							
Approximant		/w/ ว							/j/ ญ, ย				
Lateral						/l/ ล, ฬ							

* At the end of a syllable บ /b/ and ด /d/ are devoiced, becoming pronounced as /p/ and /t/ respectively.

* ฃ /k^h/ and ฅ /k^h/ are no longer used. Thus, modern Thai is said to have 42 consonants.

* Initial ๑ is silent and is therefore considered as glottal plosive.

1.2 Finals

Table 2 Thai consonants (finals)

	Bilabial		Alveolar		Palatal		Velar		Glottal
Plosive	/p/ บ, ป, พ, ฟ, ภ		/t/ จ, ช, ฃ, ฉ, ฅ, ฌ, ญ, ฎ, ฏ, ฐ, ฑ, ฒ, ฒ, ฒ, ฒ, ฒ, ฒ, ศ, ษ, ส		/k/ ก, ข, ค, ฃ				/ʔ/*
Nasal		/m/ ม		/n/ ณ, ญ, น, ร, ฌ, ฬ				/ŋ/ ง	
Approximant		/w/ ว				/j/ ย			

* The glottal plosive appears at the end when no final consonant follows a short vowel.

2. Thai Vowels

2.1 Monophthongs

Table 3 Thai monophthongs

	Front		Back			
	unrounded		unrounded		rounded	
	short	long	short	long	short	long
Close	/i/ อิ	/i:/ อี	/u/ อุ	/u:/ อู	/u/ อุ	/u:/ อู
Close-mid	/e/ เอะ	/e:/ เอ	/ɤ/ เออะ	/ɤ:/ เออ	/o/ โอะ	/o:/ โอ
Open-mid	/ɛ/ แอะ	/ɛ:/ แอ			/ɔ/ เออะ	/ɔ:/ ออ
Open			/a/ อะ, ั	/a:/ อา		

Source: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Thai_language

Table 4 Long-short pairs with instances

Long					Short				
Thai script	IPA		Thai word	Meaning	Thai script	IPA		Thai word	Meaning
อา	/a:/	/fǎ:/	ฝา	lid	อะ	/a/	/fǎn/	ฝัน	to dream
อี	/i:/	/ti:/	ตี	to hit	อิ	/i/	/tít/	ติด	to stick
อู	/u:/	/du:/	ดู	to look	อุ	/u/	/dù/	ดุ	fierce
เอ	/e:/	/t ^h e:/	เท	to pour	เอะ	/e/	/k ^h em/	เค็ม	salty
แอ	/ɛ:/	/tɛ:/	แต่	but	แอะ	/ɛ/	/kɛ/	แกะ	sheep
อู้อี	/u:/	/mu:/	มือ	hand	อู้อี	/u/	/dɯ:ŋ/	ดึง	to pull
เออ	/ɤ:/	/tɛ ^h ɤ:n/	เชิญ	to invite	เออะ	/ɤ/	/ŋɤn/	เงิน	money
โอะ	/o:/	/k ^h ɔ:n/	โขน	one kind of Thai drama	โอะ	/o/	/k ^h on/	คน	to stir
ออ	/ɔ:/	/k ^h ɔ:/	คอ	neck	เออะ	/ɔ/	/k ^h ɔ/	เกาะ	island

2.2 Diphthongs

Table 5 Thai diphthongs

Long					Short				
Thai	IPA	Thai word	IPA	Meaning	Thai	IPA	Thai word	IPA	Meaning
เอื้อ	/u: ^h a/	เสือ	/sū: ^h a/	tiger	เอื้อะ	/ua/		/ua/	
เอื้อย	/i: ^h a/	เสืย	/sī: ^h a/	rotten	เอื้อยะ	/ia/	เฝียะ	/p ^h ia/	The sound of beating
อ้าว	/u: ^h a/	กลัว	/klu: ^h a/	fear	อ้าวะ	/ua/	ฝ้าวะ	/p ^h ua/	The sound of beating

2.3 Triphthongs

Table 6 Thai triphthongs

Thai	IPA	Thai word	IPA	Meaning
เอื้อยว	/iaw/	เขียว	/k ^h iaw/	green
อวย	/uaj/	ช่วย	/tɛ ^h uaj/	help
เอื้อย	/uaj/	เลื้อย	/lūaj/	saw

2.4 Extra Vowels

Table 7 Thai extra vowels

Thai	IPA	Thai word	IPA	Meaning
อ๋า	/am/	คำ	/k ^h am/	word
ฤ	/ru/			
ฤา	/ru:/	ฤาษี	/ru:sǐ:/	hermit (n)
ฤ	/lu/			
ฤา	/lu:/			

3. Tones

Table 8 Thai tones

Tone	Thai word	IPA	Meaning in English
mid	ฟา	/fa:/	the fourth note in a musical scale
low	ฝ่า	/fâ:/	violate, break
falling	ฝ๊า	/fâ:/	blemish, ceiling
high	ฟ้า	/fá:/	sky
rising	ฝ่า	/fǎ:/	wall, lid

Appendix Q: Lesson Descriptions

All 18 lessons observed covered different topics, such as the weather, the seasons and daily routines. The focus of the lessons was on vocabulary, grammar and specific language functions. All six STs taught an English course, which was compulsory for all secondary students. Under the supervision of professional qualified cooperating teachers, the STs were responsible for the whole course in terms of planning, teaching and assessment. Lists of topics, pedagogical goals, and the length and contents of each lesson are presented in the following table. The data were drawn from both the STs' lesson plans and the classroom observation notes.

Table 1 Lesson descriptions

School	Student teacher	Lesson	Length of the lesson (in minutes)	Pedagogical goals	Topics	Contents of the lesson
1	ST1	1	41	-Explain the meaning of the words -Pronounce the words that are used to describe the weather and tourist attractions correctly	Did you have a good time?	-Vocabulary -What can you see in this picture? -I can see.... -Where did you go? -I went to -What was the weather like? -It was.....
		2	42	-Talk about travel and trips in the past	Did you have a good time?	-How was your trip in [sic].....? -How long did you stay there?

Table 1 (continued)

School	Student teacher	Lesson	Length of the lesson (in minutes)	Pedagogical goals	Topics	Contents of the lesson
				-Talk about the weather and interesting places		-What was the weather like?
		3	42	-Explain the sentence structure of the past simple tense -Use past simple tense correctly -Write the sentence using the correct form (past tense) of the verbs	Did you have a good time?	-Past Simple tense -Verbs (Past tense form): Regular and irregular verbs
1	ST2	1	33	-Explain the meaning of the words related to meals and food -Pronounce words correctly -Talk about their favourite food	What is there for lunch?	-Vocabulary (food for breakfast, lunch as well as dinner, desserts and drinks) -What do you usually eat for breakfast/lunch/dinner? -What is your favourite food?
		2	48	-Pronounce the dialogue correctly	What is there for lunch?	Dialogue from the textbook (p. 34)

Table 1 (continued)

School	Student teacher	Lesson	Length of the lesson (in minutes)	Pedagogical goals	Topics	Contents of the lesson
		3	49	-Answer questions about the dialogue -Understand the words about food in the dialogue -Use 'some' and 'any' correctly - Use 'There is' and 'There are' correctly. -Differentiate between countable and uncountable nouns	What is there for lunch?	-Some/ any -Countable and uncountable nouns -There is/ There are
2	ST3	1	45	-Pronounce words, explain their meaning and spell the words that are used to describe their daily life	Daily life	-Vocabulary: get up, get dressed
		2	51	-Pronounce the words, explain their meaning and spell the words that are used to	Daily life	-Vocabulary -What time do you get up?

Table 1 (continued)

School	Student teacher	Lesson	Length of the lesson (in minutes)	Pedagogical goals	Topics	Contents of the lesson
				describe their daily life -Talk about their daily life		
		3	48	-Talk about their daily life	Daily life	Vocabulary -What time do you _____?
3	ST4	1	50	-Talk about everyday activities by using present simple tense -Add 's' or 'es' to verb forms correctly -Use a correct word to describe daily routines	Daily routines	-Vocabulary: wake up, take a shower, drink coffee -Present simple tense -How to add 's' or 'es' to verb forms -What do you usually do at _____? -I usually _____
		2	42	Ask and answer questions about daily routines	Daily routines	-What time do/does you/she/he usually____? -I/She/He usually _____ at _____. What do/does you/she/he usually do at home? I/He/She usually _____.
		3	55	Add 's' or 'es' to	Daily routines	-How to add 's' or 'es' to verb

Table 1 (continued)

	Student teacher	Lesson	Length of the lesson (in minutes)	Pedagogical goals	Topics	Contents of the lesson
				verb forms correctly		forms
4	ST5	1	55	-Pronounce verbs, and explain their meaning -Ask and answer by using 'What are you doing?' -Use the present continuous correctly	Verbs	-Vocabulary: verbs - -ing form of verbs -Present continuous -What are you doing? -I am ___V _{ing} ___.
		2	45	-Pronounce and understand the meaning of words -Ask and answer about a house	My house	-Vocabulary: bedroom, basement -What is this room? -It is a ____. -Where is the ____? -It is in the ____.
		3	50	-Pronounce, tell the meaning of and spell the words which are used to describe the weather -Use a correct word to	Weather	-Vocabulary: rainy, sunny, windy, cloudy, foggy -What is the weather like? -It's ____.

Table 1 (continued)

	Student teacher	Lesson	Length of the lesson (in minutes)	Pedagogical goals	Topics	Contents of the lesson
				describe the weather -Ask and answer about the weather		
4	ST6	1	49	-Identify a part of speech of given words -Write sentences correctly by using given words	Part of speech	Noun, verb, pronoun, adjective, adverb, preposition, conjunction, interjection
		2	43	-Translate a short passage into Thai -Explain the differences between the four seasons -Present and summarise what they read in front of the class	Seasons	-Vocabulary: winter, spring, summer, autumn -Four short passages about the four seasons
		3	45	-Use preposition correctly -Talk about where things are by using the right preposition	Preposition	Prepositions: in, on, under, beside, between

The length of the lessons in Schools 1 and 2 was 50 minutes, whereas in Schools 3 and 4, the lessons lasted for 1 hour. The lessons observed were shorter in School 1 and 2, as students had to travel from building to building and from class to class after each period due to the insufficient number of classrooms. As can be seen from this table, ST5's and ST6's lessons lacked continuity.