

**INFLUENCES OF DIALOGIC REFLECTIONS ON CHANGES
IN THE BELIEFS AND PRACTICES OF THAI UNIVERSITY
TEACHERS OF ENGLISH RELATING TO VOCABULARY
TEACHING IN READING**

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Thesis Submitted for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Integrated PhD in Educational and Applied Linguistics

School of Education, Communication, and Language Sciences

Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences



June 2019

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.

Signature: _____

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ABSTRACT

Previous studies of dialogic reflection (DR) have focused on improving reflection and promoting teaching and learning (such as Mann and Walsh, 2013; Haneda *et al.*, 2017; Mann and Walsh, 2017; ab Rashid, 2018). However, little research has been conducted to investigate the influence of DR on changes in teachers' beliefs and practices. This study, therefore, aims to examine the features of DR as an approach to fostering professional development whilst exploring the extent to which influences bring about change in teachers' beliefs and practices.

The main aim of this study was to explore the various types of the influence of DRs on changes in the beliefs and practices regarding vocabulary instruction in relation to reading. A small group of Thai teachers of English from one university participated in this research. The study aimed at investigating what beliefs the teachers held and what practices they used in their teaching in order to compare their beliefs and practices pre- and post-DRs. A qualitative approach was adopted for the study. The beliefs these teachers held were investigated through pre-observation semi-structured interviews and their practice was observed throughout the second half of the semester in order to examine whether there was any influence or change in their initial and subsequent beliefs and practices. A post-observation semi-structured interview was employed to provide responses on how DR helped to transform teachers' changes in beliefs and practices.

This study indicates some forms of influence on certain changes made by some of the teachers. The results reveal that practical knowledge is gained through the internalisation of a mediational tool of DR which has influenced new beliefs and fostered new understanding in practice. The findings suggest that participating in DRs helps to promote the transformation of their beliefs and instructional behaviour from the intermental (social) to the intramental (cognitive) stages which contribute to internationalisation. Therefore, DR might be used as a scaffolding technique fostering changes in teachers' beliefs and practice or teacher learning.

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to

my beloved father, mother, and two sisters.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am deeply indebted to numerous people who have helped me during my doctoral work. First of all, I would like to express my gratitude to my supervisors, Dr. Mei Lin and Dr. Hanneke Jones for their guidance, support, understanding, patience, assistance and encouragement throughout my Ph.D research. Obviously, this study would never have been possible without their help.

My special thanks also go to my colleague, Assistant Professor Vanlee Siriganjanavong for her assistance with inter-rater reliability, listening to my problems, sharing knowledge, sharing experience and providing valuable comments. With her warm friendship and support, I did not feel lonely here.

My thanks go to my friend, Sudarat Srirak for her help with listening and commenting on my work.

I would like gratefully to acknowledge my friends, Len Brooks and Federico Quadraro for their support and assistance, especially proofreading whenever needed.

I would also like to thank the members of the ELT Department, where this research was conducted, for allowing me to carry out my study. In particular, my special thanks go to the five participants who volunteered to take part in this study and who patiently participated in all stages of the data collection process. Without them, this work would never have been possible.

My words of gratitude are reserved for my family. I am grateful to my father, Narong and my mother, Sirintorn, for their constant encouragement. I also would like to thank my two sisters, Naraporn and Sirimabangon for their support in any way they could. Without their love and care, I could not have made it.

Last but not least, my special appreciation is due to Prince of Songkla University for partially sponsoring me over the years.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

The lists below provide what each abbreviation stands for.

T: Teacher

Ts: Teachers

S: Student

Ss: Students

R: Researcher

SCT: Sociocultural theory

POI: Post observational semi-structured interview

PRI: Pre observational semi-structured interview

DR: Dialogic reflection

DRs: Dialogic reflections/ Participating in DR sessions

VTT: Vocabulary teaching techniques

VTL: Vocabulary teaching and learning

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Chapter 1. Introduction

1.1 Introduction

This study focused on exploring what the beliefs regarding second language vocabulary acquisition were held by Thai university teachers and what their instructional practices were like through comparisons of their pre- and post-dialogic reflective practice. This study will, therefore, investigate whether the use of dialogic reflection has led to any changes in teachers' beliefs and practices relating to vocabulary instructions.

This chapter explains the rationale for the study (section 1.2). First, it presents an overview of teaching and learning in Thailand including teaching and learning styles, the Thai culture of learning, English education policy, assessment, and vocabulary teaching (section 1.3). The aims and research questions are then described (section 1.4). Finally, the structure of this thesis is presented (section 1.5).

1.2 Rationale

Vocabulary is considered an essential element in English curricular of all educational levels in Thailand. However, most Thai students still encounter problems related to their own insufficient vocabulary knowledge which reflects both in a limited vocabulary size and breadth (knowledge of use) (Wangkangwan, 2007; Sittirak and Pornjamroe, 2009; Sukkrong, 2010; Yunus, *et al.*, 2016). Based on personal teaching experience, at a university where I worked as a lecturer of English for 7 years, vocabulary is an overarching element of all the English syllabi. However, my observation identifies how students' limited vocabulary knowledge causes difficulties in making progress in all four skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing, and most teachers only have students learn vocabulary and do exercises in the textbook. Having students primarily learn the vocabulary from the main textbook cannot sufficiently broaden their vocabulary span and knowledge, in the same way, that practicing matching words and definitions or filling words in the correct gaps in vocabulary exercises cannot actually facilitate usage in either speaking or in writing. Without more emphasis on vocabulary instruction or knowledge, it is very difficult for students to make much progress in vocabulary learning (Schmitt, 2008b).

Studies in a Thai context have shown a lack of emphasis on vocabulary instruction including limited vocabulary teaching techniques of rote learning (Tabtimsai, 2003; Mayuree, 2007; Iamsirirak, 2017), only textbook usage (Liangpanit, 2003) and Thai translation (Tassana-ngam, 2004). Considering this common practice that is shared and accepted by many Thai teachers, it is vital to raise awareness that these practices might not have an effective impact on vocabulary learning.

Among many factors leading to success or failure in language learning, it is essential to consider the important role of teachers' beliefs. What teachers think, consider, decide and act upon in the classroom directly affects students' learning or perceptions towards their learning. As teachers' beliefs are the prime factor influencing teachers' pedagogical practices (Borg, 2011; Bray, 2011; Li and Walsh, 2011; Anderson, 2012; Min, 2013; Sahin and Yildirim, 2016), beliefs can directly facilitate success or lead to failure in the teaching and learning process (Pajares, 1992; Barcelos and Kalaja, 2003; Borg, 2003, Campbell *et al.*, 2014). Recognising what beliefs teachers hold can enable them to improve their instructional preparation, practice and professional development (de Vries *et al.*, 2014).

It is well-accepted that reflection has been used as a means for facilitating changes in teachers' beliefs (Tillema, 2000; Helyer, 2015) and professional development (de Vries *et al.*, 2014). However, the focus of a recent trend has changed from the individual reflective practice to the role of social interaction on professional improvement. The individual reflective practice has been criticised for some particular issues. One of the criticisms is on its ignorance of the roles of social interaction which might facilitate teacher learning (Zeichner and Loston, 1996; Bradbery *et al.*, 2010; York-Barr *et al.*, 2011; Mann and Walsh, 2013). When teachers reflect by themselves, they do not encounter any challenges in their thinking (Day, 1993; Haneda *et al.*, 2017) which makes the reflection ineffective (Brookfield, 2017). Moreover, a lack of concrete, data-led evidence, a dominance of written reflection and a lack of appropriate reflective tools are found to weaken the effectiveness of individual reflective practice (Mann and Walsh, 2013; Mann and Walsh, 2017).

To respond to this challenge, dialogic reflection, where reflection is mediated through social interaction and conversation, is used to promote teacher learning in this study. It establishes the reflection process as a learning process for teachers and enhancing their learning through sharing teaching experiences at frequently scheduled opportunities.

The concept of social interaction and the claim of the importance of dialogue in teacher development or teacher learning has been prevailingly accepted in many studies (such as Benammar, 2004; Procee, 2006; Leijen *et al.*, 2012). Reflection through interaction with others allows co-construction of meanings to occur, and this facilitates sharing experience and the ability to learn from other perspectives (ab Rashid, 2018). Engaging with different teachers in dialogic reflection also offers teachers the opportunity to explore their belief and practice experiences which should lead to teacher learning or changes in their beliefs and practices.

While growing attention is being given to the principles of sociocultural theories and their application to research in dialogic reflection as a means to promote reflection (e.g. Hardford and MacRuairc, 2008; Mann and Walsh, 2017; ab Rashid, 2018) or as a means for instructional practice or knowledge enhancement (such as Hepple, 2010; Nehring *et al.*, 2011; Haneda *et al.* 2017), little study found to date has been written about the influence of dialogic reflection on teachers' changes in beliefs and practices.

Moreover, unlike previous studies in which evidence was mainly derived from analysis of dialogic reflection or reflective conversations to reveal what pre-service or in-service teachers have learned (e.g. Haneda *et al.*, 2017; Mann and Walsh, 2017; ab Rashid, 2018), this present study employed the pre- and post-observation interviews to identify if dialogic reflection (DR) had any influences on changes in their beliefs, and classroom observation data was used to confirm their changes in practice. Whilst previous studies relating to changes in teachers' beliefs and practices have paid attention to beliefs changes based on cognitive framework or DR to promote reflection, scant attention has been paid to the influence of DR on the changes in teachers' beliefs and practice relating to a specific aspect of vocabulary instruction. Thus, there is clearly a need to investigate how dialogic reflection influences teacher learning or teacher change in beliefs and practices, especially in relation to the examination of vocabulary teaching through sociocultural theory to which has been given little attention (Borg, 2003; Borg, 2006; Hassamkiad and Alsadat, 2012).

Accordingly, dialogic reflection was considered appropriate for this study. It was used as a means to promote teacher learning which might allow teachers to learn more from each other or provoke more critical thinking relating to their teaching and to examine their current practices. DR may challenge the beliefs they hold and provide an impetus to change these beliefs and practices. As co-construction of dialogues allows meanings and ideas to take place (Lave and Wenger, 1998), and knowledge is developed through social interaction (Vygotsky, 1978), sharing personal teaching practices between more and less experienced teachers

facilitates learning (Vygotsky, 1978) and contributes to teachers' professional learning and development (Hord, 1997; de Vries *et al.*, 2014).

Therefore, employing DRs might allow teachers to learn more from reflective practice and have deeper perspectives when they listen to their colleagues about how vocabulary is taught in classrooms, which might facilitate some shifts in their beliefs and practices. At the same time, it might allow me to examine whether DR influenced changes in teachers' beliefs and practices as an approach to foster professional development and to identify factors leading to changes in their beliefs and practices.

The following section outlines the context of the study in order to provide an overview of the general background of education and vocabulary teaching in Thailand.

1.3 Teaching and learning in Thailand

This section provides background information regarding teaching and learning in Thailand. It consists of teaching and learning styles (section 1.3.1), Thai culture of learning (section 1.3.2), English policy (section 1.3.3), assessment (section 1.3.4), and vocabulary teaching in Thailand (section 1.3.5).

1.3.1 Teaching and learning styles of Thai teachers and students

Teacher-centred and students' passive learning are major teaching and learning styles in Thailand (Kaur *et al.*, 2016). One of the causes of this teaching and learning style might be a large class size. A typical class size at government schools and universities is about a minimum of forty to over fifty students (Dhanasobhon, 2006; Todd, 2012). Due to a big class size, lecturing is a common teaching style in which the teachers instruct in front of the classroom with the low engagement of students, and the students' common activity is note-taking (Leigh *et al.*, 2012; Rattanavich, 2013). Furthermore, an ethnography study conducted by Kullberg (2010) with a primary school in southern Thailand for over 12 years shows that most teachers employ a recital teaching method in which a teacher speaks, and students repeat after the teacher. Her observation data indicates teachers are authoritarian, and discipline is the priority. Another finding of Akesson and Vallin (2013) with elementary school teachers in the south similarly reveals that the most common technique of recital learning is the main instructional

technique in classes. Their observation data show that students are not allowed to speak, and they are expected to give full attention to the teacher except when the teacher tells them to discuss with each other.

Apart from a physical context of classroom size, exam-oriented teaching predominantly serves or guides teaching and learning style in Thailand (Kaur *et al.*, 2016). The results of the study of Akensoon and Vallin (2013) show that punishment after students cannot give correct answers and compliments on their right answers are motivating techniques the teachers employ. The main purpose of doing this is to encourage students to fully concentrate on lessons and to pass the final examination. Clearly, factors regarding class size and exam success influence teachers' practice (Borg, 2006).

It seems possible to conclude that big classroom size and exam-oriented teaching are major problems obstructing teachers to engage students in learning through a variety of teaching techniques apart from Thai translation and lecturing to enable students to pass the exams.

Besides an overview of teaching and learning in Thailand, it is essential to understand learning culture in order to make sense of teaching and learning behaviours of Thai teachers and students.

1.3.2 Thai culture of learning

Thai education stems from Buddhist teaching of “no self” (anatta) which influences on Thai habit of flexibility in work, study, and interaction (Pittiyauwat and Anantrasirichai, 2002). Regarding the Buddhist principles, four aspects of Thai culture influencing teachers on teaching and learning in Thailand are presented as follows;

The first value is in relation to power distance. Hofstede (2003) classified Thailand as a high power distance culture. In Thai society, teachers are highly respected. An obvious example shows how Thai students respect their teachers is in an addressing form of “Ajarn or Krue” which means lecturer, teacher or professor (Wallace, 2003). Teachers are authoritative and knowledgeable (Rakham, 2008). Thai students have been trained to believe every word teachers teach without question (Gunawan, 2016). It is considered improper for students to argue against teachers' teaching. Moreover, they have been trained not to bother or “Kreng jai” the senior. Therefore, Thai students do not ask questions and remain quiet in class to show respect (Gunawan, 2016). However, a recent study with university students by Root (2016) indicates

different results of a mid to low power distance. The results suggest that there are some changes of less power distance in a new generation than the previous generations. This shows that some new generations tend to be more confident or do not feel uncomfortable. They are brave to ask questions when they do not understand and want to express ideas in class.

Second, Thais value collectivism or groups (Thongprasert *et al.*, 2017). Group work is commonly found in Thai classes (Yosraveevorakul *et al.*, 2017). A study conducted to investigate the politeness strategies reflect Thai students' high value of collectivism through the use of "we identity" to share their knowledge online (Etae *et al.*, 2012). More importantly, Thais value more social interest than individual interests (Root, 2016). Conflict within the group is inappropriate which makes Thai students remain quiet and avoid raising different opinions (Rakham, 2008). This situation always occurs when students are asked to do group work. Many students avoid sharing their opinions even though they disagree with their group members. The main reason this avoidance behaviour occurs is that they are afraid that it may cause them problems with their peers in the future.

The third aspect is femininity. Some influence on characteristics of Thai people regarded as feminine involves politeness and quietness which make Thai students quiet in class and avoid conflict from introducing their needs or opinions in order not to disturb the group consensus (Rakham, 2008). Another concept is "Sanook" or having fun. This concept of fun is always observed successfully with most Thai students (Holmes *et al.*, 1995). This concept prevails among many teachers as seen from using games as one of the main teaching techniques. The effectiveness of the feelings of "fun" has been proved in many studies, for example, games which are used to promote vocabulary learning in the studies of Sonsut (2006), Supakaew (2007) and Jaihaw (2011).

The fourth value relating to teaching and learning is avoidance of uncertainty. Thai students have mid-level uncertainty avoidance (Gunawan, 2016). High level of uncertainty means they do not prefer an unambiguous situation and challenge which reflects in their paying attention to what teachers teach and waiting for the teachers to tell them what to do (Holmes *et al.*, 1995). This value reflects in teacher-centred which is still found in many classes in Thailand (Leigh *et al.*, 2012). Another example might be the employment of Thai translation as a major teaching technique in many English classes in order to promote actual comprehension to students. Therefore, it can be seen that Thai culture has an important role and influence on teaching and learning for both Thai teachers and students.

Obviously, Thai culture has an influence on Thai students' learning behaviours including highly respect teachers and avoidance of conflicts with teachers and classmates. This explains why most Thai students are passive learners who are familiar with Thai translation and lecturing styles of teaching. Therefore, considering such teaching and learning styles, one could see how challenging promoting student-centres in Thailand education would be as neither Thai teachers nor learners are familiar with this approach or concept.

The following section focuses on English education policy in Thailand.

1.3.3 English education policy

According to Basic Education Core Curriculum (OBEC 2008), basic education in Thailand announces twelve years of schooling: six years at a primary school, three years at a lower secondary school and the following three years of upper secondary school or vocational school (Todd, 2012). However, the compulsory period of schooling in Thailand is nine years: six years of primary school and the subsequent three years of lower secondary education. The following three years either in upper secondary schooling or vocational schooling and higher education depends on individual students if they would like to continue their study. All these twelve years are free for equal opportunities of education. No national exams are required for grade 9 students in order to continue in upper secondary education. Unlike lower secondary educational levels, the University Entrance Examination issued by Ministry of University Affairs and some parts from students' grade points average (GPA) are used as criteria for eligibility in universities (Hays, 2010).

Focusing on the English language, English policies in Thailand have been amended according to the changing roles of English. It has been the first foreign language for Thai students to study since King Rama V in 1871. At that time, English became a prestigious foreign language as a means to transform Thailand to become a modernised nation (Fry and Bi, 2013). The study program was six years. The focus of English teaching was on reading, writing, and translation from Thai into English and from English into Thai (Darasawang, 2007; Baker and Jarunthawatchai, 2017) as the main purpose was to prepare them to become officials in the Thai ministries (Prachoom, 1965; Anuraj, 1997).

In the reign of King Rama VI (1910-1925), the announcement of Education Act was made to stipulate that all Thais aged four to eight years old (grade 1 to grade 4) had to attend school,

and English was a compulsory subject the students needed to study after grade 4. Teaching methods prevailingly used in this period were rote learning and grammar translation because the main purpose was the same as the previous period-to prepare Thai students to serve the country (Darasawang, 2007; Baker and Jarunthawatchai, 2017).

After 1932, a new English syllabus was first introduced in secondary schools. In this period, grammar and translation were the main teaching methods, and the emphasis was on reading aloud with correct pronunciation. It should be noted that there was a greater need for English learning as it became the international language Thais used for communication after World War II (1941-1945) (Darasawang, 2007).

Then in the 1950s, a new method of an aural-oral method was promoted by the American and British experts working in Thailand (Darasawang, 2007). It can be seen that there was a major change in the traditional method of grammar-translation to more promotion of the communicative approach. However, this teaching method was offered only to small groups of students.

In 1960, a new curricular was announced. English became more important as seen in the prescribed textbooks and supplementary materials by the Ministry of Education. Students were required to learn English after grade 4, and the goal enabled them to use English in communication. In 1977, there was a revision of the 1960 curriculum based on the problematic issues of the prescribed books and the teacher-centred teaching style which did not promote the communicative approach.

According to the 1997 curriculum, English was still important as it was one of the compulsory subjects in the National University Entrance Exam while other foreign languages were elective courses (Darasawang, 2007). Moreover, varied policies had been promoted in order to increase the capacity of the use of English. Some examples of the projects consisted of the enforcement of learning English since a primary school level in 1995 and the announcement of 1996 English curriculum, the opening of international schools and English programs. However, the results did not meet expectations (Office of the Basic Education Commission (OBEC), 2012).

During the employment of 1999 National Education Act and 2001 National Education Curriculum which was implemented in 2002, the Ministry of Education (MOE) announced a new policy which considered a very important educational reform. This change resulted in a focus of language teaching from the traditional approach which focused on the acquisition of linguistic knowledge-vocabulary, pronunciation, and syntax- to communicative approach in

order to prepare Thai students with intercultural cross-communication (Kim and Hall, 2002, OBEC, 2012; Baker and Jarunthawatchai, 2017).

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) was further promoted, and students were encouraged to use the language to communicate in different situations at schools in Thailand (Wongsothorn *et al.*, 2002; Darasawang 2007; Baker and Jarunthawatchai, 2017), and task-based syllabi is promoted in class at higher education (Todd 2006, McDonough and Chaikitmongkol 2007). As a result, the prominent roles of English have been increasingly emphasized as not only a language studied in the classroom but also a means of practical and social use (Foley, 2005).

The attempt at promoting English to Thais is still increasing more and more. According to the Basic Education Core Curriculum (OBEC, 2008), English has been a compulsory course from grades 1-6. English is required for all schools and higher education and becomes a part of degree completion (Baker and Jarunthawatchai 2017). Schools have more authority in terms of time allocation, teaching materials, teaching methods, and assessment. In terms of language teaching, the new school curriculum requires students to learn English for 800-1000 sessions (20-30 minutes per session) in each academic year in primary school and 1200 sessions (50 minutes per session) in secondary school.

Focusing on higher education, the Office of Higher Education Commission (OHEC) announced a policy of standard English in HE. OHEC (2016) places more emphasis on the standard of English with the purpose of improving students' English proficiency to meet academic and professional knowledge. It focuses on three main areas: the university's policy on English language, ELT practices, and assessment of students' English language proficiency.

In practice, each university has autonomy in deciding their policy because it is just a guideline, not a mandate. Teaching practice needs to be revised to improve students' English proficiency, such as providing some additional exposure of English including extra-curricular activities, language learning resources, language learning environment that needs to promote life-long learning and learner-centre for learning English at their own paces. Lastly, students need to take the international standardised tests selected by the university as a means of graduation completion (OHEC, 2016; Baker and Jarunthawatchai, 2017).

Regarding English policy at the tertiary level, English is a compulsory subject university students are required to take at least 12 credits or four courses: two fundamental English courses (6 credits) and the other two English courses of English for specific purposes or English for

academic purposes (6 credits). The emphasis is placed on autonomous learnings, and the goal of learning English is for effective communication among speakers not to achieve native-like competency (Baker and Jarunthawatchai, 2017).

Specifically, the curriculum of the university where the study took place offers courses under the main broad objective of equipping students to use English as a means of communication and research and to learn cultural contexts of people in English speaking countries. The curriculum requires students to take six credits (two compulsory courses and one elective course) including English Listening and Speaking, English Reading and Writing which was the course observed in the study, Reading Development and another elective course of Edutainment.

The course descriptions of each course are provided as follows.

Courses codes and course names	Course descriptions	Course objectives
English Listening and Speaking	Practice of English conversations in daily life; emphasis on listening and speaking skills for accurate and effective communication; practice of listening to songs, tales, news and descriptions	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To provide basic listening and speaking skills 2. To have students understand cultures of English speaking countries 3. To have students develop their study skills 4. To equip students to have basic knowledge and study skills for their future study
English Reading and Writing	Developing reading skills focusing on main ideas and vocabulary improvement; developing grammatical and meaningful sentences and short paragraph writing skills	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To read and understand language and cultures from reading contexts 2. To apply grammatical knowledge to communicate in writing sentence and message levels

Reading Development	Developing good reading habits; general reading skills; practice of reading a wide range of texts; minimum reading level of 3,000 words	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To build and develop a good reading habit 2. To increase English vocabulary knowledge 3. To practice reading different types of reading articles
Edutainment for English Skills	English skills development utilizing entertainment methods and information technology, e .g .TV programs, computer software, to enhance students ' knowledge as well as attitudes towards English language learning	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To equip students to have basic English communicative knowledge (listening-speaking-reading-writing) 2. To have students to develop English study skills through media and technology 3. To have students understand cultures of English speaking countries 4. To equip students to have a positive attitude towards learning English

Source: <http://curriculum.pn.psu.ac.th/>

Table 1.1 Course descriptions

Even though the Thai government has tried many ways to improve English for Thai students, problems of poor performance of English are still found in both schools and universities (Wiriyachitra, 2002, Baker and Jarunthawatchai, 2017). Since the 1999 National Education Act, it can be noticed that there was a transformation in the English policy, from the teacher-centred approach to learner-centred approach (Darasawang, 2007). In terms of school level, these changes have led to many problems including the implementation of CLT without adequate understanding and training to teachers (Methitham and Chamcharatsri, 2011), students' low motivation of learning English, mismatch between the expectation of the teaching materials or textbooks (Vellenga, 2004; Shimizu *et al.*, 2007), inadequate funding and resources, large class sizes and overburdened teachers, poor quality of teachers (Yunibandhu, 2004) and the diversity in the interpretation of the same curriculum (Wongsothron, 2002). In the tertiary level, English curriculum in Thai universities cannot also meet the demands for English used in the workplace because the focus skills of listening and speaking are not the

main focus in the Thai tertiary education English curriculum (Wiriyachitra, 2002). Considering the aforementioned issues, it seems difficult to encourage teachers to implement a communicative or task-based approach to students. Therefore, despite this promotion of English in Thailand, Thais' English proficiency is still poor as seen from the rank of 53 out of 80 countries in the region or the rank of 15 out of 20 countries in Asia with the score of 49.78 announced by the EF English proficiency index (EF EPI, 2017).

Clearly, English curriculum has been adjusted according to the roles of English from time to time. It is noteworthy that English has been emphasized more and more in Thai education in order to encourage Thai students to be able to meet both academic and professional standards. One practice which requires each university to follow is to have university students pass the international standardized tests as a means to guarantee their English proficiency after graduation.

The following section presents the assessment system in Thailand.

1.3.4 Assessment

The latest 2008 curriculum identifies two objectives for student assessment. The first objective is to develop students' capacity and the second one is to measure their achievement. Students are assessed according to four main levels. Level 1 assessment is carried out by teachers who regularly and continuously assess students' performance. Level 2 assessment is at the school level. Students sit in two examinations each year in order to measure and evaluate if students can reach their learning goals and to identify any issues that need to be addressed. Level 3 assessment takes place by the educational service area (ESA) or local level aiming to monitor student learning through standard examination papers and data obtained from schools. Level 4 assessment is at the national level. Students sit in national examinations at the end of Grade 3 (Prathom 3), 6 (Prathom 6), 9 (Mattayom 3), and 12 (Mattayom 6) and its aim is to compare educational quality at different levels. The data obtained from the tests of particular grades will be used as a means for policymakers to fill the gaps or addressing emerging issues in order to plan, support and raise the education quality of the nation (OECD, 2016).

Regarding the aforementioned assessment policy, students of grade 6 (Prathom 6), 9 (Mattayom 3), and 12 (Mattayom 6) are required to take the Ordinary National Education Test (O-NET) issued by the National Institute of Educational Testing Service (NIETS) who is in charge of the

country's standardised student assessments. More importantly, the O-NET scores are used as a part of the exit decision for school completion and certification.

Educational quality control influences on teachers' heavy test assessment. A study conducted by Todd and Shih (2013) shows that the Thai education system is heavily test-centric. An illustration is the increase of the national-level tests which requires students to take every three years of schooling together with other types of assessment depending on teachers and schools. The impact of the emphasis of assessment coming from the government leads to wash-back paradox (Todd and Shin, 2013). One of the impacts is the heavy reliance on multiple-choice testing as the main assessment for teachers in most schools (Piboonkanarax, 2007) including the university entrance exam. The second impact is on teaching. The results of the study by Fitzpatrick (2011) indicates that most upper secondary school teachers spent much of class time in the last year preparing students for the entrance examination. This means learning is achieved by memorising and it does not promote self-development (Bunnag, 2007).

In terms of English assessment, the goal shifts from achieving a native-like competence to an effective communication among speakers of English from different cultures. However, due to the mismatch between the gap of the policy and the implementation, it obstructs the application of CLT in language classrooms. To be more specific, many Thai teachers feel more comfortable teaching through a grammar-translation approach than a communicative approach (Wongsoonthorn *et al.*, 2003; Hice, 2016). Moreover, the annual assessment (O-Net exams) does not reflect much on communicative knowledge but structures (Dili, 2017). Furthermore, the mismatch between the exams also causes students to lose motivation and teachers to promote CLT as their aim is to have students pass the national exam (Dili, 2017). Therefore, most teachers do not promote communicative activities but memorising exercises (Fitzpatrick, 2011).

In short, heavy emphasis of assessment is a way the Thai government used to control the quality of Thai education. However, the wash-back effect is the promotion of the traditional approach instead of the communicative approach and students' lack of motivation in learning English for communication. Even though Thai universities have their own authority to make a decision on assessment, students are not familiar with other ways of teaching and learning. This explains why most Thai teachers emphasise syntax and use multiple-choice to enable students to pass the exams.

After having some overview of English teaching and learning in Thailand, how vocabulary is taught by a Thai teacher is reviewed as the study mainly focuses on vocabulary instruction.

1.3.5 Vocabulary teaching in Thailand

It is acknowledged that English vocabulary knowledge is imperative for success in EFL. However, many Thai students struggle due to insufficient vocabulary knowledge (Wangkangwan, 2007; Sittirak and Pornjamroen, 2009). One of the factors that impedes an emphasis on vocabulary teaching might be the lack of vocabulary specific courses, unlike the other main skills of reading, writing, speaking and listening as seen in the 1999 National Educational Act (Ministry of Education, 2000).

Even though vocabulary is introduced into all courses in the English curriculum, it is broadly specified. According to the Basic Education Core Curriculum B.E. 2551 (A.D. 2008), the relevance placed on knowledge of vocabulary identified in the curriculum is that Thai students are expected to have an English vocabulary of around 3,600-3,750 words (with differing levels of usage in listening, speaking, reading and writing) by the end of grade 12. Similar to previous educational levels, vocabulary at a tertiary level is also very broadly specified just as one of the general English language skills in order to allow each institution to have the authority to manage how it should be delivered to students (Intaraprasert, 2000; Darasawang, 2007). However, as there is no specific number of words outlined in the university English curriculum, and as the way universities manage vocabulary learning is independent, it is difficult to confirm how many words Thai university students are expected to know.

In relation to vocabulary knowledge, there is no consensus on the number of words university students should learn. Many researchers question the numbers of words required by learners in order to comprehend English texts, for example: the 3,000 most frequent words in English (Schmitt and Schmitt, 2014), the 8,000 word families of a threshold of 2,000-3,000 high-frequency words plus the 570 word families listed in the Coxhead's (2002) Academic Word List (AWL) (Nation, 2006). Considering the sheer amount of English vocabulary mentioned in previous studies, it appears to be difficult for Thai university students to obtain a suitable amount of vocabulary after their initial vocabulary completion in high school.

This lack of attention towards vocabulary teaching has been identified in many studies, indicating that Thai university students do not have a sufficiently broad knowledge of

vocabulary. For instance, a study by Yunus *et al.* (2016) showed that the average score of English major students for receptive vocabulary knowledge was 20.92%. This result suggests that Thai universities need to provide explicit vocabulary instruction in order to meet the academic and professional needs of future English major students. Another study reflecting the need to improve both vocabulary teaching and learning and teaching at a higher education level was conducted by Wan-a-rom (2012). The study identifies how vocabulary lists appearing in three teacher-made English language teaching (ELT) course books for English Foundation (in-house materials) were insufficient in terms of the number of both general service words and academic words which were crucial to academic study. In fact, the purpose of this study was to improve vocabulary teaching and learning at a tertiary level. However, the results reflect that a too broadly specified curriculum may not encourage teachers and students to reach the required level of attainment for students. Accordingly, it seems that vocabulary requires a greater emphasis within the learning process in order to support Thai students to succeed in language learning.

Therefore, the system of Thai education is a lack of the flexibility of system development for a particular area, specifically, English teaching. Mismatches between policy and instructional practices seem to be the most serious problem impeding the development of English teaching and learning in Thailand. Moreover, inevitably, Thai culture is another important factor influencing passive learning on Thai students.

1.4 Aims of the study and research questions

The present study aims to explore whether dialogic reflection would influence teachers' beliefs and practice relating to teaching vocabulary through reading. Accordingly, this study attempts to answer the following research questions:

1. How did dialogic reflection influence the teachers' beliefs relating to vocabulary teaching in reading pre- and post- reflective practice?
2. How did dialogic reflection influence the teachers' practices relating to vocabulary teaching in reading pre- and post- reflective practice?

1.5 Organisation of the thesis

This thesis comprises five chapters.

Chapter 1 described the rationale, the contextual background of the current study, the aims of the study, the research questions and the organisation of the study.

Chapter 2 critically reviews relevant literature pertaining to five areas. The first area was teachers' beliefs (definitions and concepts of teachers' beliefs, sources of teachers' beliefs, related research on teachers' beliefs and practices regarding vocabulary instruction and changes in teachers' beliefs). The second was about teachers' practices of vocabulary instruction (significance of vocabulary, factors contributing to vocabulary acquisition, and vocabulary instruction). The third point was in relation to teacher learning. The fourth area was about reflective practice and dialogic reflection, and the final area pertained to sociocultural theory.

Chapter 3 describes and justifies the research design and the methodology employed in the study, including the research paradigm, the research design, research approach, the data collection process, the pilot study, a description of the instruments, the methods of analysis used and trustworthiness and ethical issues.

Chapter 4 presents the findings of the investigation related to each of the research questions. It describes the results of the qualitative analysis of data from pre-observational semi-structured interviews, classroom observation, and post-observational semi-structured interviews.

Chapter 5 discusses the major findings in relation to the main arguments and the findings of previous studies. It presents the features of DR facilitating teacher change in beliefs and practices.

Chapter 2. Review of the Literature

2.1 Introduction

This chapter critically reviews the literature that is relevant to this present study. The review consists of five main bodies of literature relevant to the study under investigation. This chapter will be presented in the order: 2.2 on L2 teacher beliefs and changes in beliefs and practices, 2.3 on L2 vocabulary learning and teaching, 2.4 on teacher learning, 2.5 and 2.6 on reflective practice and dialogic reflection, and 2.7 about sociocultural theory.

2.2 Teachers' beliefs

The following describes definitions of teachers' beliefs, sources of teachers' beliefs, previous studies in relation to teachers' beliefs in vocabulary instructions, changes in teachers' beliefs and related previous studies of belief change.

2.2.1 Definitions and concepts of teachers' beliefs

To understand teachers' beliefs, it is necessary to have some concepts of what is meant by teachers' beliefs. Defining beliefs is difficult and there are still no clear definitions or conceptualisations (Pajares, 1992). As beliefs are not directly observed, conceptions of beliefs can be interpreted differently (Eisenhart *et al.*, 1988; Pajares, 1992). For instance, Pajares (1992) defines belief as an "individual's judgment of truth or falsity of a proposition, a judgment that can only be inferred from a collective understanding of what human beings say, intend, and do" (p.316). Another definition is given by Borg (2001, p. 186) 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."

Even though several terms and definitions have been employed in the chosen literature regarding beliefs, similar concepts are often defined using different terms. Borg's (2003) review shows varied definitions of terms, for example; 'personal pedagogical systems' (Borg, 1997) as stores of beliefs, knowledge, theories, assumptions and attitudes which play a significant role

in shaping teachers' instructional decisions; 'pedagogic principles' (Breen *et al.*, 2001) as shaped and generated by underlying and more abstract beliefs, which mediate between beliefs and on-going decision-making particularly in instructional contexts; pedagogical knowledge (Gatbonton, 2000) as the teacher's accumulated knowledge about the teaching act (e.g. its goals, procedures, strategies) which serves as the basis for his or her classroom behaviour and activities; BAK (Wood, 1996) as a construct analogous to the notion of schema, but emphasizing the notion that beliefs, assumptions, and knowledge are included, and so on. Considering these definitions from different researchers, it is possible to conclude that beliefs influence thinking and shape action, and all the terms such as beliefs, knowledge, theories, assumptions, and attitudes are interwoven.

As beliefs are not easy to define (Pajares, 1992; Borg, 2001; Borg, 2003), educational researchers resort to using teachers' stated beliefs which can be investigated through interviews and questionnaires completed by teachers. This present study follows the definition of stated beliefs, defined as "statements teachers made about their ideas, thoughts and knowledge that are expressed as evaluations of what "should be done", "should be the case" and "is preferable" (Basturkmen *et al.*, 2004, p. 244).

Therefore, beliefs in this current study include cognitive, affective, and evaluative components which are accumulatively formed consciously, or unconsciously, throughout an individual's life, held as true by individuals influencing their decision making and behaviour. In addition, this study does not distinguish beliefs from knowledge; therefore, the terms knowledge and belief will be used interchangeably.

2.2.2 Sources of teachers' beliefs

Knowing how teachers form their beliefs is essential as it helps in understanding what teachers believe about teaching and learning (Richards and Lockhart, 1994) and in understanding how their knowledge influences or shapes their instructional behaviour (Tsui, 2003). Teachers' beliefs exist as a system of core and peripheral (Pajares, 1992; Phipp and Borg, 2009; Borg, 2012). Core beliefs are stable and more influential on practices than peripheral beliefs. Understanding these belief sub-systems enhances a better understanding of the relationships between teachers' beliefs and practices for teachers. Teachers' belief systems are accumulated over time and can be gradually developed before the beginning of their professional lives or after as part of their professional development.

Many studies similarly shared three main sources of teachers' knowledge which greatly impacts their practices as shown in figure 2.1. The first source of belief construction is through teachers own learning or schooling experience. The main factor forming beliefs is teachers' experience as a learner (Borg, 2003; Hall, 2005; Ellis, 2006; Flores and Day, 2006, Xing, 2009). Apprenticeship of observation is a term coined by Lortie (1975) in reference to the observation of teaching as language learners. The learning experience they remember when they were students guides their instructional decision or determines what approach they employ in classes. Secondly, the teacher education program influences their pedagogical beliefs (Cabaroglu and Roberts, 2000; Borg, 2003; Poynor, 2005; Flores and Day, 2006, Sanchez and Borg, 2014). What the teachers learn from their professional education forms their knowledge of subject matter, teaching methods, student learning, and the role of teachers, all of which contributes to their teaching. Thirdly, teachers' direct teaching experience is a further source of knowledge (Grossman, 1990; Richards and Lockhart, 1994; Borg, 2003; Tsui, 2003). Their teaching experience shapes classroom practices and can help to form beliefs of what teaching strategies suit their students, what techniques are effective in managing classroom, and so on.

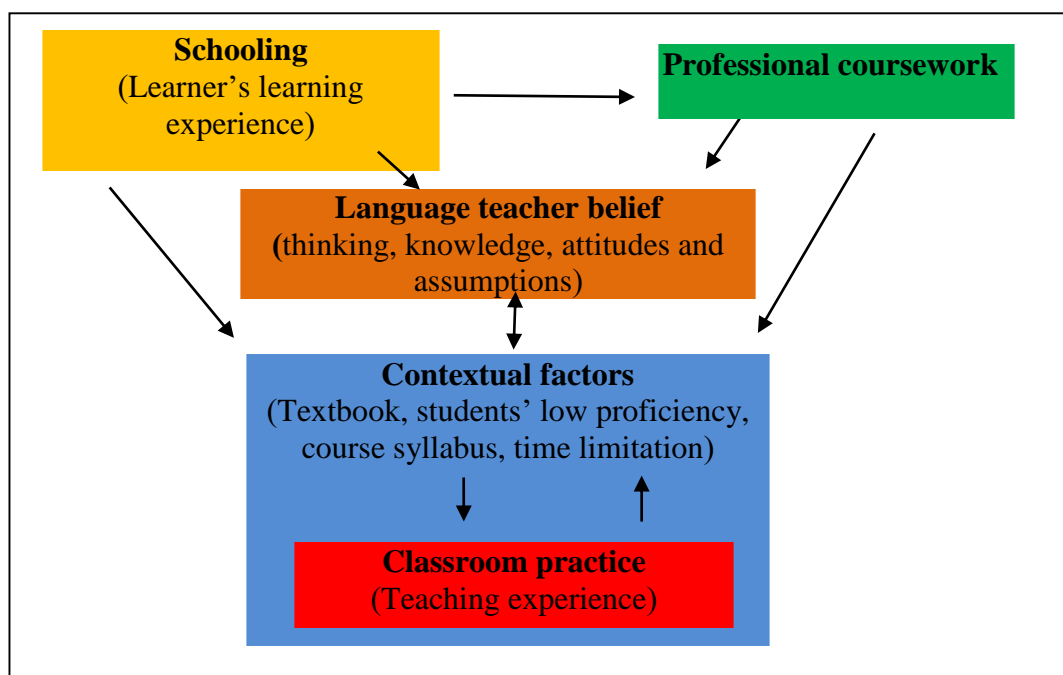


Figure 2.1 Language teachers' beliefs (Adapted from Borg, 2006, p. 283)

2.2.3 Related research on teachers' beliefs and practices about vocabulary teaching

Studies of teachers' beliefs relating to vocabulary teaching have been given little or no attention (Borg, 2003; Borg, 2006; Hassankiade and Alsadat, 2012) comparing to studies on teachers' beliefs in other aspects-including teacher's beliefs in second language acquisition (SLA) or specific curricula of grammar, reading, and writing.

Previous studies employed qualitative and mixed methods in order to investigate beliefs. Amiryousefi (2015), Gao and Ma (2011) and Macalister (2012) explored teachers' knowledge or beliefs about vocabulary instructions solely through the use of questionnaires (Amiryousefi, 2015), using English institute teachers and questionnaires and interviews, using tertiary Chinese undergraduate and postgraduate pre-service, and tertiary in-service teachers and pre-service Malaysian teachers respectively. Zhang (2008), Gerami and Noordin (2013) and Lai (2005) investigated the relevance between teachers' beliefs and practices. However, where Lai used only questionnaires with Chinese teachers, Zhang (2008) and Gerami and Noordin (2013) research gained deeper data through three types of instruments. These were semi-structured interview, stimulated recall and classroom observation, using university Chinese teachers and high school Iranian teachers.

Results from previous studies (Lai, 2005; Zhang, 2008; Gerami and Noordin, 2013) reveal both concurrence and discrepancy between teachers' beliefs and practices. The three studies concur on the same results, identifying that all teachers were knowledgeable about vocabulary instructions and held similar beliefs on the significance of vocabulary in language learning. However, although two of the studies -Lai (2005) and Zhang (2008)-carried out with high school and university Chinese teachers reveal a similar positive correlation between beliefs and practices, Gerami and Noordin's (2013) study, using Iranian teachers, shows a discrepancy. This is due to two main reasons: the educational system and contextual factors. This shows that although teachers' knowledge might be similar, the ways in which teachers practice can be influenced by other contextual factors and therefore different contexts of studies can lead to different results, shown in the studies of Lai (2005) and Gerami and Noordin (2013) who investigated state high school teachers in different countries.

These aforementioned studies do share some similar characteristics. Initially, in those studies (Lai, 2005; Zhang, 2008; Gao and Ma, 2011; Gerami and Noordin, 2013), all in-service teachers and trainers had a teaching experience of more than a decade, which obviously showed that teaching experience is a highly influential source of teachers' instructional knowledge.

Secondly, reflection appears to be the main way to obtain insightful data concerning teachers' beliefs (Zhang, 2008; Gao and Ma, 2011; Gerami and Noordin, 2013). Third, all studies (Lai, 2005; Zhang, 2008; Gao and Ma, 2011; Hassankiade and Alsadat, 2012; Macalister, 2012; Gerami and Noordin, 2013; Amiryousefi, 2015) only examined prior beliefs held by teachers. Teachers' beliefs may change due to surrounding factors or factors inside the classroom (Borg, 2006), but it seems that all these studies looked at only pre-existing beliefs teachers held. This present study will therefore examine teacher change through dialogic reflections relating to vocabulary teaching which have never been studied. Finally, most studies focused on only some aspects of beliefs such as vocabulary learning, vocabulary teaching, sources of knowledge, and how teachers develop their knowledge.

Therefore, this study investigates 1) both teachers' pre-existing and subsequent beliefs examined through DRs, 2) teachers with less than ten-year experience, 3) three-more thought-provoking aspects: pedagogical knowledge, word knowledge and the emphasis of vocabulary instruction at a university level and 4) changes in beliefs and practices instead of the relationship between beliefs and practices.

2.2.4 Changes in teachers' beliefs and practices

Changes in teachers' beliefs are complex. It is arguable that teachers' beliefs seldom change as they are accumulatively formed and developed throughout an individuals' life and involve personal, social and cultural aspects (Pajares, 1992). Beliefs ultimately become a teacher's identity, and this identity is composed of both personal and emotional dimensions. Beliefs are often static in nature, and individuals grow comfortable with them; as a result, they become deeply embedded in the self, and people become resistant to change. However, this does not mean that it is impossible to change beliefs (Pajares, 1992).

Studies reveal factors contributing to changes in teachers' beliefs. Raising awareness is essential as the first step towards changes in teacher development (Richard, 2001; Crandall, 2000; Peacock, 2001). Pajares (1992) indicates that a change in beliefs only occurs when they are challenged and proven unsatisfactory; and when the believers are willing to change them. Therefore, it seems that, without paying explicit attention to the beliefs teachers hold, they will remain unchanged.

Socialization and teaching experience greatly impacts on some of the changes in teachers' beliefs. Studies ratify the role of interaction, reflection, and practices as key elements fostering this shift (Richardson, 1996; Crandall, 2000; Ng *et al.*, 2010). Beliefs impact on how teachers practice, and their practices in turn influence beliefs and possibly change their beliefs (Breen *et al.*, 2001; Kang and Cheng, 2013). Congruently, findings of Yuan and Lee (2014) show that the continuous interaction between the field experience (classroom observation, designing lesson plans, discussing with a mentor and participation in the book club) and personal reflection encourages student teachers to develop their beliefs. It could be argued that the interaction between actual practices and reflection importantly triggers belief change.

Time seems to be another factor leading to changes in beliefs. A number of studies completed on changes in teachers' beliefs have been conducted as longitudinal studies in order to observe effectively how teachers change their beliefs. For instance, a study conducted by Zheng (2009) identifies how many pre-service teachers hold inappropriate or unrealistic beliefs of teaching and learning but that after completing the teaching education program, their beliefs and practice change. In contrast, a study of a four-month course conducted by Phipps (2007) provides positive results on the impact of the course on changes in teachers' beliefs. The period of time was not extensive in his study; however, the results show that working closely with participants, challenging teachers' beliefs, and encouraging them to be aware of the relationship between beliefs and practices leads to tangible changes in existing beliefs. The explanation is that differences between beliefs and practices urge teachers to think to greater depth. Moreover, providing real practice examples and encouraging discussion can affect their beliefs and practices, suggesting that what causes changes in beliefs and practices is not necessarily a longer period of investigation but the methodology offered.

Beside these, studies have shown that conflicting results of changes in teachers' beliefs may be attributed to the conceptualization of change. For example, Borg (2011) conducted a longitudinal study of an intensive eight-week course in order to investigate the impact of the education program on belief change of six in-service English teachers. The results reveal considerable and variable impacts of the program. Borg explains that if the impact refers to deep and dramatic changes of beliefs, it can be said that the program does not yield significant effects on belief change. However, considering the significant progress of both development and awareness, it can be inferred that the program yields considerable positive change. According to Borg (2011), even an ability to articulate the belief is an important outcome. Furthermore, the concept of minor and major changes in beliefs is proposed by Piaget (Posner *et al.* cited in Pajares, 1992). If conflicts between existing beliefs and new information do not

cause much discordance, it becomes assimilated into the prior beliefs as a result of minor changes in beliefs. In contrast, major changes require accommodation which can occur when new information cannot be assimilated into the existing beliefs and believers desire to reduce the conflicts or inconsistencies between the prior beliefs and the new ones. Therefore, changes branch into many degrees, as does the way they are interpreted which depends on researchers' decisions whether to define a shift in belief as a radical and drastic shift or more of a gradual and cumulative nature to allow varying degree of changes on a developmental continuum (Kang and Cheng, 2013).

2. 3 Teachers' practices of vocabulary instruction

This section includes important roles of vocabulary in EFL (2.3.1) and vocabulary instruction (2.3.2).

2.3.1 Important roles of vocabulary in EFL

Language occurs as a combination of words. Wilkins (1972) emphasises that “without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary *nothing* can be conveyed” (pp. 111–112). Folse (2004) further supports the argument that, although grammatical correct forms are applied in conversations, communication breakdowns still occur as a result of a lack of vocabulary. Schmitt (2010) argues that vocabulary plays a prominent role in effective communication because without it, meaningful communication is impossible, and this understanding of vocabulary as a vital key of communication has become more acknowledged nowadays (Griffiths, 2003; Alqahtani, 2015).

It is widely acknowledged that vocabulary is an important and fundamental component in language learning. Insufficient vocabulary knowledge can lead to difficulties in learning and to poor performance (Zhi-liang, 2010; Jahan, 2011) including a low level of reading comprehension (Haynes and Baker, 1993), ineffective communicative skills (Boonkongsaen, 2014), bad quality of writing (Baba, 2009) and challenges in listening comprehension (Yu, 2002; Hamouda, 2013). A large number of studies have shown that vocabulary is essential for all four language skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

Many researchers (such as Hedge, 2001; Zhang, 2008; Schmitt, 2010; Alqahtani, 2015) acknowledge vocabulary as central to language learning, which underlines the role of vocabulary as the priority task for foreign language teachers to train their students. Paribakht and Wesche (1997) argue that learning vocabulary is an incremental and recursive process involving various types of knowledge to facilitate ability of its use in communication. It was argued in the past that vocabulary instruction was not needed as vocabulary can be acquired by itself (Moir and Nation, 2008). However, vocabulary instruction plays a far more significant role in learning a new language today.

As vocabulary is salient, vocabulary teaching requires attention. The following part deals with vocabulary instruction.

2.3.2 Vocabulary instruction

At minimum, two main types of teacher knowledge are essential in teaching vocabulary, consisting of word knowledge and pedagogical knowledge.

Word knowledge

It is accepted that knowledge of vocabulary entails several components including phonological and orthographic, morphological, syntactic and semantic. Following Takač (2008), it is worth noting that knowledge of vocabulary is not an “all-or-nothing” proposition (p. 10). Knowing words is considered a continuum of knowledge between receptive and productive knowledge, meaning that partial knowledge shows a degree of knowing.

Researchers agree that word knowledge or knowing a word can be interpreted in various degrees (Schmitt, 2010; Kremmel and Schmitt, 2016). At the most basic level, Thornbury (2002, p. 15) proposes that “knowing a word involves knowing its form and its meaning.” In other words, a form-meaning linkage (pronunciation (spoken form) and spelling (written form)-meanings) is the most minimal requirement of word knowledge. However, in order to master a language, it is obligatory to acquire both receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge. Nation (2013) elaborates three main kinds of form, meaning, and use. Each kind includes both receptive and productive knowledge. The first two aspects mainly involve form (pronunciation and spelling) and meanings. The last part concerns vocabulary use in relation to grammatical

functions (word class, morphology including grammatical inflections, and derivation), collocation (words occur together) and constraints on use. The description of ‘word knowledge’ aspects adapted from Nation (2001, 2013) is provided in the following table.

Aspect	Component	Receptive Knowledge	Productive Knowledge
Form	spoken	What does the word sound like?	How is the word pronounced?
	written	What does the word look like?	How is the word written and spelled?
	word parts	What parts are recognizable in this word?	What word parts are needed to express the meaning?
Meaning	form and meaning	What meaning does this word form signal?	What word form can be used to express this meaning?
	concepts and referents	What is included in this concept?	What items can the concept refer to?
	associations	What other words does this make people think of?	What other words could people use instead of this one?
Use	grammatical functions	In what patterns does the word occur?	In what patterns must people use this word?
	collocations	What words or types of words occur with this one?	What words or types of words must people use with this one?
	constraints on use (register, frequency . . .)	Where, when, and how often would people expect to meet this word?	Where, when, and how often can people use this word?

Table 2.1 Aspects of knowing a word (Adapted from Nation, 2013, p. 33)

It is worth noting that knowing words holds a variety of degrees, therefore, teachers need to have clear objectives before teaching in order to ensure that they know the level of vocabulary knowledge they are aiming for. In this current study, teachers’ knowledge of words was examined based on Nation’s aspects of knowing a word (2001, 2013) which were further used as a basis for observing and analysing if teachers included some aspects of word knowledge in their instruction.

Pedagogical knowledge

Two main approaches have been recommended for vocabulary learning in a second language: implicit and explicit instruction (Sökmen, 1997; Schmitt, 2008b; Yali, 2010). However, implicit instruction is not emphasized in this study; therefore, only explicit instruction is presented.

Explicit instruction emphasises direct teaching, which aims to have learners notice and attentively learn words in the classroom through a variety of vocabulary teaching strategies (Ellis, 2009). Direct instruction is believed to have a significant role because of the differences between L1 (native language) and L2 (target language) acquisition, meaning that L2 learners are required to know forms, meanings, and usages of words which can be attained by completing different classroom activities (Folse, 2004).

Research has shown some consensus on the following factors which facilitates vocabulary learning. Noticing is one of the factors fostering vocabulary acquisition. Noticing means to give attention to target words which can take place when learners are interested in and pay attention to the items rather than as given as part of a message (Nation, 2001, 2013). The important roles of noticing is mentioned by Schmidt (1995), who states that learning does not occur without noticing. The need, or will, to learn words draws students' attention, promoting motivation which facilitates language acquisition (Thornbury, 2006). Thus, it seems essential that students should notice and pay attention to words (Schmidt, 1995; Schmitt, 2008b).

Multiple exposure of a word greatly impacts vocabulary learning in many studies (Laufer and Osimo, 1991; Chacón-Beltrán, 2010; Schmitt, 2010). Engaging learners with vocabulary activities as much as possible is the key principle as words need to be repeated or retrieved from time to time to avoid forgetting (Schmitt, 2008b; López-Soto, 2010). This might suggest that retrieval of words should be implemented in class. However, the amount of exposure varies depending on many factors including how significant the word is, how necessary the word is for learners' present needs and whether the words are met intentionally or incidentally (Schmitt, 2007). Amount of exposure differs as a result of numerous factors, such as types of exposure used in various studies, levels of engagement, and congruity between L1 and L2 forms (Beltrán, 2010). Essentially, multiple exposures are crucial and this should be done in meaningful contexts, with a rich and varied use of words (Nagy and Herman, 1987; Allen, 2010).

Students' engagement of deep processing in learning tasks is required for word consolidation. Consolidation is termed as meaningful activities by Laufer and Osimo (1991). After words have been noticed and comprehended, if they are then retrieved during tasks, it can help learners

memorise better (Nation, 2013; Nakata, 2008; Schmitt, 2010). This indicates that when students are asked to manipulate words, to relate them to other words and to their own experiences, to extend their learning of words outside of classroom (Sökmen, 1997), to compare words, to classifying words, to learn through games and so on (Marzano, 2004), it promotes a deeper level of word processing.

Integrating new words with the old is to associate the 'to be-learned' words to the already learned ones. Words are increasingly acquired and set up systematically in the mind (Lado, 1990); therefore, vocabulary is thought to be connected as a network of word association in the mind (Aitchison, 2012). Integrating new words along with students' background knowledge facilitates vocabulary learning (Nagy, 1987). To effectively develop students' vocabulary learning, their schemata should be activated in order to link old knowledge to the new words which can be done by grouping similar words together.

Providing imaging and concreteness to new words leads to much greater recall than only a verbal link. According to imaginability hypothesis or dual-coding theory of human memory (Paivio, 1986; Clark and Paivio, 1991; Plass, 1998), a mind associates verbal and image representations of a word. Marzano (2004) also supports the employment of linguistic and non-linguistic representation in order to foster vocabulary learning. He suggests asking students to construct pictures, pictogram or symbolic representations of words. Thus, it can be concluded that imagery aids vocabulary learning.

Using a variety of techniques serves in helping individual learning capabilities and teaching certain words. Individual learners have different styles of learning and they may favor different approaches and various vocabulary learning strategies (Schmitt, 2010). Research also reveals that successful language learners employed several vocabulary learning strategies (Nation, 1982). Moreover, different words might need different approaches (Schmitt, 2010). For instance, some action words might be best taught through demonstration or gestures, some abstract words might be explained in situational contexts, some words might be defined through the synonyms or antonyms. Furthermore, a variety of approaches can increase students' attention or increase their recognition of words to learn. This is an essential factor in the facilitation of vocabulary learning.

Some key principles are recommended for consideration when teaching vocabulary. This includes choosing what aspects of word knowledge to focus on (Nation and Chung, 2009), using clear, simple ways to articulate the meanings of words such as L1 translation where

possible (Schmitt, 2008a; Walters and Bozkurt, 2009), describing underlying meanings consisting of core meanings and other meanings in different contexts (Nation, 2001, 2013; Schmitt, 2008a), teaching word parts (word stems and affixes) Schmitt (2007), teaching word families instead of individual word forms (Schmitt, 2008a), reinforcing vocabulary by giving attention to aspects of words (Nation and Chung, 2009) and using words in meaningful interaction (Nation, 2013).

These factors demonstrate what good practice in vocabulary teaching should be based on. They will be used to interpret and discuss data concerning teachers' practices, investigating whether any of these teachers' practices were applied.

The following part explains how reflection plays a significant role in teachers' beliefs and practices.

2.4 Teacher learning (TL)

This study involves the context of teacher and peer learning. Teacher learning is defined as “the process by which novice teachers move towards expertise” (Kelly, 2006, p. 506). Teacher learning is viewed as an interaction between the theory and practice. In the early years, TL was viewed as the application of the theory to practice. This influence could be seen from many studies emphasised on teacher cognition (such as Borg, 2003; Feryok, 2010; Woods and Çakır, 2011; Kubanyiova and Feryok, 2015) or teacher knowledge (Shulman, 1987; Grossman, 1990; Van Driel and Berry, 2012) essential for teachers to conduct effective teaching.

However, in more recent years, teacher learning is perceived as the theorization of practice or forming a theory based on practice (Richard, 2008). The transmission of knowledge or theory into effective practice is seen as problematic. For example, Wallace (1999) mentions that apprenticeship in teacher education is inadequate. Thus, the shift has been made from theory to practice to facilitate teacher learning.

Review of the literature on teaching-learning suggests two main approaches: cognitive and sociocultural approaches. Regarding *cognitive* approach, learning is acquired through an individual's mind and teacher knowledge. In other words, this approach is theory-based or theory-into-practice (Carlson, 1999). This approach does not consider knowledge acquiring from actual classrooms or everyday circumstances which is called 'knowledge-in-practice' by Schon (1983, 1987) or “tacit knowledge” by Sternberg and Horvath (1999). It does not take a

complex relationship of contexts including teachers, students, resources and settings into account (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998; Kelly, 2006); therefore, it fails to explain how to move from intellectual understanding of teaching and learning theory to the implementation or practice (Darling-Hammond and Synder, 2000; Cochran-Smith and Zeichner, 2005). However, Hoekstra, *et al.* (2007) argues that teacher change in behaviour might not always be a result of changes in teacher cognition. Instead, teacher change in behaviour is a result of a complex combination of cognition, emotion (affection) and motivation (van Veen and Slegers, 2006; Day and Gu, 2009, Schutz and Zenbylad, 2009).

Unlike the cognitive approach, *socio-cultural* or *practice-oriented* approach emphasises practice (Lunenberg *et al.*, 2014). This approach emerges from socio-cultural learning views focusing on collaborative learning in which knowledge emerges from sharing in interaction (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998). Thus, the focus is shifted to teachers as learners.

The practice-oriented approach adopts knowledge-of-and knowledge-in-practice (Schon, 1983, 1987). It engages knowledge from students, teachers, conceptual artefacts and physical artefacts or situation in particular (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Billett, 2001). While knowledge-of-practice (theoretical knowledge) is important as a foundation, knowing-in-practice allows teachers to internalise their instructional experience (Kelly, 2006) which can be later formed and contributed to knowledge. Unlike, the former approach which takes only theoretical knowledge to learning, the latter takes the three dimensions of thinking, feeling and wanting which are always influenced by the social context into account (Clarke and Hollingsworth, 2002; Illeris, 2007). Therefore, it is essential to consider teachers as individuals in specific circumstances.

Regarding the influence of socio-cultural learning on the practice-oriented approach, the role of social interaction or dialogues is a basis for many forms of teacher learning. The instances of TL include professional learning communities (Hord, 2009; Dobies and Anderson, 2015), communities of learning (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998), peer coaching (Zwart *et al.*, 2009), lesson study (Doig and Graves, 2011) and so on. It can be seen that reflection is the main principle underlying all the forms of TL (Hoekstra and Karthagen, 2011). Asking teachers to reflect on their practice is proved to facilitate the improvement of practice and reconstruct their beliefs (Yuan and Lee, 2014). Moreover, opportunities for teachers to integrate new knowledge derived from the classroom experience, learning together with peers, and engaging in meaningful discussions foster teacher learning (Van Veen *et al.*, 2012).

However, a problem emerging from this approach is in relation to the connection of practical experience to theory (Tarone and Allwright, 2005; Furlong, 2013). To respond to the features contributing to professional development as mentioned above and the challenge of the practice-oriented approach in which only practice is based on, this study investigated how dialogic reflection, focusing on learning which takes place from the language the teacher as learner used in interactions between asymmetric (expert-novice) or symmetric (equal ability) during reflective practice to promote teacher learning. Sharing in dialogic reflection engaged teachers in exchanging their teaching experience in meaningful discussions among peers. Additionally, participating in DRs might allow teachers to share and gain theoretical and practical knowledge through inquiry and collaboration which could eventually lead to some changes in beliefs and practices. This study thus engaged the roles of dialogic reflection as a means fostering teacher learning or transformation of teachers' beliefs and practices.

The following sections describe reflective practice and then dialogic reflections in details.

2.5 Reflective practice

Reflective practice is closely related to professional development (Mann and Walsh, 2013; Walsh, 2013; Grau *et al.*, 2017). It is a means for teachers to develop new perspectives and improve professional action to enhance the quality of teaching (Fatemipour, 2013) and their knowledge based on their own practices (Bates *et al.*, 2009; Swart *et al.*, 2018). Reflective practice, as indicated in its name, is associated with the concept of reflection.

Studies on reflection were conducted for two main purposes: to engender change in order to improve the practices (Schuck *et al.*, 2008; Kemmis, 2011) and to develop further self-knowledge and understanding (Gay and Kirkland, 2003; Akbari, 2007). It seems apparent that reflection is used as a foundation to encourage teachers to examine their beliefs and practices, eventually aiming to reconstruct their beliefs and change their practices. To foster professional development, it is necessary for teachers to have a continuous examination of practice and its relevance to their teaching beliefs through reflection; otherwise, their practices will remain unchanged (Larrivee, 2000). Especially inexperienced teachers, without engaging in reflection through self-inquiry, it is difficult to move beyond their level if it is only guided by intuition or routine (Richards, 1998).

Boud *et al.* (1993, p. 9) define reflection as the “processes in which learners engage to recapture, notice and re-evaluate their experience, to work with their experience, to turn it into learning”. It can be argued that reflection involves the process of thinking about what happens, investigating it, working on it, evaluating it and plan for further teaching (Fakazli, 2017). During the reflective process of interpreting the past experience relating to teaching and situational contexts, reflection can result in learning (al Mahmud, 2013; Rezaeyan and Nikoopour, 2013).

Dewey argues that “We do not learn from reflection. We learn from reflecting on experience” (1933, p.78). Reflection is a means of problem-solving through a process in which learners reflect on their experience in order to construct or reconstruct their understanding and skills (Dewey, 1933). This means that reflection is active and careful consideration of beliefs and practices. Therefore, learning occurs after teachers reflect on their experience.

Corresponding with Dewey’s argument, Schön (1987) proposes two processes of reflection: reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action, to facilitate professional development through conscious, self-aware deliberation on professional practices (Schön, 1987). Whilst the former refers to reflecting during an experience, the latter means reflection after an experience. Reflection-in-action is reflecting on the event during practices. This reflection is beneficial as it can improve practices on the spot. On the contrary, reflection-on-action involves considering how practices could have been done differently; thus, it promotes the combination of new experience and existing beliefs which contribute to change in the future (Vijaya, 2014). Apparently, thinking and doing are interrelated, and new knowledge arises from practical experience or reflective practice rather than abstracted cognitive process (Schön, 1983, 1987).

Schön (1987) further suggests four main steps on how to reflect-on-action, including: choosing an occurrence you feel unhappy about, thinking about an expected occurrence and what makes it go well or less well than planned, considering the process of bridging the gap between the before and after an event and summarising the whole situation, particularly key points relating to the causes of unsuccessful practices, with solutions. Clearly, engaging in reflections leads to new understanding and shift in actions as conscious evaluation of ideas leads to teachers’ decision of what they will or will not do (Boud *et al.*, 1985).

Larrivee’s (2000) process facilitating critical reflection clearly shows the inter-relation between reflection and practices as shown in Figure 2.2. This process includes three main stages. First, the examination stage includes asking questions about what teachers do including whether it

reaches the goal. Then, teachers are required to notice and to challenge their current practices. This stage allows teachers to recognise any behaviors they might want to change. Through self-examination, self-awareness which is essential for change can be promoted at this stage (Blank, 2009). This realization is essential in the desire for change. The second stage is to deal with the conflict. If there is too much fear or doubt, this may prevent change. In contrast, if teachers can confront the conflict, they will be able to move to the final stage of reconciling. In this final stage, teachers shift their ways of thinking, leading to a shift in practices.

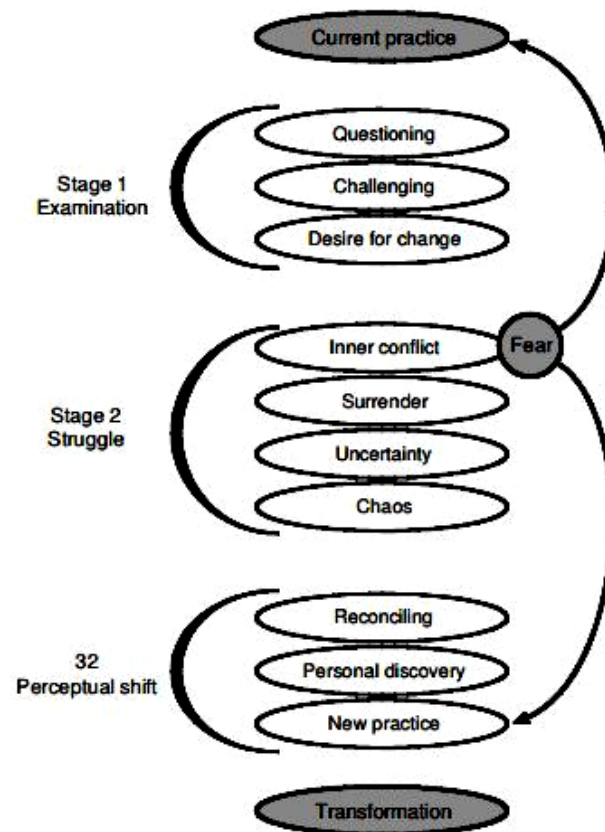


Figure 2.2 Critical Reflection Process (Larrivee, 2000, p. 305)

It is noteworthy that Larrivee's characteristics of critical reflection are in line with Dewey (1910's) three main attributes teachers should have when engaging in reflection: open-mindedness, responsibility, wholeheartedness. Open-mindedness is a willingness or desire to listen to suggestions. Responsibility is an awareness of the consequences of one's own action especially its impacts on learners. Wholeheartedness is overcoming fear and uncertainty when reflecting in order to re-evaluate practices. Dewey (1933) adds one more attribute of directness. It implies a belief that something is worth doing. These four characteristics are essential for

teachers' change in beliefs and practices. Without these three values, reflection might not be successful.

Even though there is a consensus on the advantages of reflective practice for all pre-service and in-service teachers (Farrell, 2007; Nolan, 2008; Farrell, 2012), there is some argument concerning reflective practice. The following section presents what and how to deal with the challenges of reflective practice.

2.6 Dialogic reflection (DR)

Even though it is well accepted there are positive impacts of reflective practice on professional development, some criticisms are observed. One of the criticisms is that written reflection can lead to fake reflection. Written reflection tends to be a part of a course requirement, which can result in unreal reflection done in order to satisfy tutors or supervisors (McCabe *et al.*, 2009). The second issue is that reflective practice mainly focuses on individual practice and ignores the roles of others in shaping practices (Zeichner and Liston, 1996). This argument resonates with Husu *et al.* (2007) who suggest that "... reflective practice does not come naturally; it requires dialogue" (p. 130) and York-Barr *et al.* (2001) who point out that lacking opportunities to interact with others obstructs practitioners to learn from other perspectives.

Furthermore, Mann and Walsh's (2013) describe reflective practice as an "elusive, general and vague way" (p. 291), and lacking concrete data which needs further development (Walsh and Mann, 2015). Their arguments are centred on its insufficient data-led evidence, emphasis on individuals rather than collaboration, a dominance of written reflection rather than spoken ones and lack of appropriate reflective tools (Mann and Walsh, 2013; 2015). Therefore, it is essential to investigate spoken (dialogic) and collaborative reflection. They argue that dialogic reflection should be promoted as it allows teachers to orally reflect and share teaching experiences with others (Jones, *et al.* 2009; Walsh, 2011, 2013).

According to Mann and Walsh (2017), dialogic reflection (DR) is 'a bottom-up, teacher-led, collaborative process entailing interactions, discussion and debate with another profession' (p.189), and derives from a combination of a sociocultural theory (SCT) and professional development. Thus, learning mediated through language takes places in a dialogic process which can be occurred in interpersonal (between an individual) or intrapersonal (between

individuals) interactions. Then meanings are co-constructed in dialogues which facilitate understanding of professional learning.

A dialogic, mediated approach promotes TL or *socio-cultural* approach as it encourages teachers to examine and learn from their practices. This approach is based on the concept that tools or artefacts (language) lead to changes in practice. Regarding this concept, learning takes place during a social process (Firth and Wagner, 1997). This sharing in dialogues leads to the collaborative construction of opportunities for learning which creates intersubjectivity or joint meaning making. The zone of proximal development provides the collaborative construction of opportunities to develop mental abilities (Lantolf, 2000). This collaborative construction takes place with the expert between teachers and more experienced peers or mentor. Collaborative learning according to Vygotsky's (1978) concept of social interaction is to nurture collaboration between more capable and less capable teachers or between peer to peer in order to attain joint goals instead of individual learning. Consequently, learning occurring through interactions or symbolic tools between novices and experts allows learners to internalise or understand and gain new knowledge.

Regarding sociocultural theory, reflection through interaction with others has proved beneficial in facilitating the sharing of experiences and learning from other perspectives. (Procee, 2006; Leijen, *et al.*, 2012). The collaborative and dialogic approach thus enhance teacher learning than an individual approach which can be done through several instruments including stimulated recall, video interaction and guidance and peer observation of teaching.

2.6.1 Related studies on dialogic reflections

Previous studies show positive results of implementing dialogic reflection on teacher professional development. One of the very influential studies conducted by Mann and Walsh (2013) shows how reflective practice could be achieved through reflective dialogues. DR was a tool that fostered a systematic and structured approach. Their study provides evidence of the teachers' development and their involvement in deeper reflection through micro-analysis in which recorded data extracts and transcripts of these recordings of their own context and experience were used and analysed by teacher practitioners. An instance of the extract illustrated that two peer teachers were engaging in DR in which one teacher asked the other teacher questions to evaluate her practice. Reflection was promoted through the reflective questions and the teacher had opportunities to clarify her reflection, to understand her practice

and to explain why she did so. The results of their study show that extracts of reflective data which are more “insider account” can lead to an insight of how dialogic reflection fosters changes in instructional practice. According to Walsh and Mann (2015), even though this type of research might be “small-scaled, localized, context specific, and private”, teachers’ own data is considered “rich sources” and the employment of their own data encourages teachers to engage more in reflection (pp. 354). Therefore, DR through micro-analysis provides “a more empirical, data-led, and linguistic description of the nature of reflective practice” (Walsh and Mann, 2015, p. 354).

Besides, the previous studies show that DR fosters reflective practice. A study by Nehring *et al.* (2011) through discussions or reflective dialogues was found to promote three groups of educators’ reflective practice and the construction of new knowledge. Harford and MacRuaric (2008)’s study also shows that peer-videos in the classroom and guidance provided by a facilitator could promote reflective practice among twenty pre-service teachers. Another study conducted by Bain *et al.* (2002) show that appropriate guidance and feedback provided to pre-service teachers promote reflective practice and lead to transformative practice.

Studies of DR were also conducted for the purpose of promoting professional identities. For instance, the most recent study conducted by Rashid (2018) reveals that thirty-four English language teachers could better interpret their professional lives after engaging in teaching-related conversations on Facebook timelines. The update of status on teacher’s FB page was the initial point and the comments were continually given. In his study, teachers shared their problematic issues encountered at school and other teachers shared ideas which led to supportive conversations. Similarly, a study by Hepple (2010) shows that dialogic reflection through post-teaching focus group discussion could facilitate pre-service teachers’ professional identity development on the roles of teacher and students.

Besides this, the previous studies reveal the effectiveness of DR as a means of instructional improvement. To illustrate, Hanedat *et al.* (2017)’s study shows that dialogic interaction between a kindergarten teacher participant and a coach leads to better understanding of a teacher’s practice which enables her to improve her dialogic inquiry with her students. The teacher participated in a coaching cycle including 30-minute pre-conference to discuss her lesson plans, 45 minutes for classroom observations and 30-minute post-conference to discuss her practices. The coaching cycle provided dialogic learning space for the teacher to gain a better understanding of her practice through dialogic inquiry. Therefore, it seems possible to

conclude that dialogic reflection facilitates improvement in professional identity, reflective practice, and teaching practices.

Previous studies relating to dialogic reflection reveal similar factors leading to positive results after participating in DRs. Sharing teaching experiences among the participants seems to be the first factor facilitating improvement in the aforementioned studies. Opportunities of decontextualising their experience through engaging with others' viewpoints challenge and allow the teachers to explore their instructional practices. Engaging teachers in a discussion, analysis, and interpretation of classroom events, and having interaction with others allows sharing different voices (Bain *et al.*, 2002). The second factor might be supportive and collaborative conversations as found in a study by ab Rashid (2018), Hepple (2010) and Hardford and MacRuire (2008). The findings seem to indicate that sharing and collaborating in teaching related contexts could foster teacher learning.

Aside from the previously mentioned studies, Wilkinson, *et al.* (2017) studied the impacts of videotape discussions between two state school teachers on changing teachers' beliefs and practices. The comparison of the results of the VDO analysis at the beginning and the end shows that there were improvements in teachers' facilitation of the inquiry dialogue and the quality of students' argument literacy. However, no change in teachers' beliefs about knowledge and knowledge justification was found. Possible explanations included how they measured beliefs might not be insensitive to shifts in beliefs, difficulties in articulating beliefs about abstract issues and complicated relationship between beliefs and practices.

As shown in prior studies, DR based on sociocultural theory allows co-construction of meanings, deeper understanding which contributes to teacher learning and professional development. What shares in common among these previous studies is that DR occurs through conversations between two or more people which produces the discourse. Moreover, knowledge is co-constructed in even a small conversational group.

Most of the aforementioned studies reveal positive changes in teachers' practice except for the changes in beliefs. However, the influence of DR on changes in beliefs seems unclear; hence, it seems essential to research more on this topic area. Regarding what has been lacked in prior studies, the focus of this present study was to enhance better understanding of changes in beliefs and practices in order to clarify the influence of dialogic reflection on shifts in teachers' beliefs and practices where little studies have been found. Therefore, this study will provide sessions for post observation professional conversation built up through a dialogic approach (Walsh,

2011, 2013, Kim and Silver, 2016) to foster reflective practice and examine if dialogic reflection could lead to teacher learning or changes in beliefs and practices.

2.7 Sociocultural theory (SCT)

This current study used SCT as a main theoretical framework. The review of the literature and reasons why this theory was chosen will be explained as follows.

Sociocultural theory is originally proposed by Vygotsky (1978). This theory is constructed based on the concept that learning is a result of the culture which is developed through symbolic signs or tools affecting how humans think or shape cognitive development. Examples of physical and symbolic (psychological) artefacts are numeracy, literacy, materials, signs, symbols, but the most powerful tool is language (Lantolf, 2000). These tools and signs have been created and transmitted through culture which differs according to the specific culture and historical conditions of the individuals (Turuk, 2008). The theory emphasises that cognitive development cannot be separated from the social, cultural, and historical contexts from which such development emerges (Johnson, 2009). SCT, therefore, focuses on the roles of social relations, community and culture on learning, and development (Rogoff, 1990). In essence, SCT involves an understanding of the individuals through their culture in a particular setting (Vygotsky, 1978 cited in Macy, 2011).

According to Vygotsky (1978), learning takes place in the *mind* which is socially distributed. Mental habits and functioning depend on interaction and communication with others which are effected by environment, context and history (Mantero, 2002). Lave and Wenger (1998) also point out that “learning, thinking and knowing are relations among people engaged in activity in, with, and arising from, the socially and culturally structured world” (p. 67). Thus, learning in SCT is obviously formed through engagement in social activities.

The learning process of SCT involves *mediation* and *internalisation*. Fundamentally, Vygotsky claims that mediation was the higher forms of mental activities mediated by culture and language as an important tool is central to mediating artefacts (Thorne and Lantolf, 2006). According to Burden and Williams (1997), *mediation* which is central to SCT refers to the part played by other people who can enhance or shape the learning experience of the learners. Learning lies in the nature of social interaction between people with more or less knowledge mediated by tool

or language regarded as mediators to help learners acquire knowledge (Vygotsky 1978 cited in Wertsch, 1985). It is apparent that social interaction is advocated to mediate learning.

The influential concept of the theory is the language shared in social interaction leading to cognitive (genetic) development. Learning is a transformation of what has been learned through interaction as learning emerges from the external (society and culture) to the internal (cognition) by means of mediating tool or language particularly in interaction (Rowe and Wertsch, 2002).

Learner's cognitive development occurs two times: on the social level or between people (interpsychological plane) and then inside the learner (intrapsychological plane) (Vygotsky, 1978). Therefore, the essence of SCT is the external mediation facilitates internal mediation (Lantolf, 2000) which means learning and development occur on two planes of the social plane (interactions with others) and then on the psychological plane (within the learner).

Knowledge is acquired through interaction with people and later *internalise* knowledge together with their personal value to the knowledge (Vygotsky, 1978 cited in Wertsch and Stone, 1985). According to Lantolf and Thorne (2006), *internalisation* means the process of learning in which learners move from being supported to gaining independent control. It is the process by which humans bring externally and socioculturally formed mediating artifacts (language) into thinking activity to gain control over mental functions (Lantolf and Thorne, 2006 in Harvey, 2011, p. 13). When learners *internalise* it, *appropriation* is essential as ways to remember and use it. Learner develops "self-control" based on the tools available and apply them in their life and then the learner becomes capable of "self-regulation" in which he or she can apply them in changing situations, such as using reflection and metacognitive strategies (Diaz, *et al.*, 1990), and self-regulation or consciousness is considered the outcome of socialisation (Moll, 1990).

Apart from learning in which mediation is influenced by a symbolic tool of language, *affordance* is introduced into the language learning field by van Lier (2000, 2004, 2008). One definition mentioned in Chemero (2003, p. 181) and Sahin *et al.* (2007, p. 456), "affordances are relations between the abilities of organism and features of the environment". To relate this to language learning, affordance refers to "the relationship between learners and particular features in their environment" (Mann and Walsh, 2017, p. 201). Relating to reflective practice, affordances may be created through "a conversation with a colleague" (Mann and Walsh, 2017, p. 202). Thus, affordance involves in the learning process.

Relating SCT in teaching, developing conceptual thinking relating to teaching involves spontaneous and scientific concepts (Vygotsky, 1986). The former concept emerges from lived

experience, the latter one refers to knowledge gained from formal education. Through the lived experience of classroom teaching, teachers develop an ability to understand events and know how to deal with. Therefore, practice is central to the interplay between these two concepts (Smagorinsky *et al.*, 2003).

In this study, dialogic reflection constituted the activity of using language to mediate ones' own and others' cognition through dialogues or interactions between more experienced and less experienced peer teachers. Thus, it offers opportunities for mediation (language) of the teachers' learning or changes in beliefs and practices in particular.

Another key feature of the sociocultural theory is *Zone of Proximal Development* (ZPD) which supports the developmental process of learners. Vygotsky (1978) believes that individual development occurs through social interactions with others. Through internalisation, humans are able to create higher-mental thinking and rely on external mediation. However, this process takes places differently and variedly from learners to learners (Lantolf and Throne, 2006). In his theory of cognitive development, the zone of proximal development (ZPD) is defined as "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86). It can be seen that ZPD is the potential range of the higher level of development attained in social interactions with adult guidance or peer collaboration.

Relating ZPD to language learning, Lantolf and Aljaafreh (1995, p.620) describes it as

"An act of negotiated discovery realized through dialogic interaction between the learner and expert... The learner and expert engage each other in an attempt to discover precisely what the learner is able to achieve without help and what the learner can achieve with assistance, or regulation, from the expert."

Considering these two definitions, learning takes places from the inter-mental phase in collaboration with others to the intra-mental phase within ZPD. This shows that learning with collaboration with others promotes development processes in an individual.

Vygotsky (1978) emphasises the two levels of actual and potential in the ZPD. The actual level of development level of independent performance is what a person already knows, has developed or achieved, called "yesterday of development". The potential level of development level of assisted performance is what a person can achieve in the near future which is called

“tomorrow of development”. In other words, there is a zone for what a person can do without help (actual zone) of what he or she can do with assistance (potential level). In addition, Vygotsky explains another zone of what he or she can’t do which is beyond ZPD zone. This means mediation is effective only if it is conducted within the ZPD zone (Wertsch, 1979, 2008).

The ZPD theory advocates the belief that learning is interpreted as an intricate social act, facilitated within specific cultural environment. This learning occurs only when a novice interacts with an expert who is providing some guidance. To elaborate, a learner and more capable peer work collaboratively to complete a task. The task must be more difficult than the learner’s current level of the achievement. As the learner cannot perform the task independently, the more capable peer will then guide the learner to successful completion. At a later stage, the learner will be then able to perform the same task without assistance (Doolittle, 1997). In essence, ZPD allows the learner to become an active instead of passive learner who can make sense of and make it their own (Blanck, 1990).

What should be noted is that the size of learners’ ZPD can be varied and different. Learning might take place at the same time, but learners may make progress differently. Namely, some may progress more quickly than others as they might take better advantages of collaboration (Vygotsky, 1978). This variation can be interpreted that the learning process varies individually and across time periods for specific individuals (Lantolf and Thorne, 2006).

This present study conceptualises the ZPD as the differences between the teachers as learners’ independent performance and the higher level of development as determined by changes in their beliefs and practices with more or less knowledgeable peer assistance. During dialogic reflection, the facilitator and peer teachers should assist each other within teachers’ ZPD through the verbal mediation which should enable teachers to internalise their professional learning. This learning or changes in beliefs and practices may take place at different times depending on individual teachers.

It can be argued that learning takes place from degrees of combined social interaction and facilitated collaboration. Many studies (such as Krause *et al.*, 2003; Daniels, 2016) have shown that scaffolding is closely related to ZPD. Originally, scaffolding within the ZPD refers to “a process that enables a child or novice to solve a problem, carry out a task, or achieve a goal which would be beyond his unassisted efforts” (Wood *et al.*, 1976). Later scaffolding was broadly referred to “a form of support for the development and learning of children and young people” (Rasmussen, 2001, p. 570). Puntambekar and Hubscher (2005) similarly state that “the

scaffolding construct is increasingly being used synonymously with support” (p.1). Relating to learning, it is a process through which a teacher or more competent peer help students when necessary, and this aid, or scaffold, is removed when unnecessary. Scaffolding is considered a means facilitating learners to move to advanced level. Without scaffolding, it is therefore impossible to attain a goal (Davis and Miyake, 2004). Moreover, it seems that learning development occurs over time, within several ZPDs, through assisted scaffolding which can help the learners go from their actual to their potential level (Schwieter, 2010). Thus, it is possible to argue that scaffolding relates to ZPD as the direct application and operationalisation of ZPD (Wells, 1999; Daniels, 2016).

Studies on how dialogues facilitated the development of individual thinking were investigated. A study by Mercer (2008) showed that through guided questions made by the teachers and a peer group of students, students were better at reasoning than those who were not trained in an exploratory talk. Another study conducted by Alexander (2004) revealed features of dialogic teaching including questions structured to promote thinking, and students’ thoughtful answers toward these questions. Mercer and Littleton (2007) investigated teachers’ use of questions to guide the development of an understanding of students. The results showed that learning was a result of social communicative process. Clearly, the previous studies of DR on a teacher with students and students with students show the advantages of questions which trigger higher-order thinking and interaction fosters mediation.

The scaffolding is crucial in this study as the purpose of the study is to examine how dialogic reflection leads to teacher learning or teacher change in beliefs and practices. The study adopts the concept of scaffolding as support including sharing, discussing and reflecting on practice through interactions or dialogic reflection among peer teachers.

Prevailingly, collaboration in the professional learning community (PLC) is an example of an application of Vygotsky’s (1978) concept of social interaction (DuFour *et al*, 2009; DuFour *et al.*, 2011). The main purpose of collaborative learning is to nurture collaboration between more capable and less capable teachers or between peers to peers in order to attain joint goal instead of individual learning.

Professional learning community (PLC) is designed based on the assumption that individuals can gain a deeper understanding of collective pedagogical knowledge through social interactions in a collaborative manner, amongst a “community” or group (Dooner *et al.*, 2008; Dobie and Anderson, 2015). Instead of learning in isolation, collective learning in a

collaborative environment can encourage pedagogical understandings and the collective construction of knowledge (Hadar and Brody, 2010; Lieberman and Miller, 2011; Dobie and Anderson, 2015).

Positive results of implementing PLC have been identified in many studies, such as providing opportunities to share resources in order to optimise students' learning (DuFour and DuFour, 2009; Hord, 2009), acquiring new knowledge or collective learning (Hord and Sommers, 2008) changing classroom practices (Strahan, 2003; Supovitz and Christman, 2003; Hollins *et al.*, 2004; Bolam *et al.*, 2005; Hord and Sommers, 2008), changes in school culture within the minds of the teachers who work at school or assimilating new teachers into the current school culture (Berry *et al.*, 2005; Bolam *et al.*, 2005; Stoll *et al.*, 2006) and fostering collaborative effort which reduces teacher isolation (DuFour and DuFour, 2009; Croft *et al.*, 2010). Collaboration with other teachers provide opportunities to examine beliefs and practice through ongoing interaction with peers (Tam, 2015). It is possible to conclude that positive change is a result of collaborative learning in a supportive condition.

DRs in this study engaged some characteristics of PLC. To elaborate, shared personal practices through dialogic reflection and learning through collaboration in a supportive environment were the main characteristics of DRs that had the potential to improve teacher practices. DRs in this study are the teachers' collaborative effort, not at an organisational level because school support was not included.

Moreover, it should be noted that DRs have some characteristics of professional dialogue. Professional dialogue or reflective conversation is "a discussion between peers that allows the other to explicitly articulate, appreciate and extend their understanding of practice" (Nsibande, 2007, p.4). Thus, professional dialogue leads to an understanding of teaching concepts which is shared by a professional community.

As shown above, SCT is used as a main theoretical framework for explaining how teachers develop their cognition (beliefs) and change their instructional practices. According to SCT, learning is a result of internalisation of mediation or the language of the dialogue (Nauman, 2011; Allen, 2011). A classroom which is an important source of learning fosters teaching concepts and experience. SCT emphasises the role of language in learning. Following the Vygotskian idea of gaining knowledge or higher mental functions through the internalisation of mediational tool or DR in the present study, this should facilitate a better understanding of practice (Freeman, 1993). This also shows that learning can be gained through lived practical

experience in the classroom in DR. Belief is formed through social interaction or activities relating to culturally constructed artefacts within a socio-cultural setting (Vygotsky, 1987; Lantolf, 2004). As social-cultural perspectives focus on the dynamic and interactive agentive nature of individual teachers' development which is conceptualised from external (social activities) to internal mediation (Johnson and Golombeck, 2003; Hawkins, 2004; Thorne, 2005), teachers' knowledge or beliefs and practice derived from prior experiences can be mediated by "the normative way of thinking, talking and acting" (Johnson, 2009, p. 17) through DRs. Through their whole life, SCT, therefore, as the foundation for the framework of this study plays a crucial role in dialogic reflection fostering teacher learning.

2.8 Summary

This chapter presents literature on teachers' beliefs, discusses factors influencing change in teachers' beliefs and practice and provides background knowledge of what factors promote success in vocabulary acquisition. As the focus of this study was to examine the influence of DR on belief and practice shift, focusing on vocabulary instruction, the content in this chapter constitutes what this research needs in order to understand and to make contributions to the field. The next chapter describes the methodology of the study.

Chapter 3. Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter describes aims and research questions and the methodological procedures adopted in this study. It justifies the research paradigm (section 3.3), the research design (section 3.4), research approach (section 3.5), participants (section 3.6), the context of study (section 3.7) and research tools (section 3.8) employed for data collection and data analysis in this study. The researcher stance is explained (section 3.9.) The processes of piloting (section 3.10) are provided before moving on to the approach adopted in order to analyse the data (section 3.11) thus enhancing the reliability and validity of this study (section 3.12). The last section deals with ethical issues (section 3.13).

3.2 Aims and research questions

The overarching aim of the study is to explore whether there were any influences of dialogic reflections (DR) on changes in beliefs and practices relating to vocabulary instructions in reading lessons of a small group of Thai university teachers of English. Participating in DR sessions might allow teachers to learn more through reflection on practice and obtain more in-depth perspectives on listening to their colleagues regarding how they taught vocabulary in their classes. DR could facilitate some shifts in their beliefs and practices while allowing me to identify factors leading to the changes in their beliefs and practices.

In order to shed some light on the issues under investigation, this study attempted to answer the following research questions;

1. How did dialogic reflections influence teachers' beliefs relating to vocabulary teaching in reading pre- and post- reflective practice?
2. How did dialogic reflections influence teachers' practices relating to vocabulary teaching in reading pre- and post- reflective practice?

3.3 Research paradigm

All research is conducted with an underpinning paradigm which is related to beliefs and values of the research (Almulla, 2017). Subjectivism and interpretivism were the ontological and epistemological perspectives used to understand the beliefs and practices and to explore the influence of DR on teacher learning or change in beliefs and practices of the teachers in this study.

Ontology refers to what exists and is a view on the nature of reality (Barnett-Page and Thomas, 2009; Cohen *et al.*, 2011). In other words, ontology is concerned with what existence or reality is. Epistemology means “a way of understanding and explaining how we know what we know.” (Crotty, 1998, p.3). Simply stated, epistemology is how knowledge can be acquired (Barnett-Page and Thomas, 2009; Cohen *et al.*, 2011). How research is framed depends on the ontological view and on what approach to research used designates answers or types of knowledge found.

There were three main reasons why this study adopted the interpretivist paradigm. Firstly, interpretivism was used to understand human behaviour, motives, meanings, reasons and other subjective experiences, relevant to time and context (Hudson and Ozanne, 1988; Neuman, 2000). This paradigm was appropriate to my understanding of teachers’ beliefs and practices and to explore whether DR could lead to their belief and practice change. Secondly, access to reality (given or socially constructed) is only through social constructions, such as language, shared meanings, and instruments (Myers, 2008; Barnett-Page and Thomas, 2009). Knowledge is viewed as acquired socially rather than through an objective interaction with the world (Carson *et al.*, 2001; Bryman, 2016). Thus, knowledge is gained through the process of negotiation during interaction in semi-structured interviews, observation and DRs. Third, interpretive is open to new knowledge throughout the study. Realities cannot be fixed as it is difficult to make an interpretation of the meanings of other systems (Neuman, 2000). Therefore, the nature of knowledge acquisition is fluid and research structures are flexible or adjustable to new details which might emerge during the data gathering process (Carson *et al.*, 2001).

In contrast to the interpretive method, positivism seemed inappropriate for this study because it views knowledge as objective and measurable (Mukherji and Albon, 2014), and it does not include intuition or personal opinions into research (Carson *et al.*, 2001; McNeill and Chapman, 2005). Positivists approach the truth through observation; therefore, information that is unobservable or unmeasurable is discarded (Daempfle, 2012). As it is not subjective, human

behaviours cannot be explained through quantification (statistical and mathematical techniques). Accordingly, positivism was not appropriate for this qualitative study.

3.4 Research approach

The following reasons explained why this study employed a qualitative approach. First, the purpose of qualitative research is to make comprehension of human behaviours, actions, and perceptions. As this present study aims to understand the beliefs held by a small group of five Thai teachers and their practice after attending DR sessions, a qualitative approach was used to gain insights of these beliefs and practices through DR taking place in authentic settings (Cresswell, 2013).

Second, qualitative data is mainly collected based on words (Creswell, 2013). This study employed pre-observational semi-structured interview (PRI) regarding teachers' beliefs and practice, classroom observations, DR, and post-observational semi-structured interviews (POI) relating to the influences of DR, in order to gather verbal data of the small group of participants. Moreover, many research instruments are employed to draw as many perspectives as possible in order to gain understandings of the verbal data concerning the topic studied (Highman and Croker, 2009), whilst ensuring that the data is rigorous (Bomarius, 2005).

Third, verbal data is analysed for descriptions and themes (Creswell, 2013) in order to involve the perspectives of the participants and to understand their meanings (Richards, 2003). Qualitative study employs an inductive process, which relies on the outcomes to find empirical patterns to function as the beginning of a theory or to form a theory (Bryman, 2008). Later the data were analysed using thematic analysis in order to gain insight into the influence of DR on their change in beliefs and practices relating to vocabulary teaching in reading.

As the focus of the study was in the specific context of a small group of university teachers in Thailand, a qualitative study was employed.

3.5 Research design (Exploratory study)

This study adopted an exploratory study research design. An exploratory study aimed to gain an in-depth understanding of the phenomena and to increase knowledge of what has not been studied extensively (Burns and Grove, 2010; Cresswell, 1994). Therefore, the exploratory approach could lead to the expansion or understanding of the dialogic reflection on changes in beliefs and practices which has been little studied based on the data that is gathered.

This present study was exploratory in the sense that it aims to observe and understand more about the phenomenon (Yin, 2003). In particular, the primary purpose of the research was to find out whether DR had any influences on changes in teachers' beliefs and practices pertaining to the teaching of vocabulary. It allowed me to draw the findings emerging from the naturalistic data (Duff, 2007). Furthermore, it allowed me to understand this complex phenomenon in a real setting of a classroom (Yin, 2010).

To explore teachers' beliefs and practices pre- and post-DRs, two different semi-structured interviews were employed to investigate their beliefs pre- and post-DR. Classroom observation were also conducted to have first-hand experience of teacher practice during the period of DRs. Eventually, data of their beliefs and practices pre- and post-DR would be compared to identify any changes. Thus, the present study enabled me to explore the data which showed a change over time in teachers' learning in terms of beliefs or knowledge and instructional practices.

3.6 Participants

Five Thai teachers of English from one university in Pattani, Thailand participated in this study. They taught English for Reading and Writing courses in the academic year of 2015. This university was approached due to its accessibility in terms of 1) I was a teacher of this university, there were teachers who agreed to participate in the study, and 2) there were courses which included vocabulary skills offered at the time when the study could be conducted (semester two).

The study employed a convenience sampling method in order to recruit participants. The teacher participants were approached through the assistance of an English teacher at the university who circulated the research information including requirements of years of teaching experience, and data collection methods (e.g. interviews, classroom observation and DR) were provided to the English teacher first in order to share with other teachers on this course. Only

those who volunteered were individually contacted (Appendix C). Ten teachers were initially approached, but only five teachers volunteered to participate because classroom observation (which is not their common practice) hindered many of them from participating in this study. The information sheet was sent to the five participants through Facebook Messenger, and it was provided again on meeting them.

The conditions required in the study were participants who had less than ten-year teaching experience (as participants in other previous studies had over a decade of teaching experience), and there must be a combination of more experienced and less experienced teachers who taught the Reading and Writing course, for the purpose of knowledge sharing in interactions (Vygotsky, 1978). Their profiles were shown as follows.

Teachers	Education	Teaching experience	Teaching load (teaching hours/ week)	Attendance of teaching trainings Yes/No	Other work load
T1	Master of Arts (Teaching English as a Second Language)	3 years	15	No	-
T2	Master of Arts (English)	Less than a year	15	No	English activities (Leader of extra co-curricular activities)
T3	Master of Arts (English Literature)	5 years	12	No	Conducting research
T4	Bachelor of Arts (English Education)	8 years	15	No	-
T5	Master of Arts (English as an International Language)	7 years	9	No	Administrative jobs as a head of the department

Ts	Characteristics
T1	T1 was the youngest but not the least experienced teacher. Based on the interviews and observations in DRs, she was self-aware, and she had a sense of self-improvement.
T2	T2 was the newest teacher with less than half a year's teaching experience, but she seems more confident than T1. In spite of her lack of experience, most of her practices originated from her schooling experience. Moreover, T2 reported that she was comfortable sharing her practice with this group of teachers for both positive and negative issues.
T3	T3 has a five-year teaching experience as a university teacher. Post observation interview data showed that she was aware of both positive and negative aspects of attending DRs. She stated, "Participating in DRs causes sharing and revealing some weak points." Even though she attended DRs only three times (DRs 1, 3, and 6), her contribution increased every time.
T4	T4 has an eight year teaching experience. Similar to T2, T4 was open-minded to both negative and positive issues when sharing in group, and she always made a lot of contributions in DRs.
T5	T5 had a seven year teaching experience. Similar to T1, T5 was engaged in a lot in discussions at the beginning but became less involved in the following sessions.

Table 3.1 Teachers' profiles

3.7 The context of study

A government university in Thailand was selected for the study through personal contact. English is a compulsory course offered to all first-year students, and they are required to study English for Listening and Speaking in the first semester and English for Reading and Writing in the second semester. The latter course was observed in the study and the course objectives are shown in Table 3.2.

Course Syllabus

417-102: English Reading and Writing 3(3-0-6) Credits

Semester: 2/2014 Department of Western Languages

Course Category: Fundamental course for first-year students

Course Description: Developing reading skills focusing on main ideas and vocabulary improvement; developing grammatical and meaningful sentences and short paragraph writing skills

Course Objectives:

1. To enhance students' abilities in English reading and writing
2. To enhance students' understanding of the culture of English-speaking countries
3. To encourage students to develop self-study habit
4. To provide students with basic knowledge and learning strategies for their future study

Table 3.2 English for Reading and Writing Course (Prince of Songkla University course syllabus)

As shown in Table 3.2, one of the skills focused on in the course was vocabulary. This was the major reason why this Reading and Writing course was selected to be observed in this study. Another reason was the close relationship between reading and vocabulary (Fisher *et al.*, 2004; Richek, 2005; Yildirim *et al.*, 2014). Observing this course allowed for more possibilities in observing vocabulary instruction than in other English courses. Two lessons (one lesson of two hours and the other of one hour) taught by each teacher were observed per week. The first lesson lasted two hours and the other lesson lasted one hour. All five teachers used the same textbook, *From Reading to Writing 1*, and the same course syllabus for all students (Appendix D for the full course syllabus details of what topics were to be taught in each week and Appendix E for the summary of the focus of the book).

The total of 312 first-year students was taught by the five participating teachers (see details of a consent form in section 3.13). The majors of these students ranged from humanities to science including Rubber Technology, Fisheries, Economics, Social Development, English, Political Sciences, French, and Religion. Most students had a proficiency of around 100-250 TOEIC scores. As it is a foundation course, all the first year students are required to take this course.

3.8 Data collection tools

Data were collected from February, 10th to May 8th, 2015. Data gathering instruments in this study consisted of 1) semi-structured interviews about teachers' beliefs and practice in relation to vocabulary teaching in reading before and after participating in DR sessions (section 3.8.1) and 2) classroom observation (section 3.8.2) and 3) DRs (section 3.8.3). The reasons why particular methods were selected are described below together with their values and limitations.

3.8.1 Semi- structured interviews

Semi-structured interviews were chosen to address the first research question about teachers' beliefs pre- and post-DRs.

Semi-structured interviews were chosen for three main reasons. Firstly, the main strength of semi-structured interviews in comparison with questionnaires or structured interviews is enabling researchers to gain an in-depth understanding of the phenomena through possibilities to probe for clarification, better comprehension, and deeper information (Gill *et al.*, 2008). Pertaining to the questions in a semi-structured interview which are predetermined and inquired in this same manner and sequence with comparison to a structured interview which has no room for flexibility and further elaboration (Fontana and Frey, 1994) and an unstructured interview which depends on interaction between interviewer and interviewee (Patton, 1990), all the responses with a semi-structured interview can then be obtained with a certainty (Kumar and Phrommathed, 2005). Secondly, profound insightful data concerning teacher beliefs can be obtained. This method is frequently used rather than questionnaires to gain better access to data (Borg, 2006). Finally, the interview makes something implicit become explicit by verbal and non-verbal expressions (Arksey and Knight, 1999). Therefore, it is an appropriate method to gather data concerning beliefs or perceptions which are not obviously explicit (Borg, 2006). Moreover, the evidence of teacher change in practice was taken from the post-observation semi-structured interviews to confirm their change in the second research question.

In contrast to its values, some limitations are found. Firstly, it is time-consuming (Patton, 1990). Effort and patience are required with this type of method as a great deal of time spent on data gathering, transcribing, and analysing data is needed. Second, the validity and reliability of data can be a problematic issue (Uzzell *et al.*, 1995). Data can be biased either due to the interviewers or the participants. Holstein and Gubrium (1995) indicate that interviewees may not give

accurate responses. This may be due to questions causing difficulties, or embarrassment, or they may want to adopt answers that are seen as socially acceptable. Third, it may not suit novice researchers as some information may not be gathered. It is possible that poor or ineffective ways of conducting interviews may lead to unsuccessful data collection as respondents may not want to answer, or talk about what they think, or even be incorporated in the study.

To minimize some limitations and considering the time issue, raw data was listened to and transcribed and then only what was relevant to the research questions was translated into English, whilst some other non-verbal features were not incorporated to save some time. Regarding the validity of the data, the interviews were conducted in Thai because using a native language is an easy way to access the data, and it was easy for teachers to express their thoughts. Furthermore, to avoid misinterpretation, English transcriptions of interviews were translated back into Thai by a Thai university lecturer of English to confirm the accuracy of the participants' responses (Appendix H). In regards to the reliability of the data obtained, all the themes found in the interviews were checked through inter-rater reliability (Appendix L). I also attended interviewing workshops arranged by my university in order to practice interview skills and to increase confidence in conducting interviews. Furthermore, when conducting interviews, creating a friendly and non-threatening atmosphere, stressing the importance of the participation, refraining from disagreements in any forms and assuring confidentiality or anonymity allowed me to build a rapport and to probe participants without making them feel uncomfortable or unwilling to participate in the interviews (Connaway and Powell, 2010). This was likely to increase the validity of the responses. Moreover, piloting was conducted to examine if the interview questions were clear and understandable (section 3.9).

In this particular study, semi-structured interviews were conducted with individual teachers at two different times over the period of the study. One was at the beginning of the study to first gain some teachers' demographic information, their beliefs, and practices in relation to teaching vocabulary in reading before attending DR, and the other was after the last session of classroom observation to examine teachers' opinions on the influences of DR on changes in their beliefs and practice. The same interview schedule was used, but the questions were not enquired in the same order depending on the teachers' responses.

It is not uncommon that what is believed by the teacher is what they actually did in the classroom, while what they did in the classroom might not also be aware. To assure the validity

and reliability of the finding of this study, classroom observation was employed to enable the cross-reference of the findings.

3.8.2 Classroom observation

Classroom observation was adopted in order to understand teachers' practice pre- and post-DR (RQ 2) and to triangulate information from the interview. It has been frequently employed in collecting data about teacher's beliefs (Borg, 2005) as a method for observing instructional behavior in an actual educational setting (Patton, 1987; Bryman, 2012), and it helps to avoid the inaccuracy and bias of data that comes from the interviews with participants (Gall *et al.*, 2007).

In contrast to its advantages, the main limitation may be a change in behavior as a result of observation and video recording (Labov, 1972). Teachers may behave in a way that is different to how they normally act to serve the purposes of the study and students may be excited with the recording which encourages them to act differently. The second limitation is that it can be time-consuming as it requires a researcher to observe and take notes during class and the data needs to be transcribed and interpreted after observation (Bryman, 2012). The third problem was a personal bias which is influenced by the personal experiences and beliefs of the researcher (Gall *et al.*, 2007).

To minimize some limitations, all the teachers were informed about the purposes of the study and they were told that no factors would harm their teaching career as pseudonyms were used and all evidence would be eradicated after the study (Appendix B for information sheet for students and Appendix C for information sheet for teachers). Furthermore, frequent observation for eight weeks (approximately 7-8 lessons of two hour lessons (21-24 hours) and 7-8 lessons of one-hour lesson (7-8 hours) of each teacher) should reduce the effects of classroom observation as the more frequently I appeared in the classroom, the more familiar the students and teachers would be with my presence. Regarding time, only lessons or teaching concerning vocabulary instructions were transcribed and analysed. With regard to problems of bias, avoiding the use of positive and negative notes or comments in class might diminish these problems (Appendix O for example of observation notes and Appendix P for lesson descriptions).

In particular, this present study involved reactive observation in which teacher participants knew they were being observed (Allwright and Bailey, 1991; Gall *et al.*, 2007). It was a natural observation as participants were observed in their actual real-life setting (Kothari, 2004; Gall *et al.*, 2007). It was an unstructured observation in which all lessons were noted down without specific features being identified beforehand (McKechnie, 2008). As a non-participant researcher, there was no interaction between the teachers and me, or the students and me (Kothari, 2004; Dörnyei, 2007). It was also an uncontrolled observation as it took place in a naturalistic setting in which no definite pre-determined plan could be arranged and there were no precision instruments aided the observation (Kothari, 2004).

An unstructured classroom observation form was employed instead of some observation schedule, such as COLT (Spada and Frohlich, 1995). As the main aim of the study was to capture how teachers taught vocabulary, COLT was inappropriate because it was grounded on a communicative approach which captures features of communication (Allen *et al.*, 1984); therefore, it might not suit to observing a specific domain of vocabulary skills. Furthermore, as I could not be certain how the teacher would teach or emphasise vocabulary skills, the pre-determined categories did not match the main purpose of the study. Particularly, this study employed an unstructured observation form adapted from a T-chart observation tool which was easy to use, simple to record the data of teacher talk and suitable for teachers without much experience on classroom observation (Gall and Acheson 2011; Malu, 2015) (Appendix N for an example of unstructured classroom observation form).

As the focus of the study was vocabulary teaching, how teachers taught vocabulary, steps of their teaching, how teachers gave explanation or the wording they used to explain vocabulary, time spent on teaching vocabulary, students' reactions and classroom atmosphere were all noted down on the observation form (Appendix O for an example of observation notes) during observations in the lesson throughout the second half of the semester, with all five Reading and Writing course teachers. During the observation periods, students tended to look at me and the video recorder on the first day. After that, they did not seem to show interest in my presence anymore. Teachers acted naturally as if they were not bothered by having the video recorder on. However, it was a Reading and Writing course; therefore, the other skills of reading and grammar or writing were also noted down on the form. Each of the five teachers' teaching was observed for over 8 weeks. Two lessons were observed per week: the first day a two-hour session and the second day a one-hour session. Each teacher' lessons were not equal as shown in the summary table 3.3. Apart from notes concerning their teaching, questions in relation to their practice were also noted down, such as why there was revising at both the beginning and

end, why they introduced other aspects including word families, why they would always use this technique, etc. After observation, all the questions or points noted from the observation forms were used to form questions to be asked in DR sessions. One audio recorder and two video cameras (at the front and back of the classroom) were used to record the phenomena taking place in classes.

Teachers	Numbers of lessons observed in data collection period	Reasons why no class
T1	7 lessons of two-hour session 7 lesson of one-hour session	Finished course early
T2	5 lessons of two-hour session 5 lesson of one-hour session	Sickness/ physical checkup
T3	8 lessons of two-hour session 8 lesson of one-hour session	
T4	8 lessons of two-hour session 8 lesson of one-hour session	
T5	7 lessons of two-hour session 7 lesson of one-hour session	Finished course early

Table 3.3 Summary of lessons observed

3.8.3 Dialogic reflection (DR)

DRs were conducted to explore teachers' beliefs and the practices through DR. Even though data of DR were not used as a means to triangulate the data, it was essential to explain what DRs were like and what took place in DRs.

In this study, DRs (see definitions of DR in section 2.6) aimed to encourage participants to discuss their teaching practice in the form of a group with the purposes of reflecting on what they taught, how they taught, and why they taught that way and sharing teaching experiences. It was also used to investigate the teachers' reasons behind practices which allowed me to better understand their teaching instructional behaviors. Another value of DRs was to explore if there were any influences of DRs on changes in teachers' beliefs and practices.

DR sessions were conducted following some characteristics of a focus group, as a method to collect data from multiple participants at the same time (Braun and Clarke, 2013). It was a challenge to encourage participants to talk as well as controlling the discussion so that it did not go off topic. The discussion items were taken from classroom observation notes or the actions that took place in classes. These were prepared before the meetings to ensure that the

subjects to be probed in the session were covered, making sessions run smoothly (Matthews and Ross, 2014) and eliciting responses concerning the research topic (Bryman, 2012).

After the contribution by all the participants, I acted as facilitator, monitoring the talk by listening, providing questions from classroom observation notes to the teachers and probing questions arising at DRs. The main reason why I asked the questions during DR sessions was to ensure that the information needed was successfully collected. Questions were raised one by one and skill by skill starting from vocabulary and going on to reading, grammar and writing. All the skills taught in the course were included in the discussion. Even though the main focus of the research was on vocabulary, the course emphasised reading and writing skills. Besides this, based on my observation, all teachers were obviously concerned and eager to discuss reading and writing. Through my careful decision, it did not seem right to have them discuss only vocabulary and ignore other skills they were interested in. The teachers were invited one by one to share their teaching experience by reflecting on what they taught, how they taught and why they did so, and they were invited to share their opinions on the other participants' teachings. They normally took turns to give their responses based on what I asked (see sample questions in Table 3.4). Furthermore, they were encouraged to ask questions and share their opinions or comments on their peers' teaching. Even though they used the same book and followed the same syllabus, their lessons were not the same each week because some teachers had a more rapid pace in instruction than others.

Table 3.4 presents types of questions the teachers were asked at DR sessions. These questions were categorised following Kvale (1996) guidance of qualitative interview and oriented to encourage teachers' reflection on what and how they taught, and why they did it that way and how to improve.

Types of questions	Sample Questions
1.1 Lead-in questions	What is the lesson of this week? What are the objectives? Did you reach the goals of the lessons?
1.2 Follow up questions	Did everything go well as planned? How did you teach?
1.3 Probing questions	Why did you use that technique? Why did everything go well as planned? What makes your lesson go well as planned? Comparing with other techniques, which one is better? Why? Comparing with other techniques, which one do you prefer? Why? What is good about ...? Why should we practice that way?
1.4 Specifying questions	Did you notice how much time you spent in that? Did you notice how the teacher ... (write the board, etc)?

Table 3.4 Types of questions in DRs

During DR sessions, questions varied from week to week and across the weeks depending on how teachers reported or how practices were observed. Generally, most questions about the same vocabulary teaching techniques in the following weeks were not repeated unless some of their practices remained the same after a few weeks of observation.

Two instruments deployed during the sessions were audio recordings and photographs of how they taught which were taken during the observation. Permission for audio recordings and photographs of how they taught was requested at the first session. The photos of how teachers taught and the students' participation were shown whilst they were sharing their information. The photographs of their teaching greatly helped the teachers gain some understanding of what was going on in the classrooms. The photographs of students' participation were sometimes shown to provide evidence of classroom atmosphere and students' reaction towards activities, in order to confirm whether their practice was good. Video clips of classroom observations were not employed in order to save time. Finally, I thanked them again for their time and their permission which was granted to use the data in this study.

Venue and time of DR sessions were decided based on the teachers' convenience. A meeting room was chosen because it was quiet, comfortable and convenient for the participants to

access. Further, the room was airy and refreshments were prepared for all the participants to create a relaxed and friendly atmosphere (Matthews and Ross, 2014). The session was held only once a week to avoid disturbing the teachers too much. The timescale for a particular session lasted approximately 45 minutes depending on how many issues had to be discussed and how much contribution the teacher participants could make. However, it never lasted longer than an hour.

After each DR session, transcripts of the recordings and notes from the group were made by the end of the day, after each session, to avoid forgetting some of the key elements that emerged during the discussion.

There were some limitations of DRs. Firstly, the data was specifically derived from a small number of participants in a particular context. Therefore, the findings obtained from this study might not be rigorous enough and might not be able to provide a generalised conclusion. However, following Denzin (1983), generalisation should not be the objective of all research projects. Secondly, my presence as a researcher created some unwanted effects during classroom observation (Denscombe, 2014). This is inevitable and beyond what I could control; nonetheless, evidence of classroom observation should minimise the effects. Thirdly, as I was a facilitator, there may be bias on my comments, or in the questions provided in DRs and the interpretations; however, to increase reliability and validity, inter-rater and back-translation were employed. It was also noted that even though my comments on their teaching techniques might be shared in the risk-free contexts of DRs, it depended on teachers whether they would agree or disagree.

3.9 Researcher stance

This section aims to discuss my role as an insider, observer, facilitator and participant in order to justify my function in this study.

First, I considered myself as an insider. Before conducting the study, I knew some teachers at the university where my data were collected. As an insider, it was easy for me to approach my participants and to build up a rapport (Allwright, 2005). Even though I did not know my participants before I began my study, which made me view my status as equal to colleagues working at a different campus, I could easily access and create a friendly non-threatening

atmosphere. Moreover, as I am also a lecturer of the university, it is easy for me to access the syllabus data and understand the circumstances of the working context.

My second role as an observer allowed me to gain insight into my study. The main aim of the exploratory research is to generate rich data from a particular setting and participants. Therefore, I could observe my participants at the time of their teaching and participation in DR sessions, and understand what they meant in context. This enables me to gain access to knowledge and data interpretation more accurately, due to my familiarity with the context (Campbell *et al.*, 2003; Robson 2002).

My third role was a facilitator. To overcome some limitations found in a previous study conducted by Field (2012), reflective questions were asked to ensure the right amount of data was derived. Moreover, each teacher's actual practices were used in the weekly oral guided reflection, instead of sample incidents, to promote problem-solving of real practices in this study. Apart from making inquiries, directing participants to give their best performance as a group member (Puchta and Potter, 2004) was vital; therefore, I needed to be aware of group dynamics and potential power relation differentials to ensure that participants interacted with me and with other group members whilst maintaining the focus on the topic. As a facilitator, I exercised the basic power as I distributed turns of speaking, directed the discussions, provided some comments or ideas which the group might accept or reject, and requested more explanations from some particular teachers.

Among many sources the power is based on, the power directly relevant to this study was expert power. Power refers to the ability of one to influence over the others; to do what he or she wants in any given situations (Simpson *et al.*, 2015). Expert power is the ability of the more superior individuals in terms of knowledge, expertise or skill to influence the acceptance of group members (French *et al.*, 1959; Simpson *et al.*, 2015). Before DRs, I was unaware that there might be the potential of power relations as I was just a teacher. However, after reflecting on my data, such power was made apparent by some teachers who viewed my role as unequal, with a greater expertise in language teaching. However, while some teachers agreed on some comments and improved their vocabulary teaching techniques, as observed in the subsequent class, some teachers' instructional behaviours remained the same. Therefore, it is possible to conclude that our power was equal, but it depended on the individual's willingness to open their mind and to adjust their practice. Furthermore, there might be a possibility of power difference among teachers, however, this was not apparent in the study.

What I did not plan for was my fourth role as a participant in DR sessions. At the beginning, I wanted to listen and ask questions, to guide reflection, and to distribute turns of talk to encourage interaction from all members of the group. I considered myself as a colleague and researcher; therefore, I refrained from giving opinions or comments in order to avoid bias and inaccurate interpretation. Unintentionally, when I listened to them, I sometimes complimented or shared my opinions on some teaching techniques or practices. This might make my role alter in the view of some of the participants. As a facilitator and participant, I was able to see the other participants' change in beliefs and practice as they learned and discussed during DR sessions. However, I was aware that there might be some potential bias and subjectivity in my work.

3.10 Data collection procedures

In conducting this study, some procedures of methodology were carried out as follows:

3.10.1 Constructing instruments

Research tools including classroom observation forms, questions in a pre-observational semi-structured interview (PRI) and questions in a post-observational semi-structured interview (POI), were constructed based on the related literature. They were then checked by the supervisors before they were used (Appendix N for classroom observation form, Appendix G for PRI and Appendix W for POI). The interview questions were adopted and adapted from Zhang (2008) and they were translated into Thai by me, and the Thai translation version was checked by a Thai teacher of English before they were used. The information sheet and consent forms were distributed to the teachers and students, and they were returned (Appendix A, B, C).

3.10.2. Pilot study

A pilot study was conducted in order to examine the feasibility of the study (Andrews, 2003), in order to assess the quality of the research instruments before their administration to the teachers (Gass and Mackey, 2007) and to ensure that the data gathering process worked. This

minimised problems and ensured that all the procedures went smooth without creating any frustration for the teachers.

The pilot study took place one week before the beginning of the data collection. Initially, questions in PRI were posed with two non-teacher participants at the same university, in order to examine the clarity of the questions during interviews through the Sony audio-recorder. After that, the quality of the Panasonic VDO camera was checked when observing their practice. After their teaching, DR sessions were arranged. Some ‘prompt’ questions derived from classroom observation were tried out to see if they were clear, understandable and easy for the two teachers to respond. Next, questions in POI concerning the employment of DRs were inquired. Finally, questions in the PRI, DRs and POI were revised before the actual data collection began. Table 3.5 shows an example of how the interview questions were revised (Appendix F for a revision of the interview questions).

How to teach (Pedagogical knowledge)	
Before	After
1. Do you normally teach vocabulary in reading lessons?	√
1.1 To what extent can vocabulary be acquired through reading? Why?	What do you think about this statement, vocabulary can be acquired through reading? (Prompts: Do you agree or disagree? Why?)

Table 3.5 Example of interview questions before and after piloting

3.10.3. Conducting the main study

Before classroom observation, PRI was employed to investigate teachers’ beliefs and practices relating to vocabulary teaching through reading. Classroom observation was conducted during the second half of the semester. DR sessions were held after all teachers had finished both classes in a week. After the last teaching sessions and the last DR, a POI was held with individual participants.

Most of the steps were followed as planned. However, some changes were essential. According to Hesse-Biber and Leavy (2010), some alteration could happen during the data collection

process based on the interpretivism for which some changes could occur. Regarding PRI data, initially the interview topics included nine themes of 1) vocabulary learning through reading, 2) stages of teaching, 3) teaching techniques, 4) aspects of words, 5) significance of words, 6) vocabulary teaching at a university level, 7) vocabulary learning strategies, 8) assessment and 9) teaching materials. Due to the infeasibility of data collection in observation and DR sessions, the last three items of vocabulary learning strategies, assessment and teaching materials were removed from the finding chapter. The other themes were observed in teachers' practices almost every week which allowed teachers to reflect on their practice and sharing to occur.

These problems did not come to my mind when I did the pilot study because each instrument was checked for feasibility only once. Thus, I did not expect that I could not observe teacher participants' practice regarding vocabulary learning strategies, assessment and teaching materials in actual data collection period. Consequently, I could not ask the teachers to reflect on or share ideas regarding these topics.

Even though there was a reduction in a number of PRI questions, I did not believe that this affected on the quality of data derived because important data were likely to be sufficient for me to explore whether DRs could lead to some changes in their beliefs and practices.

3.11 Data analysis

Qualitative data analysis is defined as “the process of systematically searching and arranging the interview transcripts, field notes, and other materials that you accumulate to increase your own understanding of them and to enable you to present what you have discovered to others” (Bogdan and Biklen, 1998, p. 153). After data were derived, spoken data including semi-structured interviews and observation were processed as follows.

3.11.1 Transcribing data

After all the data was collected, data of PRI, POI and classroom observation were transcribed. Transcribing, which is the first important step of transcription, refers to “the process of reproducing spoken words, such as those from an audiotaped interview, into written text” (Halcomb and Davidson, 2006, p. 38). Transcription is not simple or neutral because it involves making sense of meanings or judgments and interpretations (Marshall and Rossman, 2014).

According to Polkinghorne (2005), oral data transcribed into written data always lose much information and nuance. However, the missing information or nuance from the data can be significant or insignificant depending on the relevance of research questions (Rohleder, 2014).

This study transcribed data in Thai (original source of data) in order to make sense of what informants expressed and to capture verbal information as much as possible. Non-verbal language was not included in the transcriptions as the aim of the study was to mainly understand teachers' stated beliefs and practice. All the data was transcribed by me as the researcher in order to familiarise myself with the data (Saldaña, 2012). Data should be transcribed by the researcher as they are the best one to understand or make sense of interpretation (Rohleder, 2014).

After that, the aforementioned data were translated. As the language used in the interview was not the one employed in the publishing, translation was very essential and inevitable. Poland (1995) asserted that “the very notion of accuracy of transcription is problematic given the inter-subjective nature of human communication, and transcription as an interpretative activity” (p. 292). The data in this study was translated from Thai into English by me. In regards to accuracy or validity of data, back translation was employed after I had finished the translation of data from Thai into English. It is worth noting that only particular parts relating to the research questions were translated, in order to reduce the problem of time consumption. Table 3.6 shows an example of Thai transcripts and English translation (Appendix H for a full example).

Question	Responses (Thai transcript)	Responses (Translation from Thai into English)
1. Vocabulary teaching		
1. Do you normally teach vocabulary in reading lessons?	ใช่	Yes.
1.1 To what extent can vocabulary be acquired through reading? Why?	คำปรากฏในเนื้อเรื่องที่อ่าน... ...เรียนรู้จาก เรียนรู้คำศัพท์ในบริบทจริง นักเรียนจะได้ทราบวิธีใช้คำในบริบทที่แท้จริง อย่างเช่น ถ้าสอนแค่ เช่น คำศัพท์เกี่ยวกับการทำอาหาร การ	Words appear in reading passages... ...learn from, learn vocabulary in real contexts. Students will know how words are used in a real context. For instance, if I teach only for example vocabulary

	<p>ทอด อบ นึ่ง นักเรียนจะไม่รู้วิธีการใช้ ศัพท์ แต่หากมีเนื้อเรื่องอยู่ด้วย นักเรียน จะสารดเรียนรู้คำศัพท์จากวิธีการทำไข ต้ม ประมาณนั้น</p> <p>คือส่วนมากตัวเองก็จะแปลจาก ภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาไทย พอนักเรียน เห็นคำในบริบท ก็จะแปลประโยคและ จะบอกให้นักเรียนเดาว่ามันหมายถึง อะไร</p> <p>นักเรียนไม่ได้เอกภาษาอังกฤษ หากใช้ เฉพาะภาษาอังกฤษ คำก็จะไม่เข้าใจ</p>	<p>about cooking, fry, bake, steam, students do not know how to use them, but if there is a text available, students can learn the target words from how to make boiled eggs something like this.</p> <p>Most of the time, I always translate from English into Thai. Students see words in contexts. I translate sentences and ask them to guess what it means.</p> <p>Students do not major in English. If I use only English, they won't understand.</p>
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Table 3.6 Example of Thai transcripts and English translation

3.11.2 Thematic analysis for interview data

Interview data in this study were analysed using *thematic analysis*. Thematic analysis always entails coding or categorizing, which is referred to as “the operations by which data are broken down, conceptualized, and put back together in new ways” (Strauss and Corbin, 1990, p. 57). Breaking texts of real-life narrations into small units is one of the aims of thematic analysis (Sparkes, 2005) which is defined as “a method for identifying, analyzing and reporting patterns (themes) within data” (Braun and Clarke, 2013, p. 79). Thus, searching for themes that emerge from data is the main characteristic of thematic analysis (Daly *et al.*, 1997).

This study followed the five stages of how to conduct a thematic analysis recommended by Braun and Clark (2013). The first stage was to familiarise myself with the data. At this stage, I transcribed PRI, POI and DR recordings and carefully read and reread the transcriptions several times to have an overview of the data. Familiarising with the data enabled me to obtain a general sense of the data (w Cresswell, 2013). Moreover, careful reading of data leads to theme identification (Rice and Ezzy, 1999). The second stage was to generate the initial codes. A code is a name or a label given to a piece of text containing an idea or information (Cohen *et al.*, 2013). According to Boyatzis (1988, p1), a good code is one that “captures the qualitative richness of the phenomenon.” At this stage, interesting features of data were labelled or coded. For example, I examined teachers’ beliefs obtained from PRI. I looked for similar or different

opinions on a particular point and noted with short words or phrases. I also used different colors to highlight a different piece of information. Then I grouped similar ideas altogether in one category, putting different opinions in others. Table 3.7 shows an instance of how codes were derived. The responses were derived from the question, ‘To what extent can vocabulary be acquired through reading? Why?’.

Responses	Codes	Sub-themes	Themes/ Categories
<p>T1: Words appear in reading passage. They can learn from, learn vocabulary in real contexts. Students will know how words are used in a real context. For instance, if I teach only for example vocabulary about cooking, fry, this, that, bake, steam, students do not know how to use them, but if there is a text available, students can learn eggs, how to make boiled eggs something like this.</p> <p>Most of the time, I always translate from English into Thai. Students see words in contexts. I translate sentences and ask them to guess what it means. Students do not major in English. If I use only English, they won't understand.</p>	<p>See words in reading passages</p> <p>See words in real contexts</p> <p>How words used in real context</p> <p>Ask students to guess meanings after translation</p>	<p>Seeing how words are used in real contexts</p> <p>Guessing meanings from contexts</p>	<p>Advantages of learning words in contexts</p>
<p>T5: Reading is good in which it provides words and contexts. When I teach students, I always make two points of contexts. One</p>	<p>Passage provides meanings of words</p> <p>Contexts</p>	<p>Guessing meanings from contexts</p>	

<p>is about grammar and the other is about meanings. Contexts related to grammar are seeing features, explaining forms. How to know parts of speech can be done by looking at structures surrounded. And to know approximate meanings is to look at words surrounding.</p>	<p>Guessing meanings</p> <p>knowing grammar</p> <p>knowing form</p> <p>knowing parts of speech</p>	<p>Seeing how words are used in real contexts</p>	
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Notes: Purple for how words were used and gray for guessing meanings from contexts

Table 3.7 An instance of how codes were derived

The next stage was to label themes. Theme refers to “a pattern in the information that at minimum describes and organizes the possible observations and at maximum interprets aspects of the phenomena” (Boyatzis, 1988, p.161). Codes were taken from the interview all the teachers gave. Which codes belonged to what teachers were identified too to make it easy when I wanted to trace back where I got the codes from (see Table 3.7 and 3.8). After identifying the codes obtained from the whole data, the codes were categorised to create sub-themes/sub-categories and themes/categories. In my study, themes were similar to the main idea that would cover all my codes. The examples of themes and subthemes of PRI were shown in Appendix J, and of POI in Appendix Y and Z. Stage four was to review themes by checking if they were relevant to coded extracts and the entire data set. Next, after codes, sub-themes, and themes were obtained, definitions of themes were defined. Codes, sub-themes, and themes were sifted through many times to be certain of the consistency and accuracy. An example of codes, sub-themes, and themes of PRI was shown in Table 3.8 below.

Questions: How should vocabulary be taught at university level?			
Codes	Sub-theme	Themes/ Categories	Definitions of themes
Focus on vocabulary learning strategies (T1)	Vocabulary learning strategies	How vocabulary should be taught at a university level	Teachers perspectives on how vocabulary should be taught at a university
Especially using context clues (T1)			should be taught at a university

Find context clues and understand parts of speech (T5)			level; for instance, how should students learn vocabulary at this level?, should vocabulary be taught in classes? and reasons why vocabulary should or should not be incorporated in classroom practices
Self-study to develop their vocabulary knowledge (T2)	Self-study		
Students should be responsible for themselves (T1, T2, T3, T4)			
Recommend students sources they can learn vocabulary from (T4)	Recommending sources		
With time limitation, it is impossible to emphasize on vocabulary in classroom. (T1)	Reason why self-study		
It is difficult to foster vocabulary in classroom due to time limitation in classroom. (T2)			

Table 3.8 Example of identifications of codes, sub-themes and themes of PRI

After that, another teacher of English was asked to read to confirm codes, sub-themes, and themes. To obtain reliability of the semi-structured interview data, a Thai lecturer of English with an academic title of Assistant Professor and a degree in Applied Linguistics was asked to read the transcriptions of two out of five teachers. The transcripts of the two randomly selected teachers were arranged based on the interview questions. The codes, sub-themes, and themes and were refined by myself (see Table 3.9 and Appendix L), and their definitions were initially shown to the inter-rater (Appendix K). The teacher was then asked to check if she agreed on the same codes, sub-themes, and themes (Appendix K). Then she was asked to identify units of analysis (blocks or strings of text for a particular code) throughout the two teachers' transcripts.

Teachers	Responses	Units of Analysis
Interview question	To what extent can vocabulary be acquired through reading? Why?	
T1	1.1 Words appear in reading passages/... 1.1 ...learn from, learn vocabulary in real contexts./ Students will	4

	<p>1.1</p> <p>know how words are used in a real context./ For instance, if I teach only for example vocabulary about cooking, fry, this, that, bake, steam, students do not know how to use them, but if there is a text available, students can learn about how to make boiled eggs something like that. /</p> <p>Most of the time, I always translate from English into Thai. Students see words in contexts. I translate sentences and ask them to guess what it means. Students do not major in English. If I use only English, they won't understand.</p>	
T2	<p>1.1</p> <p>I ask students to see the position where words appear and ask them to tell me what function of the word is. / Contexts</p> <p>1.2</p> <p>provide meanings only to a certain degree but not always. /</p> <p>1.2</p> <p>Students cannot really guess correct meanings. /</p> <p>1.2</p> <p>They don't know most of the words/, and I don't want to tell them meanings in Thai, so I normally ask them to self-study or look up for words by themselves.</p>	4

Notes: 1.1 and 1.2 for numbers of the subthemes where the unit of analysis should belong to (Appendix K).

Table 3.9 Example of how I identify units of analysis

Subsequently, the inter-rater and I compared the units of analysis to see if they were reproduced similarly or differently (Appendix M). The next step was to discuss the ways to solve the unitisation problems (Krippendorff, 1995) occurring as a result of different interpretations of texts or units of analysis between us. Identifying units of analysis allowed us to check if we agreed on the same codes and subthemes. It also enabled us to check which extracts could be included in the finding chapter and which extracts could be left out if they were not actually

relevant. After negotiating for the coding agreement and the best attempts to reconcile the differences, the final step was to find the inter-rater reliability by simply calculating the percentage of agreement among the two raters. Table 3.10 shows an example of identifying units of analysis (see Appendix J).

Q: How should vocabulary be taught at university level?					
T	Response (Quotations)	Codes	Subthemes	My units of analysis	The other's units of analysis
T1	At this level, teachers should focus on vocabulary learning strategies, especially using context clues,/ but most students are weak at English, so I always have to use Thai translation to explain meanings./ With time limitation, it is impossible to emphasize on vocabulary in classroom./	Vocabulary learning strategies Time limitation	Vocabulary learning strategies Reason why self-study	3	3
T2	Students are supposed to self-study to develop their vocabulary knowledge./ It is difficult for me to foster vocabulary in classroom due to time limitation in classroom./	Self-study Time limitation	Self-study Reason why self-study	2	2
T3	At a university level, students should be responsible for themselves,/ so they should look up for unknown words in a dictionary by themselves./ They should be able to use technology such as search engine to search for words, pictures, and some other details/ to help them better understand the concepts of the words./	Self-study	Self-study Reason why self-study	4	3

Notes: /.../ for a unit of analysis

Table 3.10 An example of identifying units of analysis.

There were two prime reasons why the simple statistic of percentage was employed to calculate the codes agreement in the current study. First, this was an exploratory study which included only five participating teachers. It is argued by Kurasaki (2000) that the simple proportion agreement method which is mentioned by Morrissey (1974) to refer to the percentage of agreement among the raters is acceptable. The proportion agreement is not concerned with the possibility that raters might agree occasionally or by chance (Bernard, 2000). This suggested that I could use the statistics applicable to the circumstances. Second, the purpose of the study was not to generate variables to be used in statistical analysis. The codes were not so plenty and various that it was necessary to calculate with complicated statistics.

To calculate the inter-rater reliability, this study employed percentages to find the agreement rate. First, after the units of analysis were identified by us, all the units of analysis of a particular theme were counted and the different numbers of units of analysis minus. The results of all the deducted units of analysis of all the themes were added and calculated to find the percentage. Table 3.11 shows the agreement rate of PRI was 88.33%.

Themes	Units of analysis	The same counted units of analysis by two raters
Vocabulary learning through reading	18	16
Stages of teaching	12	9
Teaching techniques	9	9
Aspects of words	14	12
Significance of words	4	4
Vocabulary teaching at a university level	3	3
Total	60	53
		= 88.33%

Table 3.11 The agreement rate of PRI

Finally, a report of the analysis was produced based on the themes emerging from the data which were categorised into three main themes of 1) pedagogical knowledge (vocabulary learning through reading, stages of teaching and teaching techniques), word knowledge (aspects

of words) and important roles of vocabulary (significance of words and vocabulary teaching at a university level).

3.11.3 Discourse analysis for observation data

The observation data were first approached and categorised according to the themes emerged from the interview data (PRI) which allowed me to find the relevance between these two sources of data concerning teachers' beliefs and practices. Then the analysis of the video-recorded data was interpreted using the main framework of SCT (section 2.7) and vocabulary instruction (section 2.3.2). The observation of Flanders' coding schedule was not employed as it did not describe all of the classroom activity (Amatari, 2015).

All the video recordings were first analysed by breaking them into different vocabulary teaching techniques and then aspects of words emphasised (Appendix for P for lesson descriptions). In each lesson, greetings and small talk at the beginning of the lesson were excluded from the analysis. The time for vocabulary teaching was noted in the observation notes (Appendix O). Therefore, the observation data were analysed qualitatively by combining themes emerging from the interview, vocabulary teaching, and SCT.

After the last class of observation, the data were transcribed (Appendix S for transcription convention) and analysed using a classroom discourse analysis. Discourse Analysis is the study of spoken or written texts (Gee, 2005, Li and Walsh, 2011). This combination of macro and micro analytical approach considers the language used for a variety of functions and interprets data according to contexts and purposes (Baxter, 2010). This study did not intend to uncover every detail of interaction; therefore, a micro-analysis of conversation analysis was not employed. The main aim of the analysis was to examine how teachers interacted with students in order to understand what aspects of vocabulary teachers emphasised and how teachers explained vocabulary to students and to compare what and how they taught pre- and post-DRs.

As it was impossible to present all the data, only selected classroom observation data was presented. The classroom data presented in section 4.2 were transcribed from the first five to ten minutes (not over fifteen minutes) of vocabulary teaching. This meant the small talk at the beginning of the lesson was excluded. The data were transcribed when the teacher began teaching vocabulary. The rest of the lesson was not included because the teaching technique or teaching procedures and explanations relating to aspects of word knowledge were almost the same to other target words. Generally, individual teachers' first lesson and their progression or

shift in practice after participating in DR sessions were chosen to be presented because teacher change was the primary focus of the study. The observation data was analysed, guided by the themes obtained from the PRI, in order to examine the practice relating to vocabulary instruction through reading. The details of how classroom observation data of each teacher was chosen will be explained in greater details in section 4.3.

The video recordings were first analysed based on the vocabulary teaching techniques (VTT) with the help of the observation notes. Only some VTT of each teacher were used as examples for the practice before and after DR (section 4.4). These VDO examples were chosen based on their contents which clearly illustrated the themes. Generally, the first lessons before participating in DR sessions were presented and followed by the lessons after DRs in order to compare changes in their instructional practices. Only selected VDO recordings of VTT were transcribed and then translated from Thai into English, focusing on what techniques were employed, what vocabulary knowledge taught, time spent in vocabulary teaching and interactions between teachers and students while learning vocabulary. The observation data presented were taken from the first five to ten minutes of the beginning of vocabulary teaching to illustrate how vocabulary was taught. The other skills of reading and writing were not included as the focus was only on vocabulary skills. Moreover, the data regarding vocabulary teaching (section 4.3) was selected in order to avoid the repetition of the common techniques the teachers used. Three main themes of observation found relevant to the interview data were presented in Table 3.12.

Semi-structured interview data concerning beliefs about	Observation data concerning practices relating to
1 Pedagogical knowledge	1 Pedagogical knowledge
2 Word knowledge	2 Word knowledge
3 Important roles of vocabulary teaching	3 Emphasis of vocabulary teaching

Table 3.12 Themes of interview and observation data

The observation data were presented according to the themes and then analysed based on discourse analysis framework, SCT and literature of vocabulary teaching (section 2.3.2). Therefore, it was noteworthy that only specific aspects relevant to vocabulary teaching were shown in the findings.

3.12 Trustworthiness

A number of strategies were utilised to ensure the validity and reliability of the research findings. While validity or trustworthiness refers to the accuracy of the data collection method or data analysis method, reliability means repeatability of data collection method/ data analysis method (Cohen *et al.*, 2013). Validity ensures that the data or methods are trustable or able to reflect the truth (Hammersley, 1990), and reliability ensures that if a study is replicated, the results will be the same (Leung, 2015).

Two main types of validity are related to the study: internal and external validity. According to Cohen *et al.* (2011), internal validity means “the findings must describe accurately the phenomena being researched” (p. 183) whereas external validity or generalisability refers to “the degree to which the results can be generalized to the wider population, cases, settings, times or situations” in a similar circumstance (p. 186).

Instead of using the terms validity and reliabilities which have been argued by many scholars in terms of its different characteristics from quantitative research which is able to generate consistent results and generalisability. A new term of trustworthiness is proposed by Guba and Lincoln (2005) to emphasise qualitative research which is rich in data and subjective depending on different participants and contexts. Trustworthiness is therefore employed to raise the quality of qualitative research.

Trustworthiness refers to “that quality of an investigation (and its findings) that made it noteworthy to audiences” (Schwandt, 2001, p. 258). Trustworthiness includes four concepts of credibility, transferability, dependability, and conformability. Credibility for internal validity, transferability for external validity, dependability for reliability and confirmability for objectivity are used in qualitative studies (Shkedi, 2005; Dörnyei, 2007).

To ensure trustworthiness, triangulation for credibility or internal validity and back translation to examine external validity were employed below (Inter-rater which was used for dependability (reliability), and confirmability (objectivity) was described in section 3.11.2).

3.12.1 Triangulation

Triangulation is defined as the combination of several methods or sources of data in a study (Berg and Lune, 2011). In this study, triangulation which involves the use of a wide range of

methods to confirm validity, different methods were used to investigate teachers' beliefs and practice including PRI, classroom observation and POI .

According to Guba (1990) and Brewer and Hunter (1989), the employment of different methods compensates for the limitations of other methods. Using different methods allowed me to exploit the benefits of certain methods whilst overcoming limitations, and at the same time, it was a method which increased the credibility of qualitative research. Particularly, in this present study, the interviews along with the observation were used to confirm the accuracy of the data concerning their prior beliefs and changes in their beliefs after participating in DR sessions. Drawing on only the interview data of pre- and post-DRs might not be very reliable. The observation before DR could reflect their initial beliefs and regular observation after DRs allowed me to explore whether DRs really influence their practices. The observation data, thus, enabled me to gain a clearer understanding of the setting and teachers being studied, too.

Besides triangulation, the following technique was employed to check out the accuracy of the data.

3.12.2 Back translation

Back translation involves the process of translating a text into the target language (from Thai into English) and then flipping back the translation of a text into the source language (in this case from English into Thai). Back translation was used to compare or contrast the translation with the source language; therefore, it was useful as a means to assess the accuracy of the data or research tools, especially cross-language methodology (Chidlow *et al.*, 2014).

In this current research, a Thai university teacher of English was asked to do the back translation from English into Thai. Then the English and Thai versions were compared to the Thai transcription. The translation and back translation were conceptually equivalent; however, there were some differences—pronouns, time expressions, and formality of language. Important to note in relation to pronouns, there are many pronouns in Thai used to address people. For instance, in the Thai transcriptions, a subject pronoun “Dtua-eng” was used to refer to the subject “I”; however, “Chan” was used in the back translation version. In terms of the formality of the language, the language the teachers used in the interview in Thai transcriptions and back translation version were spoken dialogues; but the degree of politeness was slightly higher in the latter one. For example, a teacher said “por” (when) instead of “mue” (when) or “mhuen

tee pood pai” in the source data and “jak tee dai klaw wai laew” in the back translation version to refer to “as mentioned earlier”. Table 3.13 shows an example of back translation (Appendix D).

Questions	Transcripts (Thai version)	Back translation (English to Thai)	Differences between the Thai transcripts and back translation
1. Pedagogical knowledge (How to teach)			
1. Do you normally teach vocabulary in reading lessons?	ใช่	ใช่	
1.1 To what extent can vocabulary be acquired through reading? Why?	<p>คำศัพท์ปรากฏในเนื้อเรื่อง ที่อ่าน...</p> <p>...เรียนรู้จาก เรียนรู้ คำศัพท์ในบริบทจริง นักเรียนจะได้ทราบวิธีใช้ คำในบริบทที่แท้จริง ตัวอย่างเช่น หากสอน เพียง เช่น คำศัพท์เกี่ยวกับ การทำอาหาร การทอด อบ นึ่ง นักเรียนจะไม่ สามารถทราบวิธีการใช้ ศัพท์ แต่หากมีข้อความ ประกอบอยู่ด้วย นักเรียน จะสามารถเรียนรู้คำศัพท์ จากวิธีการทำไข่ต้ม ประมาณนี้</p> <p>ส่วนมากก็จะแปลจาก ภาษาอังกฤษเป็น</p>	<p>คำศัพท์ปรากฏในเนื้อเรื่อง ที่อ่าน...</p> <p>...เรียนรู้จาก เรียนรู้ คำศัพท์ในบริบทจริง นักเรียนจะได้ทราบวิธีใช้ คำในบริบทที่แท้จริง ตัวอย่างเช่น หากสอน เพียง เช่น คำศัพท์เกี่ยวกับ การทำอาหาร การทอด อบ นึ่ง นักเรียนจะไม่ สามารถทราบวิธีการใช้ ศัพท์ แต่หากมีข้อความ ประกอบอยู่ด้วย นักเรียน จะสามารถเรียนรู้คำศัพท์ จากวิธีการทำไข่ต้ม ประมาณนั้น</p> <p>ส่วนมากฉันจะแปลจาก ภาษาอังกฤษเป็น</p>	<p>The degree of politeness in the back translation is higher than the Thai transcripts.</p> <p>The first example of the differences is the use of a subject pronoun, <i>ฉัน</i> (I) instead of omitted pronouns or <i>ตัวเอง</i> (I) and the use of object pronoun, <i>เค้า</i> (them) instead of <i>พวกเขา</i> (them).</p> <p>Another example of differences is the use of adverb expression, <i>พอ</i> (when) instead of <i>เมื่อ</i> (when).</p>

	ภาษาไทย พอนักเรียนเห็น คำในบริบท ตัวเองจะแปล ประโยคและขอให้ นักเรียนเดาว่ามัน หมายความว่าอะไร	ภาษาไทย เมื่อนักเรียน เห็นคำศัพท์ในบริบท มัน จะแปลประโยคและขอให้ พวกเขาเดาว่ามันหมายถึง อะไร	
	นักเรียนไม่ได้เออ ภาษาอังกฤษ หากใช้ เฉพาะภาษาอังกฤษเค้า อาจไม่เข้าใจ	นักเรียนไม่ได้เออ ภาษาอังกฤษ หากใช้ เฉพาะภาษาอังกฤษพวก เขาจะไม่เข้าใจ	

Table 3.13 Example of back translation (from English into Thai)

3.13 Ethical considerations

The ethical issues related to the present study involved 1) privacy and anonymity, 2) confidentiality and 3) informed consent. Privacy and anonymity were guaranteed. Participants' privacy was considered highly significant. The participants' right of privacy was respected; therefore, their refusal to respond to any questions or withdrawal from the study could be done without explanations (Dörnyei, 2007). Anonymities were used with the teachers and students who participated throughout the research to ensure that participants' information was not identified (w Creswell, 2009). Not only individual's information but also the institution's details were not revealed. However, there was no anonymity in some of the data observation within the DR group.

Secondly, confidentiality was taken into consideration. All the teacher participants could expect that their information was kept confidential. The guarantee of confidentiality was fully carried out through the study, and participants could feel secure that their personal information or intimate data was kept unidentified or untraceable (Dörnyei, 2007). Moreover, after the completion of the research, all the data was destroyed to prevent the abuse of the data.

Thirdly, the information about the study was provided carefully both verbally and non-verbally. Before conducting the study, teachers and the students of the teacher participants were verbally informed about the study. A consent letter for teachers (Appendix A) and information sheet (Appendix C) were sent to the teacher to ask for permission to observe classes and for cooperation in the PRI, POI and DR part before the beginning of the study. All teachers were

informed about the objectives, procedures and how the data would be used before taking part in the study as it was essential for all the teachers to be informed about the tasks they were expected to perform during the study, the confidentiality, and the right to withdraw from the study at any point (Dörnyei, 2007). All students taking classes with those teacher participants were approached for permission for classroom observation before the first observation (Appendix A for information sheet and Appendix B for consent form) and permission was given by all the students.

3.14 Summary

The aim of this chapter is to provide information on the rationale behind choosing the interpretive research paradigm and a qualitative research approach and for conducting a case study. Rationale for the data collection methods, the process of data analysis and trustworthiness used to investigate whether there would be any changes in teachers' beliefs and practices relating to vocabulary instruction were discussed. In the next chapter the findings of this study are presented.

Chapter 4. Findings

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of this study. The presentation of the findings is organised with reference to the research questions of this study: Thai university English teachers' beliefs regarding vocabulary teaching before and after participating in DRs (section 4.2), and their practices before and after participating in DRs (section 4.3).

4.2 Beliefs regarding vocabulary teaching through reading before and after DR¹

In response to the first research question: How did dialogic reflection influence teachers' beliefs relating to vocabulary teaching through reading pre-and post- reflective practice?. PRI was the main data for beliefs before the beginning of participating in DRs and POI provided data concerning their beliefs after DRs.

In this section, examples and excerpts from the interviews were provided on the basis of their relevance to the themes emerging from the data. In terms of examples and excerpts used, mostly, all responses were presented, however, in a few cases of similar responses, great attention was paid to choosing statements that were representative of the rest of the group. In addition, these selections were made from those that clearly addressed the themes discussed and if the statements were very long, the most relevant section was cut and presented. Moreover, data were not presented one by one (individually). Instead, a holistic approach was used to present the data in order to avoid the repetition of the data.

The findings were based on three themes generated from the interview data of teachers' beliefs in relation to teaching vocabulary in reading: 1) pedagogical knowledge, 2) word knowledge, and 3) important roles of vocabulary.

¹ Before teachers participated in DR session 1 and after DR session 1

4.2.1 Beliefs on pedagogical knowledge pre- and post- DRs

This section involves three aspects of their beliefs on 1) vocabulary learning through reading, 2) stages of vocabulary teaching and 3) vocabulary teaching techniques.

Vocabulary learning through reading

Analysing data shows that teachers fully understood the role of vocabulary in language learning, and they were aware of the interrelated roles of vocabulary and reading. Before DRs, PRI data indicated the teachers held similar beliefs in relation to vocabulary learning through context (T1-T5). Specifically, the data revealed their positive beliefs about learning vocabulary through contexts and their awareness of its limitations.

The following excerpts are three teachers' answers to the question, "To what extent can vocabulary be acquired through reading?".

Excerpt 4.1

Words appear in reading passages. Students can learn vocabulary in real contexts. Students will know how words are used in a real context. For instance, if I teach only for example vocabulary about cooking, fry, bake, steam, students do not know how to use them. But if there is a context available, students can learn the target words from how to make boiled eggs something like this. (T1, PRI 1)

Excerpt 4.2

I agree that vocabulary can be learned through reading because I learn vocabulary that way. Contexts guide meanings. One word has many meanings and the context tells what the word means, tells how it is used, tells which function of the word is or tells how to use it. (T4, PRI 2)

Excerpt 4.3

Reading is good as it provides words and contexts. I always highlight two aspects from contexts. One is about grammar, and the other is about meanings. ... Parts of speech are acquired by looking at the surrounding structures, and meanings can be uncovered by looking at the surrounding words. (T5, PRI 3)

The excerpts above share similar responses that contexts allowed students to learn meanings ('Contexts guide meanings. One word has many meanings and the context tells what the word means' (T4) and 'looking at the surrounding words' (T5)), parts of speech ('looking at the surrounding structures' (T5)), and use ('how words are used in a real context' (T1) and 'how it

is used' (T4)). The findings show that the teachers were aware that reading is one major source of vocabulary knowledge.

The data indicates that teachers' learning experience ('I learn vocabulary that way' (T4)) has formed teachers' beliefs that meanings of vocabulary can be acquired in reading. The data suggests that teachers' beliefs are constructed through what has been passed on from their teachers who have more experiences when they were students and it helps form their beliefs relating to what was essential for language learning. After the teachers were internalised or completely understood, their beliefs were gradually formed this way.

Apart from its advantages, two teachers (T2 and T3) were more aware of its limitations than advantages. As T2 stated, "I quite agree that vocabulary can be learned through contexts. However, contexts provide meanings only at a certain degree. If students do not know the meanings of other words, they may guess the wrong meanings" (T2, *PRI 4*). With a similar argument, T3 held that "... Meaning can be guessed from contexts, but I know that my students do not know surrounding words." (T3, *PRI 5*).

The findings seem to indicate that T2 and T3 agreed that contexts provided concepts of meanings; however, without sufficient knowledge of words surrounding, it is possible that students might not learn the correct meanings of the target words. ('If students do not know the meanings of other words, they may guess wrong meanings' (T2) and 'I know that my students do not know surrounding words' (T3)). The data shows that teachers were aware that students' poor English proficiency could obstruct them to guess meanings in context accurately. Apparently, the findings show that teachers' teaching experience plays an influential role in teachers' belief. In other words, teachers have learned from their teaching experience that low proficiency students could not learn vocabulary effectively from mainly relying on inferring meanings from contexts and this belief has gradually and eventually become their belief development.

Therefore, it can be seen that even though all teachers appreciate the advantages of contexts facilitating vocabulary learning, their learning and teaching experience of students' low proficiency have influenced their beliefs.

Understanding their beliefs regarding vocabulary learning through reading shows their stance either on implicit or explicit approach. The following presents teachers' beliefs when vocabulary should be introduced in a reading lesson.

Stages of vocabulary teaching

Prior DRs, all of them agreed that vocabulary should be introduced at a pre-reading stage for two main reasons. Primarily, vocabulary exercises were presented at the beginning of the chapters of the textbooks (T3 and T5). As T5 stated, “Following sequences in the book, it (the book) begins with pre-reading.” (PRI 6). T3 echoed T5. In her words;

Excerpt 4.4

I followed what the book provided. I teach following the exact sequence in the book. Preliminary, students need to know vocabulary in the text, so I teach vocabulary before reading. (T3, PRI 7)

As shown in T5 and T3’s excerpts above, the findings indicate that the textbook influences T3 and T5’s teaching beliefs (‘vocabulary exercises were presented at the beginning’ (T3) and ‘Following sequences of the book’ (T5)). The data seems to suggest that their beliefs are formed through their teaching experience. Teachers appropriate cultural artefacts of the main textbook in particular which influences their belief construction (Lantolf, 2004; Vygotsky, 1987). Thus, what teachers have found practical in their teaching through their teaching life experience influences their pedagogical beliefs.

Unlike T3 and T5 whose beliefs concerning the relationship between reading and vocabulary, T1, T2, and T4 revealed their underlying belief. These three teachers were aware that knowing the meanings of words before reading facilitates reading comprehension. T2 clearly explained, “Knowing words is the beginning and basis of every skill” (T2, PRI 8).

The following excerpts (4.5 and 4.6) show T1’s and T4’s beliefs regarding this aspect.

Excerpt 4.5

I asked other teachers, and they said vocabulary should be introduced at the beginning, so students know the meanings of words. (T1, PRI 9)

Excerpt 4.5 shows that T1 seems uncertain about her beliefs in relation to when vocabulary should be instructed (‘I asked other teachers’ (T1)). However, the findings clearly indicate that sharing teaching experience by more experienced teachers guides her about how to teach. Thus, T1’s beliefs are influenced by her interaction with more experienced teachers (Yuan and Lee, 2014). Through interaction with peers, teachers can experience or appropriate various artefacts culturally and socially and eventually construct their beliefs within a specific setting.

Excerpt 4.6

Personally, I want to have students read the passage immediately, but as the book shows, I teach vocabulary first because I think knowing words will help students better comprehend the passage” (T4, PRI 10).

Excerpt 4.6 shows that even though T4 views that vocabulary can be learned while reading, her teaching experience with students (*‘knowing words will help students better comprehend the passage’*) and the influence of the textbook (*‘as the book shows’* (T4)) as one of influential cultural artefacts in school context might be very influential factors forming her belief.

Clearly, the findings show teachers’ beliefs about pre-teaching of vocabulary prior reading as a result of cultural artefacts of textbooks (T3 and T5) and facilitating reading comprehension (T2 and T4). The results also indicated that teaching experience (T2-T5) and interaction with peers (T1) influenced their beliefs. As a result, the data seem to suggest that various artefacts (books, instructional experience, and social interaction) impact on teachers’ beliefs in explicit instruction that vocabulary should be introduced prior to reading skills.

The previous section deals with when vocabulary should be introduced. The following section presents their pedagogical beliefs on how vocabulary should be taught.

Vocabulary teaching techniques

Before DRs, the PRI data shows a limited range of teaching techniques in which individual teachers held both similar and different beliefs. Only four main techniques of vocabulary teaching techniques emerged from the data. These were L1 translation, activities² and visual literacy³ and inferring meanings from contexts.

T1, T3, and T4 reported the use of L1 (Thai) translation in teaching vocabulary. They reasoned that L1 translation was essential when teaching vocabulary to students with low proficiency. As T1 simply put it, “... Students do not major in English. If I use only English, they won’t understand” (PRI 11). T4 echoed that “It (L1 translation) helps confirm students’ understanding of word meanings. Some students who are not very good at English can understand the

² Activities in the present study refer to any type of teaching and learning which is not in a form of teacher lecturing students, such as games, tasks, presentation, and so on.

³ T3’s meaning of visual literacy refers to creating images in the mind while reading.

meanings of words correctly” (PRI 12). T3 gave an example to support this point, “Once students said a material was พัสดุ (p^ha:tsa:d^hu) (translation: parcel) not วัสดุ (wa:tsa:d^hu) (translation: material). If I didn’t ask them to translate its definition, I wouldn’t know they misunderstood this word.” (PRI 13).

The data show teachers’ beliefs that knowledge is best mediated through L1 (Thai). As seen in ‘If I don’t ask them to translate its definition, I cannot know whether they misunderstand this word’ (T3) and ‘If I use only English, they won’t understand’ (T1). The data suggest that teachers’ provision of L1 translation is considered appropriate in their opinions as they know students need assistance or L2 definitions are too difficult for students to achieve the meanings by themselves which beyond their level of actual competence. Thus, through L1 translation, teachers believe it could be a scaffolding for students to achieve vocabulary learning.

Second, the PRI data show that T1 and T2 believed in learning vocabulary through a variety of teaching and learning activities. T1 and T2 agreed on the advantages of implementing activities instead of a traditional teaching technique of lecturing as shown in the following excerpts.

Excerpt 4.7

On my mind, I want to teach words before reading (instead of skipping this skill) but I have never planned any activities. There might be activities that are more interesting than matching words and definitions, such as using word cards or showing word cards and have students guess meanings, but I have never done anything yet. (T1, PRI 14)

Excerpt 4.8

I teach vocabulary through activities. For example, I have them play a vocabulary game at the beginning. I want students to have fun before getting into something stressing like reading the passage immediately. If I have them read it straight away, it will be too stressful. (T2, PRI 15)

The results indicate that T1 and T2 believed in the positive attitude towards vocabulary teaching activities before reading. The findings suggest that their belief might be socially and culturally influenced (Cabaroglu and Roberts, 2000; Chacon, 2005; Flores and Day, 2006) on teachers who have learned that Thai people prefer the concept of fun which has been embedded in Thai culture (Holmes *et al.*, 1995) (‘I want to teach words before reading (instead of skipping this skill) There might be activities that are more interesting than matching ...’ (T1) and ‘I want students to have fun before getting into something stressing like reading the passage immediately. If I have them read it straight away, it will be too stressful.’ (T2). It might be possible to interpret that these two teachers believe that the feelings of fun will motivate

students to pay attention to what they are learning, too (Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Jaihaw, 2011; Daskalovska *et al.*, 2012). Thus, culture might be an indicator forming their beliefs.

Thirdly, the PRI data revealed that T3 believed in the effectiveness of the visual literacy concept. T3 stated,

Excerpt 4.9

What I want to do is not like this (following exercises in the book). I want to try. I am not sure if I can do it. With time limitation and burden, it may obstruct me. What I want to do is to have students relate what they read with pictures. I want to emphasise visualisation. I think visualising aids memory. Visualising activates all senses of learners. (T3, PRI 16)

Data seems to reflect her belief that without explicit teaching of vocabulary, students can unconsciously remember meanings of vocabulary from the images created in their mind whilst reading ('visualising aids memory' (T3)). Moreover, even though she has strong beliefs in the effectiveness of visualisation techniques, time constraint may obstruct her implementation of this technique ('With time limitation and burden, it may obstruct me' (T3)). Therefore, teachers' beliefs are conceptualised through prior experiences based on or mediated by "the normative ways of thinking, talking, and acting" (Johnson, 2009, p.17) that is socially and culturally embedded by school contexts.

Unlike other teachers, the findings suggested that T5 was the only teacher who strongly believed in the use of a three-column table (answers, keywords and parts of speech) to strengthen students' skill of guessing meanings through contexts. Excerpt 4.10 provided a picture of how T5 explained why he promoted a technique of guessing meanings from contexts.

Excerpt 4.10

Guessing meanings from contexts and identifying parts of speech are promoted the most. They are essential skills students need to help them understand reading passages. I think that being able to guess the right answers can lead students to guess meanings (in a reading passage) at a certain degree. (T5, PRI 17)

The findings show T5's beliefs that what students should learn is vocabulary learning strategy of guessing meanings from contexts which will enable students for life-long learning ('...essential skills students need to help them understand reading passages.' (T5)). The data suggest that having students find keywords to guess meanings from contexts was a technique T5 provided to scaffold students to be able to read a passage successfully. Therefore, T5

believed that through the frequent practice of this vocabulary learning strategy, students would be able to apply this ability to deal with reading in subsequent time.

Therefore, the data seems to indicate that these five participants hold different beliefs regarding vocabulary teaching techniques. These beliefs seem to be constructed based on their students' English proficiency (the deployment of L1 translation to guide meanings of contexts (T1, T3, and T4)), preferred teaching styles (the utilisation of three-column tables (T5)) and positive attitudes to create learning motivation (the employment of activities through group work (T1 and T2)). The data suggest that teachers' beliefs can be influenced by their social and cultural experiences embedded within school contexts, and the techniques these teachers believed they were suitable for their students could scaffold students to achieve reading comprehension.

The analysis of POI data reveals some changes in teachers' beliefs regarding pedagogical knowledge after attending DRs. While their beliefs on learning vocabulary through reading and when vocabulary should be taught remain the same, the findings show changes regarding vocabulary teaching techniques and different changes varied from teachers to teachers.

The first type of change was *to increase their awareness of current practices*. The findings indicate that two teachers (T3 and T5) were more aware of their beliefs in their currently used vocabulary teaching techniques. Excerpt 4.11 illustrated T3's comments in this regard.

Excerpt 4.11 T3's subsequent beliefs relating to vocabulary teaching practice

It (DR) makes me know what I did.... It makes me know what I lack or makes me realise what I did or how I did. ... Before I thought the translation should be the best strategy. It appears that it is the way teachers work the least. ...whenever there is only translation (no use of other techniques), it is like teachers do not spend enough time preparing. ... I don't do anything challenging. Unlike T4, she challenges students. (T3, POI 1)

It appears that participating in dialogic reflection sessions could enhance T3's awareness of current practice ('... makes me know what I did ...what I lack or makes me realize what I did or how I did..' (T3)). Moreover, hearing about how her peers taught increased her awareness through comparing her technique with others' ('... unlike T4, she challenges students' (T3)). The data clearly suggests that sharing with peers created opportunities for teachers to listen to how other teachers taught, to think about their own practice, to compare their practices and others' and eventually lead to awareness and adjustment of current beliefs. Thus knowledge

emerges through sharing in interaction or teachers' awareness occurs as a result of mediation through interaction among peers.

With a similar argument, T5 expressed,

Excerpt 4.12 Subsequent beliefs on vocabulary teaching techniques

If you ask me what changes, I think it makes me suddenly realise if what I am doing is good. ... From this point, it makes me suddenly realise my table (three-column table of answers, parts of speech and keywords) might not be the best, so I want to change. ... if you ask whether my belief changes, it does because I am curious whether what I have done is good or not. (T5, POI 2)

Excerpt 4.12 shows that his *awareness was increased* (*I think it makes me suddenly realise if what I am doing is good*' T5) and it seems that the realisation in his current practice influences on his change in beliefs (*'... if you ask whether my belief changes, it does because I am curious whether what I have done is good or not.'* (T5). The findings seem to suggest that reflecting on and sharing teaching techniques and experiences in DR sessions could increase the awareness of his current practice which eventually leads him to change his beliefs. This belief change is operationalised but appears to take time. Accordingly, the data suggests that through scaffolding of dialogic mediation between more and less experienced peers, teachers experience or appropriate cognitive learning which eventually allow them to reconstruct teachers' beliefs.

Apart from *increasing awareness* of current practice, the second change in belief emerged from the data is in relation to an increase in T4's *awareness of a variety of teaching techniques* which motivate students. POI data shows her desire to implement more techniques as she stated

Excerpt 4.13

It (participating in DRs) makes me want to use many more techniques and I want to try what other teachers have used whether they will work with my students. Actually, I know that there should be various activities. (T4, POI 3)

The findings show that there is an influence on her desire to implement other techniques after she has opportunities to learn from others (*'... I want to try what other teachers have used whether they will work with my students'* and *'I know that there should be various activities'* (T4)). The data suggest that dialogic reflection in which the teachers shared reflective practice with peers created opportunities for teachers to listen to and to learn how other teachers practiced, and at the same time how the majority of group members practiced influences or persuades T4 to believe that it is worth trying new techniques. Accordingly, the data suggest teachers' beliefs are influenced by their interaction with peers and what is practiced by most

people in the social context shows teachers how to teach which eventually influences their beliefs.

Her awareness of a variety of teaching techniques was confirmed by her employment of self-initiated technique of vocabulary gap-filling exercises. This vocabulary teaching technique was observed after DRs (see the details of this technique in section 4.3.1). Her use of gap-filling exercises to review vocabulary instead of her usual techniques of L1 translation, whiteboard and vocabulary exercises in the book reflects her awareness of a variety of teaching techniques.

The third type of change was *increasing confidence*. Belief change relating to the essence of wider vocabulary teaching repertoires was also shown in T3's confidence in her new technique of pictures, which boosted her beliefs in visualisation concept. T3 commented that "... When the others said it (pictures) was good, it confirms my idea that what I did (pictures) was good because others were interested." (POI 4). The data indicates that the acceptance of her ideas by others made her become more confident in, and aware of, using other teaching techniques besides L1 translation. In addition, it is worth noting that social interaction mediated through dialogic reflection promotes sharing with and being accepted by peers which influence belief change.

Apart from increasing of confidence in T3's beliefs, the POI data also shows T2's *increasing of confidence* in her beliefs regarding active learning. Similar to T3, T2 expresses that "It confirms what I have thought, but I am not certain if it is right. When some teachers taught that way, I know it is right." (POI, 5). Even though the data shows no change in T2's beliefs, the data seems to suggest that there was an increase of her confidence in her beliefs relating to vocabulary teaching technique. Thus, beliefs can be influenced and reconstructed through dialogic mediation of DRs.

Accordingly, teachers' beliefs relating to pedagogical knowledge involved three themes of vocabulary learning through reading, stages of vocabulary instructions and vocabulary teaching techniques. The findings indicated a limited understanding of beliefs regarding pedagogical knowledge pre-DRs; however, some changes in beliefs were reported post-DRs including awareness of current practices, awareness of a variety of teaching techniques and increasing of confidence.

The following section presents beliefs on word knowledge before and after DRs.

4.2.2 Beliefs on word knowledge pre- and post- DRs

Analysing the PRI data shows teachers' limited knowledge or teachers' partial understanding of what contains knowing a word according to Nation (2013) (see word knowledge in section 2.3.2). Before DRs, the PRI data indicates that a common view among all the teachers regarding knowing a word is minimally associated with two main aspects of meanings and parts of speech. Apart from these two aspects, other aspects of words were differently emphasised depending on individual teachers.

The first aspect of knowing a word is to know *L1 meanings or L2 definitions*. The PRI data shows that all teachers agree that meanings facilitated understanding of reading. The following are typical answers to this question, "What aspects of words do you introduce in reading lessons?". T1 stated, "Meanings are obviously the first thing coming to my mind. Students need to know meanings; otherwise, they can't learn anything. T2 echoed T1 that "I always focus on L1 meanings. Meanings are the basis of everything." (T2, PRI 18). T5 similarly replied, "Meanings are essential as the first aspect of knowledge of words students need to know. The data suggest that three teachers (T1, T2, and T5) were aware that meanings are fundamental ('basis of everything' (T2) and 'meanings are essential' (T5)), and meanings seem to be the primary aspect the teachers think of when talking about vocabulary. ('the first thing coming to my mind' (T1)). According to T3, "Knowing (meanings of) words can aid some comprehension" (T3, PRI 19). Similarly, T4 replied, "Vocabulary is important because meanings help students understand reading passages (T4, PRI 20). The findings indicate that T3 and T4 were aware of the close relationship between reading and vocabulary ('aid some comprehension' (T3) and 'help students understand reading passages' (T4)).

The second aspect all teachers emphasised was parts of speech. The data reveal teachers' beliefs that parts of speech could facilitate productive skills of vocabulary use. All five teachers shared similar responses. For instance, T2 stated, "I always ask students to say parts of speech... because students can use them correctly." (T2, PRI 21). With a similar reason, T5 mentioned that "Knowing parts of speech enables students to do the exercises accurately, and it enables them to use the words in the future." (T5, PRI 22). The findings reflect teachers' beliefs on productive skills as they believed that learning parts of speech fosters the use of words ('... students can use them correctly' (T2) and '... it enables them to use the words in the future' (T5)).

Apart from meanings and parts of speech, pronunciation is another aspect that four teachers emphasised (T1, T2, T3, and T4). Most of them agreed that pronunciation facilitated effective communication. The following excerpts reveal their beliefs regarding word knowledge.

Excerpt 4.14

I focus on the pronunciation of every word. I want students to stress words accurately, so they can communicate. (T1, PRI 23)

Excerpt 4.15

I don't have them repeat after me all the time. For example, I think one-syllable words are easy so there is no need to ask them to repeat after me. I just randomly ask some students to pronounce words. I always have them sit in groups, so I just ask Group A, how do you pronounce this word? (T2, PRI 24)

Excerpt 4.16

It was deep-rooted in my mind since I was young. The teacher did not understand when I mispronounced. (T3, PRI 25)

Excerpt 4.17

Knowing only meanings are not enough, students need to know pronunciation in order to communicate effectively. ... When I teach, I introduce pronunciation, but I emphasise only words that most Thais always mispronounce. (T4, PRI 26)

The findings show that four teachers agreed on the advantages of accurate pronunciation facilitating effective communication. The data indicate that their life experience as a language learner or schooling experience ('The teacher did not understand when I mispronounced' (T3)) and as a language teacher ('I emphasize only words that most Thais always mispronounce' (T4) and 'I want students to stress words accurately, so they can communicate' (T1)) have shaped their beliefs.

Unlike other teachers, the excerpt 4.18 shows T5's reasons for non-emphasis on pronunciation.

Excerpt 4.18

I do not really emphasise on pronunciation. I do not think it is the focus of this course. The focus is on reading and writing skills, so I don't focus on it except that most students really make mistakes on those words. (T5, PRI 27)

Excerpt 4.18 shows that the curriculum is the main influence of T5's beliefs regarding what aspects of word knowledge should be emphasised ('I do not think it is the focus of this course'

(T5)). Therefore, the data suggest that T5 appropriates cultural artefacts of course syllabus which plays an influential role in his belief construction.

Thus, data indicates that two main aspects of a word which are always emphasised by all five teachers as major word knowledge students should at least possess were meanings and parts of speech. All teachers seem to realise that meanings are fundamental and parts of speech or function of words guide the way words are used. The findings suggest that teachers' life experiences socially and culturally embedded through social context including their experience as practitioners in their own classroom and cultural artefacts of the syllabus and textbook influence on their beliefs construction relating to what word knowledge should be emphasised (Hepple, 2010).

As time went on, POI data displayed some changes in two teachers' beliefs, including spoken form (pronunciation) in T5 and use (using target words in sentence forming) in T1 and T5. The following excerpt shows T5's awareness and an addition of new beliefs of both pronunciation and use.

Excerpt 4.19

... Now I think I have learned something, for example, I should focus more on pronunciation. ... If I have a chance to do so, forming sentences is something that should be added, too. However, as soon as forming sentences is included, it is risky because it takes more time. If I have more time, I will do everything. (T5, POI 6)

The instance revealed that T5 was aware of the other aspect of knowing a word added to his belief pertaining to productive knowledge of vocabulary in communication (sentence writing) and pronunciation. The data suggest that sharing among peers facilitates changes in his beliefs. Hearing about peers' practices ('Now I think I have learned something') acts as a scaffolding which indirectly guides T5 what aspects of words can be added in a reading class. Furthermore, T5's new beliefs of appropriate or inappropriate teaching practices were shaped by sharing of other teachers' practices ('...for example, I should focus more on pronunciation' and 'forming sentences is something that should be added, too.' (T5)).

Accordingly, the data suggest that beliefs can be shifted through dialogic reflection. Through what was shared in the group, T5 appropriates various cultural artefacts influences his beliefs, and interaction shows T5 the possibilities to integrate an aspect of pronunciation and sentence forming in this reading and writing class. However, T5's teaching experience shaped his beliefs that it was difficult to integrate this aspect in class time due to time constraint ('As soon as

forming sentences is included, it is risky because it takes more time' (T5)). Hence, the data suggest that time as contextual experience shapes teachers' thinking.

Clearly, the data suggest that belief change varied across individual teachers. Only two teachers (T1 and T5) were found to shift in their beliefs relating to word knowledge which was reflected in their practice (section 4.3). The roles of participation and interaction in dialogic reflection are the main factor influencing changes in teachers' beliefs.

This previous section explained teachers' beliefs relating to word knowledge pre-post DRs. The following section describes their beliefs in relation to the important roles of vocabulary.

4.2.3 Beliefs on important roles of vocabulary teaching

Data analysis shows that teachers have some partial understanding of the emphasis of vocabulary teaching in a university context discussed by Hyso and Tabaki (2011), Schmitt (2008a) and Zhang (2008).

In relation to PRI data, all teachers argued that vocabulary teaching at a university level should not be emphasised much during a class time before DRs. Most teachers reported they spent about fifteen to thirty minutes on vocabulary instruction in three-hour lessons. As T4 stated, "I always spend about 15 minutes on vocabulary" (*PRI 28*). In T2's words, "I think I spend about half an hour on vocabulary" (*PRI 29*). Approximate time is reported by T5, "20-30 minutes is spent on vocabulary" (*PRI 30*). T1 and T3 could not respond but further explain that,

Excerpt 4.20

It is difficult to say how much time is emphasised in class. I always introduce meanings of words along the reading passage. However, one target word is always emphasised on meaning, pronunciation, and parts of speech which does not last longer than one or two minutes. (In one chapter, there are ten target words.) (T1, *PRI 31*)

Excerpt 4.21

I cannot say exactly how much time is spent on vocabulary teaching in class. However, one target word is always emphasised on meaning, pronunciation, and parts of speech. (T3, *PRI 32*)

The instances show teachers similarly shared their opinion that the amount of time is appropriate for vocabulary teaching in a reading lesson ('...one target word is always emphasised on meaning, pronunciation, and parts of speech which does not last longer than one or two minutes' (T1)).

Two main reasons were given to support their argument. Time constraint was the first major reason for the four teachers (T1, T2, T3, and T4). The excerpts below gave pictures of what opinions teachers gave on this regard.

Excerpt 4.22

With time limitation, it is impossible to concentrate on vocabulary in class. It should be the students' responsibility to self-study to gain this knowledge. (T1, PRI 33)

Excerpt 4.23

Students are supposed to self-study to develop their vocabulary knowledge. It is difficult to foster vocabulary in a classroom due to time limitation in a classroom. (T2, PRI 34)

Excerpt 4.24

At a university level, students should be responsible for themselves, so they should look up for unknown words in a dictionary by themselves. They should be able to use technology such as search engines to search for words, pictures, and some other details to help them better understand the concepts of the words. (T3, PRI 35)

Excerpt 4.25

Generally, I think we (teachers) recommend students sources they can learn vocabulary from. Sometimes we recommend which book can help students or where they can learn words. For example, if there is a word students do not know, I will tell them a source they can search for answers or what the keyword is. (T4, PRI 36)

The findings indicated that time limitation ('With time limitation, (T1), '... due to time limitation in classroom' (T2)) is the major reason influencing teachers to consider approximate thirty minutes was sufficient and appropriate as students were supposed to self-study vocabulary outside classes ('... It should be the students' responsibility to self-study...' (T1), '...students should be responsible for themselves (T3) and '... recommend students sources they can learn vocabulary from...' (T4)).

The second reason was a concern about students' unequal vocabulary knowledge (T5). In T5's words,

Excerpt 4.26

Students at this level have learned English for many years (they have different background knowledge of vocabulary learning), so I think I should teach them to be able to analyse contexts and understand parts of speech instead of emphasizing vocabulary. (T5, PRI 37)

The data suggests that T5 assume that university students know how to self-study vocabulary ('Students at this level have learned English for many years' (T5)) and due to the fact that the main skills of this course were reading and writing, class time should be spent in consolidating reading skills not vocabulary ('...able to analyse contexts and understand parts of speech instead of emphasising vocabulary' (T5)). Obviously, the life experience of school context concerning the course syllabus shapes T5's beliefs.

Even though their reasons might be different, what similarly shared among them seem to be their life experience which has shaped their beliefs. As teachers were language learners, this experience might have influenced them on what should be the best practice for university students ('...students should be responsible for themselves' (T3) and '... we (teachers) recommend students sources they can learn vocabulary from' (T4)). Moreover, their experience as teacher practitioners has shaped their beliefs that it was not practical to focus on vocabulary in class ('With time limitation, it is impossible to concentrate on vocabulary in class' (T1)), and it is difficult to foster vocabulary in the classroom due to time limitation' (T2)). Therefore, social and cultural artefacts teachers experience through their life have influenced teachers' beliefs in this regard.

However, as time went on, the POI data shows a shift in two teachers' beliefs relating to important roles of vocabulary (T1 and T3). Excerpt 4.27 illustrates T1's change in beliefs.

Excerpt 4.27

... I changed my beliefs from not to teach vocabulary. ...Normally, I teach grammar and writing. I just don't think that little time given on vocabulary teaching can foster vocabulary learning. I have never reviewed vocabulary because I don't think students can remember. Before I never use activities because I thought it wasted time... I just think that not much time given on vocabulary cannot help, and it should be students' duty to self-study. (T1, POI 7)

This example indicates that eventually, T1 *adopted a new belief* of explicit vocabulary instruction. The data seems to suggest that the greatest change in beliefs was observed in T1 ('I changed my beliefs from not to teach vocabulary' (T1)). The findings show the *reversal changes* from not to teach vocabulary to her emphasis on vocabulary teaching techniques ('Before I never use activities' (T1)) through her continuous employment of a variety of teaching techniques and the provision of multiple exposure through vocabulary revision (see her new practices of borrowing T3 and T4's teaching techniques and initiating techniques in section 4.3). Her practice shift confirms that her awareness of the significance of vocabulary teaching had changed. The findings also suggest that her pre-existing belief of students' low proficiency ('I have never reviewed vocabulary because I don't think students can remember' (T1)) influenced her ignorance of vocabulary revision, and it seems that her practice contradicted her thoughts because if students tend to forget words, revision is needed. Therefore, the data suggests that DRs initially enhance T1's awareness of her current beliefs and eventually reconstruct her subsequent beliefs as she could learn and implement new vocabulary teaching techniques. The POI data confirms her shift in beliefs which then influence her shift in practices.

However, the reasons why she began implementing new techniques may be *the need for contribution making*. In her words,

Excerpt 4.28

... you should not just receive from others, but you should also make some contributions... we all are here to share, it makes me think I have to do something. (T1, POI 8)

The data indicate that in T1's view, DRs should be a 'sharing' session in which teachers could both give and take ('...we all are here to share' (T1)). The data suggest that a social context in which teachers could have a conversation with peers is essential to foster 'affordance' (Mann and Walsh, 2017) and scaffolding (Vygotsky, 1978).

Another reason for her shift might be *her willingness to learn*. The data seems to suggest that T1's positive attitude toward professional development seems to lead her to change in beliefs that are reflected in her practices. She explained, "... I have to admit my weaknesses and open my mind in order to learn more and improve my teaching" (POI 9). Therefore, dialogic reflective practices among peers have formed a social context (learning group of DR) which offers an opportunity for T1 to learn and exchange new ideas.

Apart from T1, the POI data shows that T3’s *awareness of the emphasis of vocabulary instruction* had increased. She reported, “Normally I concentrate on only at a paragraph level” (T3, POI 10). The findings seem to suggest DRs enhance her awareness which eventually influences her belief change (see how teachers emphasised vocabulary in section 4.3.3). However, her explanation reveals that my question contributed to her triggering her change. As she stated,

Excerpt 4.29

When you interviewed me about what I did to emphasize vocabulary learning to students, I thought about visual literacy. I have used the concept of visual literacy in other courses, but I have never tried it in this course. ...If you had not asked about this, I would not have done anything with vocabulary. I just look at the paragraph level to have students understand the whole picture of what they read. (T3, POI 11)

The findings indicate that asking questions (‘If you had not asked about this, I would not have done anything with vocabulary’ (T3)) raised the awareness of her current practices which eventually leads her to emphasise more on vocabulary instructions (‘If you had not asked about this, I would have not done anything with vocabulary’ (T3)). Consequently, the data suggests that the question from me triggers changes in T3.

Therefore, changes in teachers’ beliefs relating to important roles of vocabulary instruction occurred in two teachers (T1 and T3) as a result of learning from DRs and a desire of sharing among peers and questions from the facilitator.

Summary

Teachers’ beliefs varied from teacher to teacher. These changes took place in three ways: awareness of current instructional practices, confirmation of existing beliefs and reversal or adoption of opposite beliefs as shown in Table 4.1.

Themes	Initial beliefs	Subsequent beliefs
Pedagogical knowledge	A limited knowledge of vocabulary teaching techniques including L1 translation to facilitate comprehension for low proficient students (T1-T4), teaching activities to promote positive attitude (T1, T2), visual literacy (T3) and textbook (T2-T5)	Increasing awareness of current practices (T3, T5) Increasing confidence or confirmation of a variety of teaching techniques (T2, T3)

		Awareness of a variety of teaching techniques (T3, T4)
Word knowledge	Meanings and parts of speech to facilitate understanding and use (T1-T5)	Awareness and addition of more aspects of knowing a word (T1, T5)
Emphasis of vocabulary teaching	Inappropriate to spend much time on vocabulary teaching in class due to time constraints (T1-T5) and student's responsibility to self-study (T1-T5)	Adoption of new beliefs concerning important roles of vocabulary teaching (T1) Increasing awareness of beliefs concerning important roles of vocabulary teaching (T3)

Table 4.1 Summary of teachers' beliefs before and after participating in the DRs

The following section answers RQ2 in relation to practices before and after DRs.

4.3 Practice of vocabulary teaching through reading before and after DRs

The second research question is: How does dialogic reflection influence on the teachers' practices relating to vocabulary teaching in reading pre-post reflective practice? The findings were mainly drawn from classroom observations (see observation details in section 3.8.2). In this section, observation data of pre- and post-DRs of each teacher will be presented together in order to clearly show how their practices changed. Only the first five to ten minutes of observation data relating to vocabulary teaching were transcribed and presented as an example to illustrate how each teacher taught vocabulary. The remainder was not included because the explanations and process were repeated except the changing target words (More details at section 3.11.3). Discourse analysis (DA) was the framework illustrated the observational extracts (Appendix Q for transcription convention of DA). Data were presented in the order of 1) pedagogical knowledge (4.3.1), 2) word knowledge (4.3.2) and 3) emphasis of vocabulary instruction (4.3.3).

4.3.1 Practices regarding pedagogical knowledge of vocabulary instruction through reading before and after DRs

Analysis of observation data shows that teachers used a limited range of vocabulary teaching techniques before DRs. They used *Thai translation, exercises in the book and the whiteboard*. A wider range of vocabulary teaching repertoire was observed in teachers' practice after participating in DRs. Classroom observation in the subsequent weeks showed that there were some shifts in teachers' practices from heavily relying on L1 translation to varying their teaching techniques.

In this section, teachers' vocabulary teaching techniques prior-DRs, which were found to have influences on other teachers' practices post-DRs, as well as such imitated practices of other teachers will be presented respectively. The range of the techniques observed will be presented from the most to the least frequently used.

L1 translation

The observational data before DRs suggests that most teachers heavily rely on L1 (Thai) translation (except T5). Shortage of time, confidence in the commercial textbook, and students' lack of comprehension (section 4.2) were the main reasons for their employment of L1 translation. This technique was generally used to explain the meanings of words and to provide additional information.

After DRs, the observation data reveals the same practice of L1 translation. An example of how teachers employed L1 translation will be illustrated along with other techniques, such as the exercises in the book and the whiteboard.

Vocabulary Exercises

Before DRs, vocabulary exercises in the book were used by T2, T3, T4, and T5. While T2, T3, and T5 used exercises to introduce vocabulary, T4 used them as a consolidating activity for students to practice using words in new contexts. The example of observational data of T2 was chosen to present here, and the employment of vocabulary exercises in the book, L1 translation, and whiteboard of other teachers will be presented along with the other following techniques in (section 4.3.2).

Excerpt 4.30

Situation: Students in groups were asked to read the vocabulary exercise in the book and the whole class checked the answers. The underlined words were the answers the students read aloud.

Line Number	Speaker	
1	Ss	((A group of students read vocabulary item 2 in the course book.)) Close your eyes (.) and <u>imagine</u> .
2		Do you see it in your mind?
3	T2	((The teacher gestured students to stop.)) Image แปลว่าภาพ, imagine แปลว่าจินตนาการ, (... image plɛ:wɑ: pɑ:p, imagine plɛ:wɑ: tɛintɑnɑ:kɑ:n) (Translation: Image means (L1 meaning), imagine means (L1 meaning))
4		imagination แปลว่า (.) การจินตนาการ ((The teacher nodded.)) (Imagination plɛ:wɑ: (.) kɑ:ntɛintɑnɑ:kɑ:n) (Translation: L1 translation for imagination)
5	Ss	((Read vocabulary item 2 in the course book.)) Number 3. (.)You are
6		not good enough. You need more <u>practice</u> .
7	T2	PRACTice เป็นอะไรคะ (0.3) (Practice pen ʔɑ:rai kʰɑ) (Translation: What is practice?)
8		Noun, verb, adjective?= =เป็น verb (Pen verb) (Translation: It is a verb.)

10	T2	เป็นไปได้ทั้ง noun และ verb แต่ในประโยคนี้เป็น noun หรือ verb ค่ะ (3.0) (Pen dai tɔːŋ noun ɛ verb tɛː nai praːjʰoːk niː pen noun ruː verb kʰa)
		(Translation: It can be both noun and verb, but in this context, is it a noun or verb?)
11	Ss	○Noun○
12	Ss	○Verb○
13	T2	สังเกตว่ามี need เป็น verb อยู่แล้ว (.) (Saːŋkeːt waː miː need pen verb jʰuː lɛːw)
		(Translation: You can see that need is a verb)
14		เพราะฉะนั้น (.) ตามหลัง need ต้องเป็น (.) noun (Pro tɛʰanaːn taːm lʰaːng need tɔːŋ pen noun)
		(Translation: So it must be followed by a noun.)

Regarding this example, it seems that T2 tried to avoid a teacher-fronted classroom interaction through group work; however, the lecturing pattern was still prevalent (lines 3, 4, 7, 9, 10, 13 and 14). T2 emphasises the target words by providing additional information or asking questions related to the target words through L1 translation along the vocabulary exercises in the book. In this instance, T2 scaffolded students by elaborating on meanings ('... image แปลว่าภาพ, imagine แปลว่าจินตนาการ, imagination แปลว่า การจินตนาการ' in line 3) using Thai (L1) translation which was a clear and simple way (Schmitt, 2008a). Moreover, T2 scaffolded students through asking the question ('PRACTice เป็นอะไรคะ ((What is practice?))' in line 7). The other aspects of word knowledge will be discussed in section 4.3.2.

However, observation data show no change regarding their employment of vocabulary exercises in the book after DRs in these four teachers (T2, T3, T4, and T5).

Whiteboard

Before DRs, a whiteboard was observed in only T4 and T5's classes. While T4 used it to introduce vocabulary, T5 used it to add additional information. An example of T4's technique is shown in Excerpt 4.31. Her observation data was presented here in order to show how her technique influenced T1's technique of whiteboard after DRs (Excerpt 4.32). T5' technique of whiteboard will be presented with the technique of pictures (section 4.3.2, Excerpt 4.40 for T5's technique) in order to compare his practice pre-post DRs.

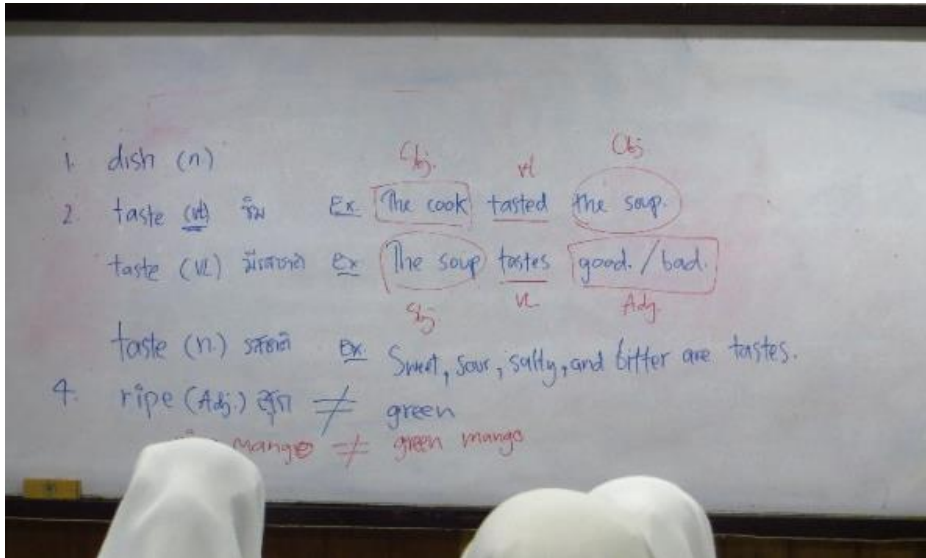


Image 4.1 T4's technique of whiteboard

Excerpt 4.31

Situation: T4 asked students to see target words in the book and the whole class learned the target words on the board. The first word was not mentioned as the answer was given in the book.

Line Number	Speaker	
1	T4	OK, what is the second word? (0.2)
2	Ss	Taste.
3	T4	Taste here is a verb or noun? =
4	Ss	=Verb=.

5	T4	=Verb. In this context (.), it is a verb, right↑? (0.2) What does it mean? (0.2)
6	Ss	รสชาติ
		(Rot-te ^h a:t)
		(Translation: L1 meaning)
7	T4	Err
8	Ss	ชิม
		(te ^h im)
		(Translation: L1 meaning)
9	T4	Yes, here (.) it means ชิม (L1 meaning).
		(te ^h im)
		(Translation: L1 meaning)
10		OK if you look at this verb (.), this word in a dictionary (.) and see
11		abbreviation (VT), it means a transitive verb (0.2) or a verb needs an object. ((The teacher wrote VT on the board.))
12		เป็น verb ที่มีกรรม (.) ไข่ม้อยคะ (0.2)
		(Pen verb t ^h i: mi: ka:m (.) te ^h ai mai k ^h a (0.2)
		(Translation: It is a verb that needs an object, right?).
13		((T4 writes a sentence on the board.)) For example, the cook tastes the soup (0.4).
14		VT? verb ที่มีกรรมนะคะ
		(VT? verb T ^h i: mi: ka:m na k ^h a)
		(Translation: A verb needs an object.)
15		อันนี้ (.) แปลว่า (.) ชิมนะคะ (.) พ่อครัวชิมซุปรุ่นเอง
		(ʔa:n ni: (.) plɛ:wɑ: (.) te ^h im na k ^h a p ^h o:kru:a te ^h im soup nan ʔe:ŋ)
		(Translation: This one means to test. The cook tastes the soup.)

Classroom observation data shows that T4 emphasised the target words by drawing students' attention on the words before checking the answers of vocabulary exercises in the book. Her interaction showed an IRF sequence in which the teacher initiated (I) the interaction with questions (lines 1, 3, and 5) to get students' responses (R) (lines 2, 4, 6 and 8). Then she gave the feedback on students' responses (line 9). In this extract, T4 acted as a knowledge provider or expertise. Her technique was to provide an example of how the word was used in a sentence (line 13). Therefore, her forming a new sentence with the target words as a scaffolding facilitated clear examples in the new contexts of how the word was used and what it meant as a noun and a verb (lines 9-15). The picture seems to suggest that the traditional style of using a whiteboard is advantageous as T4 could attract students' attention (Schmitt, 2008a) to what was shown on the board, presenting different meanings, showing example sentences, and illustrating grammatical structures (Marzano, 2004; Schmitt, 2008a; Schmitt, 2010).

After DRs, observation data shows *a greater use of visualisation* (board). The whiteboard was first used by only T4 and T5. As time went on, three teachers (T1, T4, and T5) would use the board to introduce target words. Teachers 1 and 4's techniques were quite similar as it was a technique T1 borrowed from T4. However, it is worth noting that dialogic reflection with peer allowed T1 to vary her teaching techniques. The image 4.2 shows T1's technique of whiteboard. Excerpt 4.32 shows an example of how T1 taught vocabulary using a whiteboard.

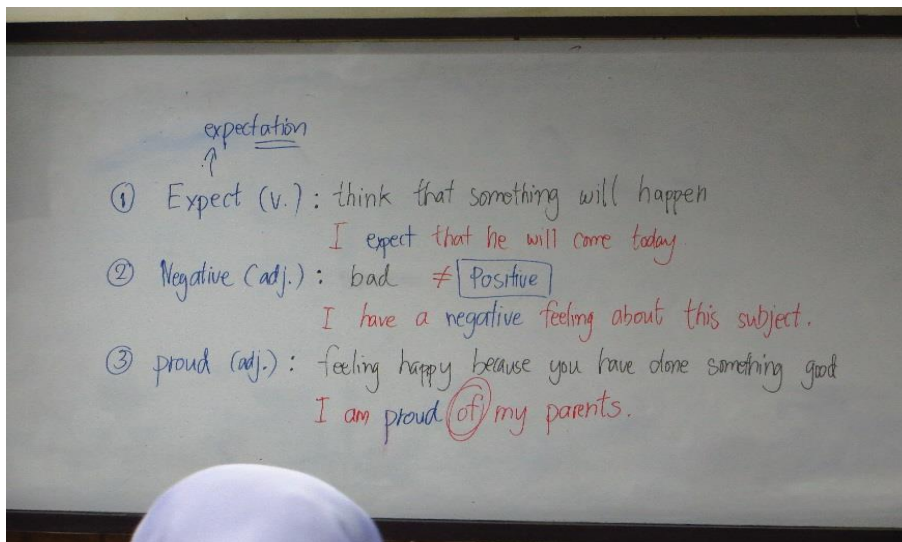


Image 4.2 T1's technique of whiteboard

Excerpt 4.32

Situation: The whole class learned new vocabulary in the book. T1 explained vocabulary and wrote additional information on the whiteboard.

Line Number	Speakers	
1	T1	The first word (.), to exPECT, what does it mean?
2	Ss	(xxx.) (20.0)
3	T1	To exPECT means to think that something will happen. ((The teacher writes the definitions on the board, and the students note in their book.))
4		คาดหวัง
		(K ^h a:tw ^h a:ŋ)
		(L1 translation of expect)
5		What is the part of speech of this word? (0.2)
6	SS	Verb.
7	T1	Good, it is a verb. What is the noun of this word? (0.3)
8	Ss	Expectation.
9	T1	Good. OK. Let's form a sentence using this word.
10	Ss	(xxx.) (35.0)
11	T1	แต่งประโยคอะไรได้บ้างคะ ↑
		(T ^h ɛ:ŋ p ^h ra: jo:k ʔa:rai dai ba:ŋ k ^h a ↑)
		(Translation: How can you form a sentence with this word?)
12	SS	(xxx.) (25.0)

13	T1	OK. Let me help. (0.2)
14		ฉันคาดหวังว่าเขาจะมาวันนี้
		(t ^h a:n k ^h a:tw ^h a:ŋ wa: k ^h a:w tea ma: wa:n ni)
		(Translation: I expect he will come today.)
15	Ss	(xxx.) (20.0)
16	T1	ฉันคาดหวัง (.) ภาษาอังกฤษพูดว่ายังไงคะ ↑
		(t ^h a:n k ^h a:tw ^h a:ŋ p ^h a:sa: ʔa:ŋkrit p ^h u:t wa: jaŋ ŋa:ŋ k ^h a ↑)
		(Translation: If you want to say, I expect in English, how do you say it?)

Excerpt 4.32 shows that similar to T4, T1 wrote what she would like students to pay attention to on the board. Her IRF sequence was observed. T1 asked the question relating to the target word (lines 1, 3, 5 and 7). Students gave responses (lines 4, 6 and 8). Some feedback was given to her students (line 7, ‘Good, it is a verb.’ and line 9, ‘Good.’). Her focus was on meaning (line 1, ‘what does it mean?’ and line 3, ‘To expect means to think that something will happen.’ T1), parts of speech (lines 5 - 7, ‘What is the part of speech of this word? and ‘Good, it is a verb. What is the noun of this word?’ T1) and use (sentence forming) in lines 9-16 (Her practices regarding word knowledge will be discussed in details in section 4.3.2). Even though the data indicated that her students were not familiar with L2 definitions as seen in the pause (lines 2, 10, 12 and 15), it was worth noting that she varied her practices after DRs.

Pictures

Before DRs, observation data did not show the visualisation technique of pictures. However, as time went on, observation data shows that pictures were differently employed by three teachers (T1, T3, and T5) to present target words. T3’s technique was chosen to present here as she was the first one who employed this technique (How this technique influenced T1’s practice will be presented in Excerpt 4.34). T3’s technique is presented below.



Image 4.3 T3's technique of pictures

Excerpt 4.33

Situation: T3 asked students to match the target words they had been assigned to self-study before class with the pictures. In each slide of the PPT, T3 prepared two pictures for a particular word. Students were then asked to match the word with the right picture. After that, the whole class checked the answers of meanings and parts of speech, and students were asked to repeat the new word after the teacher later.

Line Number	Speaker	
1	T3	OK (.). You might have looked through exercises on vocabulary.
2		Now (.), I'd like to check this. The first one (.) is the word (.),
3		expect. You can choose A or B. OK. That is number one.
4		You can write number (.) and you can choose expect, A or B (2.0).
5		I don't know (.). Write down first (0.3).
6	Ss	A.
7	T3	OK. Write it down (0.2). Then please write the functions of
8		words (.) if it is a noun, a verb, an adjective, or an adverb (0.2).
9		Just write n. for noun (.), v. (.) for verb, adj. for adjective
10		and adv. for adverb. Write A. or B. The first one, finish [↑] ?
11		So [↑] this one, which one should be the answer?
12		What is the answer for this one, expect? (0.3)

13	Ss	A
14	T3	The answer is A.
15		When you EXPECT something, it means you WANT it.
16		I WANT that from you. You can relate this word with the
17		picture (.) and this PICTURE (.) I picked up might be a picture
18		that can help you remember the word.
19		I expect you to come for class on time.
20		This means that if you try to visualise,
21		you might have other images in your mind. It is up to you.
22		I just try to choose a picture for you to relate that
23		what kind of picture it should look like.
24		One picture is to ask for something.
25		You want that in your mind. It is expectation.
26		Can you think along↑?
27		You might have your own picture in your mind.
28		What you think about the word, expect? (0.2)
29		เมื่อคิดถึงคำศัพท์นี้ (.) แล้วแต่กะ
		(Mue k ^h itt ^h uŋ k ^h amsap ni: (.) le:wthe: ka)
		(Transaltion: When you think of this word, it is up to you.)
30		แต่ครูก็หยิบมาหนึ่งภาพที่ตีความได้ว่า exPECT
		(Te: k ^h u: ko: j ^h ip ma: n ^h uŋ p ^h a:p thi ti k ^h wa:m dai wa: exPECT)
		(Translation: I chose one picture that represents the meaning of to expect.)
31		คือการที่เราคาดหวัง (.) คาดหวังคืออะไร (0.3)
		(K ^h u ka:n thi raw k ^h a:tw ^h a:ŋ (.) k ^h a:tw ^h a:ŋ k ^h u : za:rai (0.3))
		(Translation: That is when you expect, what does expect mean?)

32		ก็คือ (.) การที่เราอยากจะได้สิ่งนั้น (0.3)
		(Kɔ:kʰu: (.) ka:n tʰi: raw ʔa:k tea: da: siŋ na:n (.)
		(Translation: It means you want to obtain it.)
33		เข้าใจมั้ย ↑ อะ (0.2)
		(Kʰawteai mai ↑ ka (0.2))
		(Translation: Do you understand?)
34		เพราะฉะนั้น (.) การเรียนคำศัพท์ควรมีภาพในใจ (.)
		(Pro tɕʰanan (.) ka:nrian kʰa:msa:p kʰɔ:n tea mi: pʰa:p nai teai (.)
		(Translation: When learning vocabulary, you should have an image in your mind.)
35		ภาพพวกนี้จะปรากฏในหัวเราเหมือนกับหนังในหัว (0.2)
		(Pʰa:p pʰɔ:k ni: tea pra:kot nai hu:raw mʰu:an kap nʰaŋ nai hu:a)
		(Translation: These images will appear like a movie in your head.)
36		OK. The second one. Sorry (.) the word, expect is a verb, a noun, or an adjective?= =Verb.
37	Ss	
38	T3	Expect เป็น verb อะ
		(Expect pen verb kʰa)
		(Translation: To expect is a verb.)

The data indicate that it was the first time T3 used this technique with her students (lines 1-2) as seen from her giving directions (lines 3-5 and lines 7-10). The findings also show that her purpose of employing this technique was to encourage students to have pictures in their mind as a way of scaffolding their vocabulary learning through visualisation (lines 16-23). The data clearly suggests that her technique facilitates the understanding of the concepts of the target word ('One picture is to ask for something. You want that in your mind. It is expectation' in

line 24-25 (T3)), which in turn promotes memorisation from vividness of imagery ('These images will appear like a movie in your head' (T3)) (Paivio and Csapo, 1973; Paivio, 1990).

After DRs, T1 and T5's techniques were identified as quite similar. They had students see a picture and then recall a target word. However, T5 was the only teacher extending students' productive knowledge. After guessing the target words, students were asked to form sentences using the target words. T5's technique of pictures will be presented in section 4.3.2 (Excerpt 4.40). The following instance shows T3's visualisation influenced T1' employment of technique of picture.

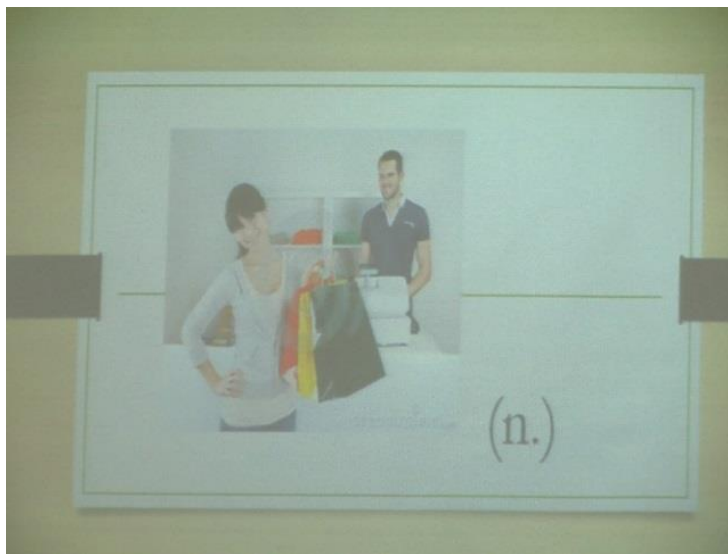


Image 4.4 T1's technique of picture after DRs

Excerpt 4.34

Situation: T1 reviewed vocabulary students were assigned to self-study before class. Students were asked to see pictures and guess what the word was. Pictures were shown on PPP, and they went through all eight target words one by one.

Line Number	Speaker	
1	T1	What is the word for this picture? (0.5)
2	Ss	Customer
3	T1	Repeat after me. cus::tomer ((Students repeated after the teacher.))
4		How do you spell it?

5	Ss	C-U-S-T-O-M-E-R
6	T1	What does it mean?= =ลูกค้า
7	Ss	(Lu:kk ^h a:) (Translation: L1 meaning)
8	T1	Right ↓. ลูกค้า (Right ↓. Lu:kk ^h a:) (Translation: L1 meaning)
9		The customer is buying something here, right ↑?
10		What is a part of speech of this word? (0.2) Noun, verb, adjective or adverb? (0.2)
11	Ss	Noun.
12	T1	You can add-s to the word, customer.

After DRs, Excerpt 4.34 shows T1's borrowing technique from T3. However, their techniques were slightly different. In T1's class, she asked students to recall words (line 1, 'What is the word for this picture?' (T1)). Meanings (lines 6-7, 'What does it mean?' (T1)), spellings (line 4, 'How do you spell it?' (T1)) and pronunciation (line 3, 'Repeat after me' (T1)) were similarly emphasised. It was worth noting that T1 might be influenced by T3's technique, however, she added a more challenging element of word recall (line 1) which could enhance remembrance (Schmitt, 2010; Nation, 2013) and adjusted the teaching technique to suit her teaching styles.

The following techniques were instances of self-initiation which was observed after participating in DRs.

Games

Observation data reveals no employment of games before DRs. As time went on, games were observed in T1 and T2's teaching, with different purposes. While T1 used three different games with the purpose of reviewing vocabulary, T2 used a game to introduce vocabulary in an enjoyable way. An instance of the game was shown in T2's lesson as she was the first one who initiated the idea of games in DR1 (Appendix T).

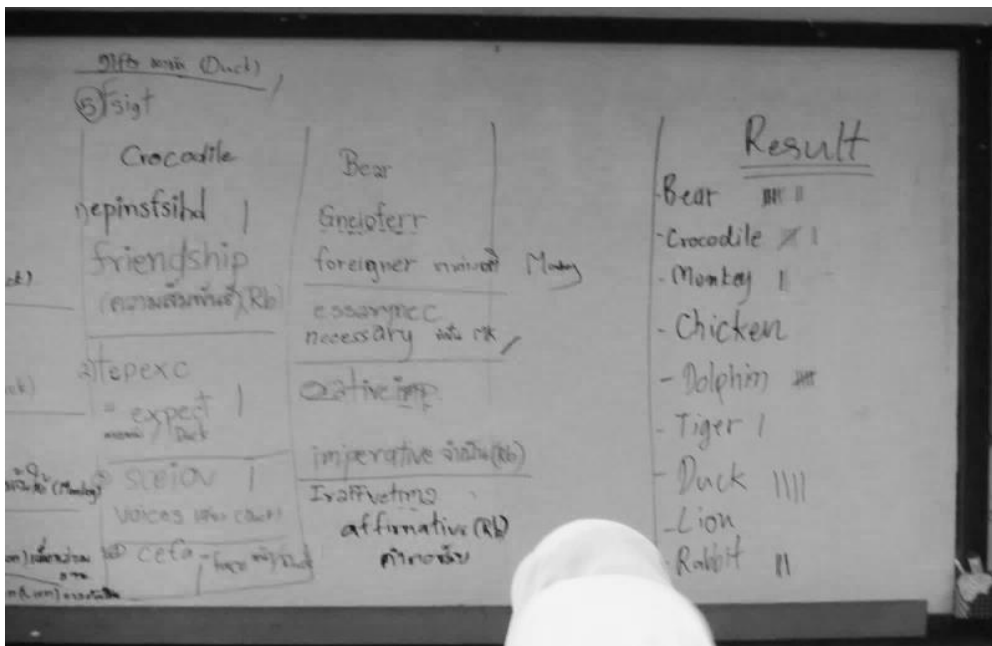


Image 4.5 T2's technique of using a game

Excerpt 4.35

Situation: In this game, students were asked to work in groups in order to find five unknown words on the page they were assigned, and to mix the letters of each word. After that, they were asked to write the scrambled words on the board. For instance, the target word was “education”. Students might write “detoiucan”. The other groups then came to the board to write the correct spelling. An instance of how students performed is shown below.

After the game was over, T2 asked each group to present the words they had written on the board.

Line Number	Speaker	
1	T2	Group Bear, อ่านศัพท์ให้เพื่อนฟัง (0.2) ((The teacher gestured the students to start.))
		(Group Bear, a:rn saph hai peun fa:ng (0.2))
		(Translation: Group Bear, read all the words for your classmates)

2		บอกคำที่อ่านเป็นคำอะไร (.) noun (.) เป็น verb (.) เป็นอะไร (.) หมายถึงอะไร (.) พร้อมมั๊ยคะ (0.4)
		(Bɔ:k kʰam tʰi ʔa:n pen kʰam ʔarai (.) noun (.) pen verb (.) pen ʔarai mʰa:jtʰuiŋ ʔarai (.) prəm mai ka (0.4))
		(Translation: Tell them the word is noun, verb or what? What are their meanings? Are you ready?)
3	Ss	Imperative เป็น adjective แปลว่า จำเป็น (0.2)
		Imperative pen adjective plɛ:wa: tɛampɛn (0.2)
		(Translation: Imperative is an adjective which means ... (L1 meaning))
4		ถ้าเหมือนในหนังสือ (.) imperative sentence แปลว่าอะไรคะ (0.5)
		(tɛʰa: mʰu:an nai nʰaŋsu (.): imperative sentence plɛ:wa: ʔarai ka (0.5))
		(Translation: If you see an imperative sentence like one in the book, what does it mean?)
5		For example (.), I say, STAND UP. (.) SIT DOWN เป็นประโยคอะไรคะ (0.3)
		(For example, I say, “Stand up.Sit down”. Pen prajʰo:k ʔarai kʰa (0.3))
		(Translation: What kind of sentence is this?)
6	Ss	ประโยคคำสั่ง ↓
		(Prajʰo:k kʰamsaŋ)
		(Translation: Imperative sentence.)

Image 4.5 shows that the game seems to focus only on the aspects of spelling; however, the teacher asked students to show how the words were pronounced and their parts of speech after the game was over (lines 2-3). It took time for the teacher to explain how the game worked, but a fun atmosphere ensued, and most students were eagerly involved in learning (Gardner, 2007) Furthermore, it was worth noting that T2 activated students’ schemata of meanings that students

had learned before (lines 4-6). This suggests that she attempts to strengthen students' word knowledge by linking both learned and new meanings (Schmitt, 2008a; Schmitt, 2010).

Group work

Group work was first discussed by T1 and T2 (see Appendix T for DR1). As time went on, group work continued to be implemented by T1 and T2. The common thing shared by T1 and T2 was that group work was a technique requiring students to become active, engaging with their groups with the purpose of learning new words and sharing them with classmates. It is worth noting that when asking students to do group work, the teacher's role was not that of a knowledge provider but one of a facilitator. Similar tasks were observed in their classes. Excerpt 4.39 illustrates group work in which T2 had her students find unknown words to present in front of the class. (T1's technique of group work will be presented in section 4.3.2 Excerpt 4.38.)

Excerpt 4.36

Situation: A representative came in front of the class to translate a paragraph they had been assigned from English into Thai and to present vocabulary written on the board.

Line Number	Speaker	
1	Ss:	Communicate (0.2)
2	T2:	แปลว่าอะไรคะ (0.2)
		(Plɛ:wa: ʔarai ka)
		(Translation: What does it mean?)
3	Ss:	สื่อสาร
		(Su:sa:n)
		(Translation of L1 meaning)
4	Ss	((The teacher nodded to tell students to continue.)) 2 depend ขึ้นอยู่กับ
		(2 depend k ^h u:nɔu: kap)
		(Translation of L1 meaning)

5	T2	สังเกตคำว่า depend ใช้กับอะไรคะ ↑ ดูในหนังสือสิ ↑ (0.5)
		(San̄ket k ^h amwa: depend t̄ai kap ʋarai ka ↑ du: nai n ^h aŋsu: si ↑ (0.5))
		(Translation: Notice the word, depend. Look at your book. What is it used with?)
6	Ss	On=
7	T2	=ใช้กับ depend ON แปลว่า (.) ขึ้นอยู่กับ (0.5)
		(t̄ai kap depend ON pl̄e:wa: (.) k ^h un̄u: kap (0.5))
		(Translation: It is used with a preposition on which means ... (L1 meaning.)
8	Ss	3 interrupt /in t̄e ru:b/ ((SS mispronounced the word.)) (0.2)
9	T2	/,ɪn.tə'rʌpt/ ((The teacher corrected the pronunciation.))
10	Ss	○Sorry○

Similar to the previous instance, T2's group work focused on L1 meanings (lines 1-4) and pronunciation (line 9). However, the data seems to suggest that her application of active learning involves solely students' engagement in doing activities rather than lecturing.

Gap filling

Before DRs, T4 frequently used the textbook and whiteboard. However, after DRs, gap filling was first used by T4 to review vocabulary, focusing on the use of words in a new context. In some classes, she just reviewed by asking students to say words with their meanings and parts of speech, whilst gap-filling exercises written by herself were sometimes provided after the meanings and parts of speech were checked. An example of the gap-filling exercise for revision is shown below.

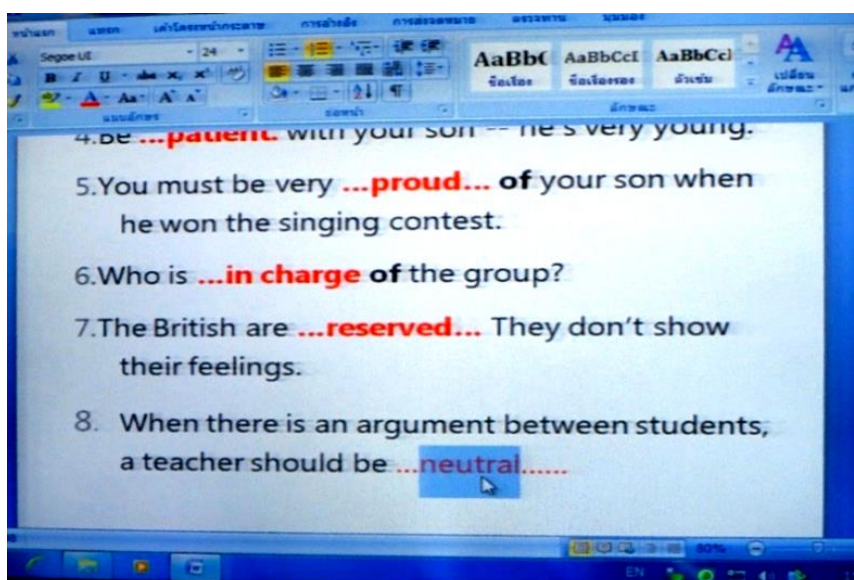
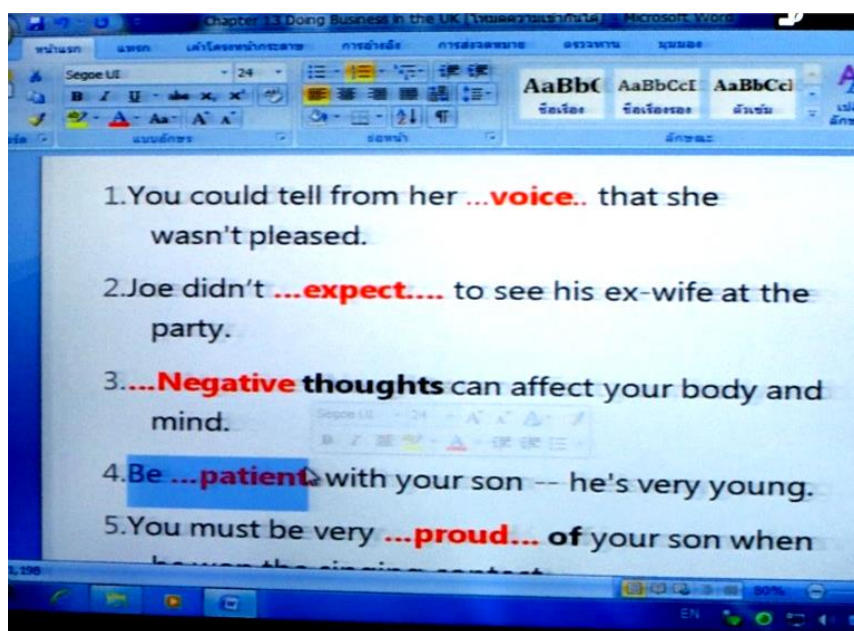


Image 4.6 T4's gap-filling

Excerpt 4.37 T4's technique of gap-fillings

Situation: Students were asked to state the target words with their meanings which they had learned from a previous lesson. Then T4 gave L2 definitions and wrote words on the board.

1. opposite good (negative)
2. human noise/ speak (voice)
3. not good and not bad (neutral)
4. You are quite sure something will happen (expect)
5. Keep emotions/ do not express feelings (reserved)
6. You can wait for someone or something without anger (patience)

7. You feel good or something good is happening (proud)
8. Someone is a leader. He is ...

After that, the whole class was divided into two big groups. The teacher showed sentences on a screen. The students were asked to fill in the gaps by writing their answers, in groups, on the board, and then checking the answers together.

Line number	Speaker	
1	T4	Number 1 (.), Group 1's answer is negative (.) and group 2 is also negative.
2		NEgative (.) ปกติจะมีคำนามตามท้าย
		(NEgative pokkati tea mi: k ^h amna:m ta:m t ^h a:j)
		(Translation: Normally, negative is followed by a noun.)
3		NEgative feeling ความรู้สึกในแง่ลบ ((The teacher reads and points out the sentence on the screen.))
		(NEgative feeling k ^h wa:mru:suuk nai ɲɛ:lop)
		(Translation of L1 meaning)
4		อันนี้ไม่ใช่ (.) ใช่มั้ยะคะ ↑
		(ʔanni: mi: maiteai (.) teai mai ka ↑)
		(Translation: This sentence has a negative meaning, right?)
5		OK, the second one (.), Joe didn't expect to see his ex-wife (.).
6		รู้ได้ยังไงคะ ↑
		(Ru: dai janjai ka ↑)
		(Translation: How do you know (it is to expect)?)
7		wife (.) คืออะไรคะ ↑ (0.3)
		(Wife (.) ku: ʔarai ka ↑)
		(What does wife mean?)

8		ภรรยา
		(P ^h a:nja:)
		(Translation of L1 meaning)
9		ex means เก่า
		(Ex means kaw)
		(Translation of L1 meaning)
10		ภรรยาเก่านั่นเอง
		(P ^h a:nja: kaw nan ɛ:ŋ)
		(Translation of L1 meaning)
11		ไม่ได้คาดหวังว่าจะเจอภรรยาเก่านั่นเอง
		(Maidai k ^h a:tw ^h a:ŋ wa: tɛa tɛw: p ^h a:nja: kaw nan ɛ:ŋ)
		(Translation: Joe didn't expect to see his ex-wife.)

This instance identifies how words were reviewed, which is a way to consolidate memorization (Nation, 2001; Schmitt, 2010). The exercise appears to focus on the use of the words and on meeting words in new contexts (gap-filling exercise written by the teacher) but the ability to identify the part of speech of the gap is important in order to complete the exercise (lines 2-3 and lines 6-9), which promotes a deeper level of engagement (Marzano, 2004; Schmitt, 2010).

The observation data after DRs clearly show a wider range of their practices. When they were asked if they have noticed some shifts in their practices, all five teachers shared that their practices changed (see more details in section 4.3.3).

Therefore, the data shows limited vocabulary teaching techniques before DRs and a wider teaching repertoire after DRs. Their practice changes regarding vocabulary teaching techniques can be categorized into two types of borrowing teaching techniques and self-initiating teaching techniques. The data revealed that T1 borrowed the technique of whiteboard from T4 and visualisation (pictures) from T3. Another change of self-initiated techniques was observed in T1's implementation of games, T3's visualisation, T4's gap-filling exercises, and T5's visualisation.

The previous section presents teaching techniques teachers employed. The following section deals with what aspects of words they emphasised in class.

4.3.2 Practices regarding word knowledge pre-post DRs

Data analysis revealed that some aspects of knowing a word at the basic level according to Nation (2013) has been introduced differently depending on individual teachers.

Before participating in DR sessions, two main aspects all five teachers emphasised were meanings and parts of speech. Other aspects, such as pronunciation and spellings, varied from teacher to teacher. Meanings of words were presented either in Thai (L1) or English (L2). To be more specific, most teachers (except T5) introduced meanings or checked meanings with students in Thai. Some teachers (T1 and T4) sometimes presented meanings in both Thai and English and only T5, who taught English-majored students always presented meanings in English only. The other aspect all teachers emphasised was parts of speech. When teaching this aspect, most of them always asked students to identify parts of speech.

Apart from the meanings and parts of speech, another aspect four teachers (except T5) pinpointed, both before and after DRs, was pronunciation. Among the four teachers, T3 emphasised this aspect the most, whilst the other teachers (T1, T2, and T4) partially underlined this aspect; however, it was rarely observed in T5's practices. Then, other aspects of knowing a word are differently taught according to individual teachers, even though they are teaching the same course (see syllabus details in section 3.7, Table 3.2).

After the DRs, T1 and T5 subsequently changed their practices by adding another aspect of knowing a word (use in a productive skill of writing). This practice was observed only once (T1) or twice (T5); however, it shows that T1 and T5 paid more attention to using the newly learned words in communication (sentence writing). Excerpt 4.32 (section 4.3.1) presents an example showing that T1 employed the whiteboard which she has learned from T4 in order to illustrate more aspects of word knowledge. Her first technique of vocabulary teaching was presented first to clearly show her change in the focus of word aspects.

Excerpt 4.38

Situation: T1 asked students to work in a group of five to think about a technique to memorise vocabulary. The requirement for the technique was to say a word, part of speech, meaning (Thai) and pronunciation.

Line Number	Speaker	
1	T1	Listen to your friends. ((The teacher gestures students to stop talking.))
2	Ss	((Group 1 recites.)) O-R-D-E-R ORder, ORder
3		การเรียงลำดับ
		(Ka:n ri:aŋ la:mda:p)
		(Translation: L1 meaning of order)
4	T1	One more, please.
5	Ss	((Group 1 recites.)) O-R-D-E-R ORder ORder
6		การเรียงลำดับ
		(Ka:n ri:aŋ la:mda:p)
		(L1 meaning of order)
7	T1	OK (.) เป็นคำชนิดไหนคะ↑
		(Pen k ^h a:m te ^h anit n ^h ai k ^h a)
		(Translation: What part of speech is it?)
8		What part of speech is it?
9	Ss	เป็นคำ noun ค่ะ
		(Pen k ^h a:m noun k ^h a)
		(Translation: It is a noun.)
10	T1	(The teacher writes the word on the board.) สะกดให้หน่อยคะ
		(Sakot hai n ^h o:j k ^h a)

		(Translation: Can you spell it, please?)
11	Ss	O-R-D-E-R.
12	T1	ORder, ORder
13		เป็นคำ noun คะ
		(Pen k ^h a:m noun k ^h a)
		(Translation: It is a noun.)

Before DRs, it is apparent that T1 was concerned with promoting *spelling, L1 meaning, pronunciation, and part of speech*. Her emphasis on vocabulary learning was done through asking students to create their own vocabulary memorisation technique in a group. The spelling was emphasised in lines 2, 5, 10 and 11. The emphasis of pronunciation could be seen in line 12 and parts of speech in lines 7, 8 and 13. The meaning in Thai was repeated by students two times in lines 3 and 5. After the group finished presenting their technique, T1 repeated the word and part of speech again. Thus, it seems that the technique she frequently uses is repetition: repeating words, repeating spelling and repeating parts of speech.

Subsequently, regarding word knowledge aspect, there is a change of T1's practice as shown in Excerpt 4.32 (section 4.3.1). Excerpt 4.32 provides the evidence of T1's remaining emphasis on meanings and part of speech and her addition of other aspects of word knowledge. The target word is introduced one by one. T1 began by asking for its meanings through a display question ('what does it mean?') in line 1. In this excerpt, instead of providing only *L1 meanings* (line 4), L2 definitions (line 3) were also provided. The provision of L2 definitions was not observed before T1 participated in DRs. T1 also emphasised *parts of speech* through the different forms of the word 'expect' in lines 5-8 and use to 'expect' (line 5) to strengthen students' word knowledge (expectation in line 7).

IRF sequence in which the teacher initiated a response in lines 1, 5, 7, the students responded in lines 6 and 8, and the feedback was given by the teacher in line 7 and 9. It is noteworthy that the students were quiet after they heard the display question (the twenty second pause in line 2). This might show that they have never been asked to say L2 definitions.

Furthermore, the other aspect of *how to use* (productive skill) (lines 9 and 11) were supplementary. The thirty-five second, twenty-five second and twenty-second pause in the excerpt apparently show that students could not easily participate in the forming sentence

activity (lines 10, 12 and 15). This might be because they were not familiar with putting target words into use either in writing or speaking. In order to help students complete the activity, T1 switches to L1 (lines 11 and 14). There is progressively greater use of Thai (L1) through the excerpt (line 16). This shows that L1 is used as a means to solve the problem or to enhance understanding. Apparently, T1 used L1 as a scaffolding for students' comprehension of vocabulary learning and when students could not achieve the task of forming sentences.

The following instance shows T5's usual practice of three-column table which has been observed almost through the whole semester as shown in Excerpt 4.39 and after that, his technique of picture will be presented to clearly show changes in his practice regarding word knowledge (Excerpt 4.40).

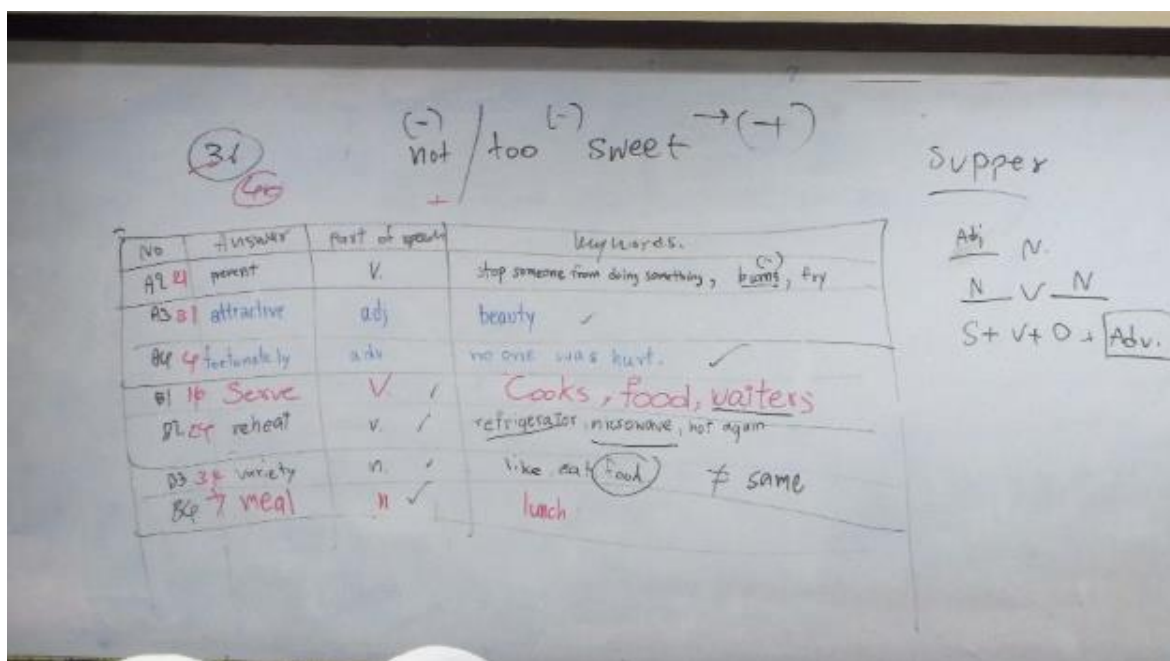


Image 4.7 T5's three-column technique (whiteboard) pre-DRs

Excerpt 4.39

Situation: T5 had students learned target words from the vocabulary exercise in the book.

Line Number	Speaker	
1	T5	Now, practice A, page 53 (.). First (.), we got eight words today (.).
2		Let's see what we have here. The first word, attractive.

3		What is the part of speech of this word?= =
4	Ss	=Adjective.
5	T5	How can you tell?
6	Ss	-ive
7	T5	-ive. That's the way. Next, fill.=
8	Ss	=Verb.
9	T5	OK. This one is verb. Err You need to look at the example. (0.2)
10		You gonna get it for sure (0.2). You can see now that the first one (.)
11		((T5 reads a sentence from the book.)) First, fill the pot with water.
12		It starts with fill at the beginning of the sentence as a verb (.).
13		As we call the imperative. The next one (.), FORTunately.=
14	Ss	=Adverb
15	T5	=How can you tell? (0.2)
16	Ss	-ly
17	T5	Why? -ly. Right ↓. Last one ↑.
18	Ss	Verb
19	T5	So (.) we got the word, attractive-adjective (.), fill-verb (.),
20		fortunately- adverb (.) and prevent-verb (.). So ↑ we have (.)
21		two verbs (.) and two adverbs (.). ALright (.), you got numbers.
22		Just like every class (.), answers, parts of speech and key words(.).
23		((T5 draws four columns of item numbers, answers, parts of speech and key words.) And ↑ lucky number is (.) 21, 31, 4, 14, 24, 34 and 37.
24		((These students with those numbers walk to the front to write the answers on the board.))
		(5 minutes later)

25	T5	Now let's see (.). Number one (.), we got the word, fill already.
26		As you see (.), fill the pot with the water. That fill should be verb.
27		What about number two? (0.3) ((T5 reads the book.))
28		When I fry eggs with the pan, how can I prevent the butter from
29		burning. We got the word, prevent (.)
30		How can you tell (.) it is a place for verb?
31	Ss	I
32	T5	Yes, we got a subject I, so ↑ after I (it) should be for verb.
33		That's why we should put the word, prevent here.
34		So ↑ we got the word, burn. Is it good or bad ↑?
35	Ss	Bad.
36	T5	Bad. So ↑ somehow you need to prevent it (.). Alright (.)
37		That's the key word. (0.2) ((T5 writes burn in the key word column on the board.))
38		For the other type (.), we got the word stop someone from doing
39		something (.). That's the thing too (.). Because burning is not
40		a good thing. You need to stop it.

Excerpt 4.42 clearly shows T5's teaching technique was mainly in relation to *parts of speech*. This can be frequently seen in questions 'What is the part of speech of this word?' in line 3 and 'How can you tell?' in lines 5, 15 and 30. It should also be noted that even though T5 did not ask the question to have students identify parts of speech, students seemed to know what he was to ask and automatically responded after he just said target words (in lines 14 and 16). The findings obviously show that this practice of checking parts of speech was usually done in his class. It is therefore apparent that his technique drew students' attention to vocabulary knowledge regarding this aspect especially word forms ('-ive' in lines 6 and 7 and '-ly' in lines 16 and 17) and sentence structures ('It starts with fill at the beginning of the sentence as a verb. As we call the imperative.' in lines 12 and 13 and '... we got a subject I, so after I (it) should be for verb' in line 32).

Besides parts of speech, *keywords* were another aspect T5 emphasised along with the part of speech. His technique of the three-column tables allowed students and the teacher to pay attention to the keywords. It can be seen T5 asked questions to point out the keyword ('So we got the word, burn. Is it good or bad?' in line 34), and he provided more explanations concerning keywords ('Because burning is not a good thing. You need to stop it.' in lines 38-39).

Data indicates that T5's asking questions and offering explanations are his way to scaffold students to better understand the keywords or contexts which help identify the parts of speech or the answers to the vocabulary exercise. In this excerpt, T5 was checking if students knew what parts of speech. This was a way to check his students' knowledge and to confirm that they got the correct types of the parts of speech. Then his explanations provided to the students about the keywords could guide meanings and it was a way to extend students' understanding of how to identify parts of speech. Thus, it was a way to help students internalise the point they have been learning. Furthermore, data seem to suggest that his experience of a language learner or teacher practitioner has shaped his belief, which influenced him to emphasise this aspect in class. This is the reason why this technique was the only technique often observed in T5's class.

However, after DRs, there was a shift in T5's practice regarding vocabulary teaching technique. Namely, T5 taught vocabulary through pictures and the aspect of use was extended to a productive skill of sentence forming instead of identifying parts of speech. His change in vocabulary teaching technique was shown in Excerpt 4.40.

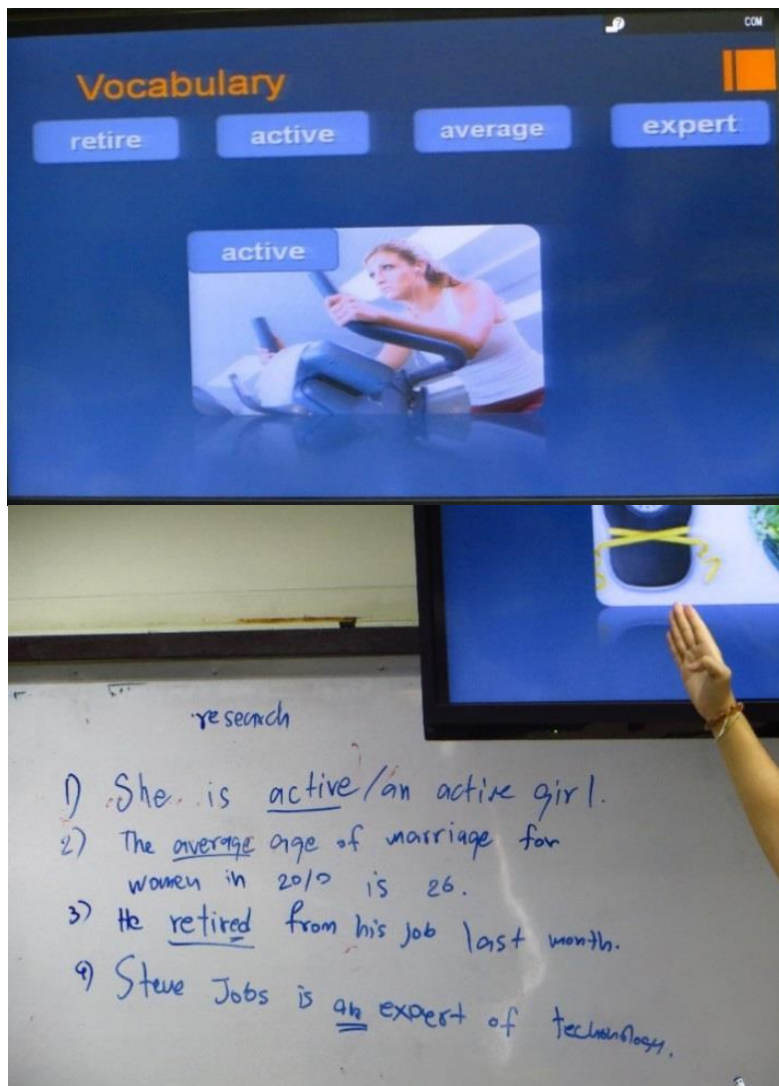


Image 4.8 T5's technique of pictures post DRs

Excerpt 4.40

Situation: T5 asked students to learn the target words through pictures shown on PPT. Then he asked students to use the target words to form sentences.

Line Number	Speaker	
1	T5	Let's talk about vocabulary before the topic today (.)
2		I believe that you did the exercises on page 123 already (.)
3		and some of you might make the table that we make all the time (.)
4		Today (.), let's change a little bit here (.)

5		Today (.), there are two sets of words (.). (T5 gestured two fingers up.)
6		Let's do it one by one. Let's say set by set (.). One set four words (.).
7		See the picture and tell me what word should it mean? (0.2)
8		We got four words for the first set. (0.2)
9		We got RETIRE, ACTIVE, AVERAGE and EXPERT. ((T5 click PPT to change the slide.))
10		OK (.), see the picture(.) and tell me what vocabulary it is. (0.5) ((T5 points to the picture.))
11	Ss	Active.
12		OK. She is doing exercises.
		What do you think? (10.0) Look at her face (0.3), what is she looking at? (5.0)
13	S1	○Thinking○
14	T5	One of your friends thinks she is thinking of something.
15		What is she thinking of? (5.0)
16	S2	○Perfect shape○
17	T5	I am gonna have a perfect shape.
18		Can you make any sentences for this word, active? (12.0)
19		Can you make a sentence? Easy sentence. (7.0)
20		OK ↓ This is a woman or a man?
21	Ss	A woman.
22	T5	So a woman, he or she? =
23	Ss	=She.
24	T5	She is what? =
25	Ss	=Active. (4.0)
26	S3	She is active. (0.2)
27	S4	[She is an active girl]

28	S5	[She is an active woman]
29	T5	((T5 writes sentences on the board.)) You can say that too (.), she is active.
30		You can also say she is an active woman or girl.
31		So when you make a sentence, you know it already.
32		What part of speech is it?= =Adjective.
33	Ss	
34	T5	Totally, right [↑] ? You can see that it is after the verb to be
35		and also Err it could be also followed by a noun.

As described in the excerpt 4.36 (section 4.3.1), his main focus on vocabulary knowledge remained the same; however, his technique and how he emphasised on parts of speech were different ('Today, let's change a little bit here' (T5)). The technique T5 chose was pictures ('See the picture and tell me what word should it mean?' in line 6 and '...see the picture and tell me what vocabulary it is' in line 9). The extract also shows his first use of this technique as seen from a long pause in his extended wait time (lines 18 and 19) for the students to form sentences. However, T5's assistance in sentence forming offers a solution as a way to scaffold students to be able to start it ('Can you make a sentence? Easy sentence. OK This is a woman or a man?' in lines 19-20, 'So a woman, he or she?', and 'She is what?' in line 22). Then line 31 ('... when you make a sentence, you know it already. What part of speech is it?') shows his remaining practice on word knowledge of parts of speech.

Excerpt 4.40 suggests that using pictures is an easy way to access meanings. Moreover, a deep level of semantic processing (Marzano, 2004; Schmitt, 2010) was promoted as students were required to recall words and engage more with words in meaningful interactions (sentence forming) (Nation, 2001). However, the data also suggest that students were not familiar with sentence forming as T5 needed to support or scaffold the students to complete this activity (lines 20-24).

Therefore, the observation data show changes of practices relating to word knowledge only in two teachers (T1 and T5). After DRs, teachers were more aware of productive skills which were reflected in their having students form sentences with target words (see the reasons for their practice change in section 4.3.3).

Previous sections show changes in teachers' practices relating to word knowledge. The following section presents how their practices change regarding the emphasis of vocabulary teaching.

4.3.3 Practices regarding the emphasis of vocabulary instruction through reading before and after DRs

Before DRs, observation data showed that vocabulary was introduced in teaching sessions at the pre-reading stage for the two main purposes of revision/presentation (T4) and just presentation (T1, T2, T3, and T5). The data shows a lack of multiple vocabulary exposures except in T4's class. It seems that only T4 provided multiple encounters of vocabulary through revision of words, previously taught before introducing new vocabulary. The data suggests that T4 valued multiple exposures the most highly among the teachers as a way to increase vocabulary reinforcement. An example of her vocabulary revision before DRs was shown in Excerpt 4.41.

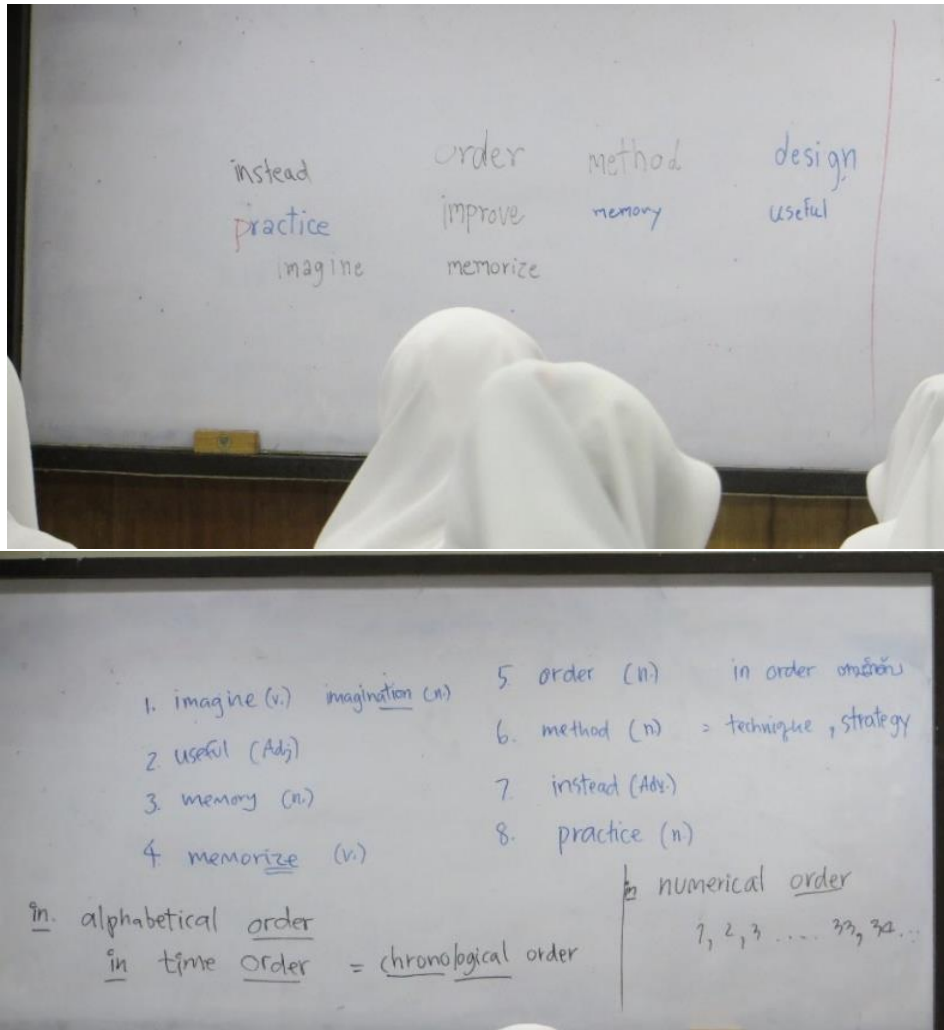


Image 4.9 T4's vocabulary revision (word level)

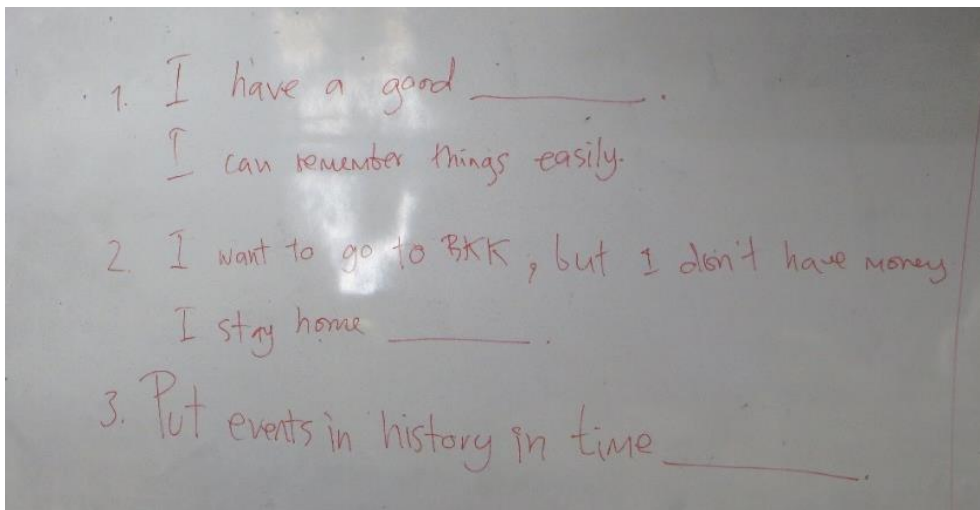


Image 4.10 T4's vocabulary revision (sentence level) pre DRs

Excerpt 4.41

Situation: T4 reviewed vocabulary students had learned from the previous lesson (Memory). Students were asked to write the target words they studied last week (see images 4.9 and 4.10). Students were asked for meanings afterwards. Then T4 asked students to use the word to form sentences. The first student could not do well and nobody volunteered to write sentences on the board, so T4 wrote her 4 sentences with blanks on the board. Students chose the right words to fill in the sentences.

Line Number	Speakers	
1	T4	((Students walk to the front of the class to write the words on the board.) OK, let's check (.). What is the first word (.)? What is it? (3.0)
2	Ss	Instead.
3	T4	Can you give me some examples of the sentence with this word?
4		ตัวอย่างเช่น ↑ (10.0)
		(T ^h u:a j ^h a:ŋ teen)
		(Translation: For example)
5		For example. (10.0)
6	S1	((He says his sentence aloud.) The equation one is INSTEAD by the equation two.
7	T4	((T4 writes S1's sentence on the board.)) The equa:::tion one is
8		in:::stead by the eQUAtion two.
9		OK instead here is adverb.
10		We need to use this word as an adverb.
11		ใช้เป็น adverb นะจ๊ะ
		(te ^h ai pen adverb na tea)
		(Translation: Use it as aadverb.)
15		Now, I'll give you some examples of the sentences.

16		Then you fill in the blanks. (0.50) ((T4 writes four sentences on the board.))
17		OK (.), number 1 (.).
18	Ss	Memory
19	T4	MEemory or MEMorise↑?
20	Ss	Memory

Excerpt 4.41 shows that T4 promoted vocabulary memorisation through revision of word spellings and meanings (from line 12 to line 14). Moreover, the target words were emphasised through use in a sentence. Even though forming sentences with the target words was not accurately done by students (line 6), it was worth noting that T4 was the only one who attempted to strengthen her students' word knowledge (both receptive and productive skills) regarding the classroom observation data.

Subsequently, after the DRs, the observational data show changes in T1 and T3's practices regarding multiple exposures, reflected in their practice of vocabulary revision. To illustrate, T1's games and T3's pictures were observed (section 4.3.1 for their teaching practices).

Apart from the observation data, POI data also confirm their changes in practices. Four teachers (except T2) gave similar responses.

Excerpt 4.42

Previously, I have never used activities ... I have never reviewed vocabulary ... (T1, POI 12)

Excerpt 4.43

Actually, I have thought about what to do (how to teach vocabulary) but I have never made it real... At the beginning, I asked students to draw pictures of what they understand from a reading paragraph or passage, but I have never applied it at a vocabulary level. ... I change my practice on teaching vocabulary based on my beliefs on visual literacy. I change some of my practices such as the use of board for visualisation, I changed it. (T3, POI 13)

Excerpt 4.44

It effects in the way that I want to use many more techniques and I want to try what other teachers have used whether they will work with my students (groups), for example, I have used Teacher 5's technique... (T4, POI 14)

Excerpt 4.45

If you talk about practice in this course, I can say that I change it. (T5, POI 15)

The excerpts above clearly show their practice change regarding vocabulary teaching which can be seen in ‘Previously, I have never used activities ... never reviewed vocabulary’ (T1), ‘I have never applied it (visual literacy concept) at a vocabulary level (T3), and ‘If you talk about practice in this course, I can say that I change it’ (T5). Unlike these four teachers, T2 replied,

Excerpt 4.46

For practice, I want to try what works or doesn’t work with my students... actually, my practices do not change. I like activities, whatever I can use with my students. (T2, POI 16)

Based on T2’s response, it seems that after DRs, she has listened to how others practiced which made her want to use other teaching techniques similarly to T4. However, as she believed in teaching through active learning or activities (‘I like activities’ (T2)), her practice after observation reflected her beliefs. Therefore, in her opinion, her practice of teaching through activities remained the same.

Another theme was noted revealing how teachers emphasised vocabulary instruction was in relation to lesson planning. Classroom observation data showed that most teachers did not plan their lessons in detail. The problems found in their vocabulary teaching techniques were related to the lack of lesson management including both class and time management which was the result of not planning a lesson in detail. For instance, T3 said, “I have changed the way I managed a class, it helped save much time.” (POI 17). The data seems to suggest that, after teachers have learned about how to manage activities, their change to planning lessons in detail identified the advantages of doing so, which affected T1 and T3’s beliefs accordingly about the possibility of implementing other teaching techniques.

Activity management seems to be another outcome of DRs which might have led to T1’s continuous change of her practice. In her words “My time management was better. I can apply what I have learned from the group in my class in the future.” (POI 18). Similar to T3, learning about activity management allows them to alter their practice from L1 to other techniques.

The POI data reveal their reasons for changes which show interrelation between belief and practice that influence each other. Their reasons varied as shown below. The first reason for changes in practice seems to be the need for contribution making. T1 said, “When I see other

teachers can do it, it makes me think why I can't do it." (T1, POI 19) The data suggests that listening to how other teachers practiced encourages her to examine her current practice through comparing her own practice and others and change her practice ('...it makes me think why I can't do it.' (T1)). It seems that sharing among peers can motivate teachers to pay more attention to vocabulary teaching.

The second reason involves knowledge gained from DRs. T2's reason for this may be *the certainty of the teaching techniques learned from a trustable source*. As T2 simply put it, "I can follow what they do" (POI, 20). Similarly, T3 stated,

Excerpt 4.47

It (DR) makes me learn something more concrete, such as teaching and learning management and teaching techniques. Seeing something concrete or learning from what others have done or really used in class is good in a way that I can just use it immediately with the certainty that it must be good. (T3, POI 21)

It seems that sharing hands-on teaching experience from what teachers have really practiced in their classes ('learning from what others have done or really used in class' (T3)) strongly influences teachers' shifts or adjustments in their beliefs and practices ('I can follow what they do.' (T2) and ('I can just use it immediately with the certainty that it must be good.' (T3)).

The third reason for practice change is about *my questions*. As T3 explained,

Excerpt 4.48

"When you interviewed me about what I did to emphasise vocabulary learning to students, I thought about visual literacy. ... If you had not asked about this, I would have not done anything with vocabulary." (T3, POI 22).

The finding suggests that asking questions raised the awareness of her current practices ('If you had not asked about this, I would have not done anything with vocabulary').

Another reason for improving T3's practices was *the negative effects of attending DRs*. As she put it,

Excerpt 4.49

... Seeing what others did is a way of comparing which made me lose face. This group talk tells what (instructional skills) I have or what (instructional skills) I do not have... At this point, it causes some pressure, and the group talks raise awareness. If what I did is good, it is OK but if not, I have to try to improve. It pushes me to do a better job. ... Even though the researcher did not explicitly state it, it already made me lose face because showing how

each teacher practices is a way of comparing and showing negative comments without a clear statement. (T3, POI 23)

The findings suggest that a negative consequence of shared dialogic reflection is about revealing weak skills ('... This group talk tells what (instructional skills) I have or what (instructional skills) I do not have.'(T3)) and listening about other teacher's teaching technique made her lose face ('...Seeing what others did is a way of comparing which made me lose face' (T3)). However, it is worth noting that this negative feeling encouraged her to improve her teaching ('It pushes me to do a better job' (T3)). This might explain the reason why T3 changed her practices from using only Thai translation and vocabulary exercises from the book, to implementing pictures in this course. The data seems to suggest that the influence of dialogic reflection sharing with peers in this particular group restructured T3's practices. However, it should be noted that after she experienced her new practice, the feeling of her idea's being accepted among peers eventually influenced on and reconstruct her subsequent beliefs (T3, POI4). Accordingly, the data suggests that her change in practice influenced her belief change.

Moreover, after implementing the new practice, T3's students were more motivated and paid more attention to learning English and the class atmosphere was more active as shown in excerpt 4.50.

Excerpt 4.50 T3's opinions on students' reaction towards her new practice

Based on the students' reaction, it is apparent that they paid more attention and tried harder to find answers.... When I reviewed vocabulary with my students, they could answer loudly. This never happens in my class. ... Based on students' ability to respond, it can be said that it (the new practice) was good. (T3, POI 24)

The results indicate that after T3 experienced the new teaching techniques, *students' reaction* ('... When I reviewed vocabulary with my students, they could answer loudly. This never happens in my class' (T3)) and level of learning ('Based on students' ability to respond, it can be said that it (the new practice) was good' (T3)) can be used as a means of assessment for teachers in deciding whether the new practice is worth conducting. The findings suggest that new teaching experience (students' active participation) influences on or confirms her beliefs relating to the new vocabulary teaching technique. Therefore, the data seem to suggest that change in practice as a result of the influence of socialisation might have negative impacts on teachers at the beginning; however, subsequent positive outcomes eventually influences on T3' reconstruction of beliefs.

The other reason leading to her shift was her willingness to change. As T3 explained that

Excerpt 4.51

“Even though I know what a good practice is, if I don’t have time to do it, it is nothing. For a teacher to prepare a lesson or plan about how to teach, it takes much more time. Even though there is a group of dialogic reflection, if a teacher does not have time or is not ready to do it, nothing will change.”
(T3, POI 25)

The findings show that even though T3 mentioned time as the main factor allowing her to put her ideas of pictures into practices, without her willingness, nothing else will change (‘If a teacher does not have time or is not ready to do it, nothing will change.’ (T3)). The data suggest that even though T3 accepted positive outcomes of shared dialogic reflection, what actually triggers change is her willingness to change.

Similar to T3, T5’s reason was about time allocation. In his words,

Excerpt 4.52

... What makes me use photos is not the influence of this group meeting. I know that I can make it. If I have time, I will make it. (T5, POI 26)

The data suggests that he was willing to change when time was allocated. Even though his given reason for the employment of a new technique was the one of time allocation, without the trigger of DRs and his willingness to change, his practices might remain unchanged.

Overall, changes in practice vary from teacher to teacher. Practice change took place in three ways: addition of multiple encounters, addition of word knowledge, and addition of VTT. Table 4.5 presents teachers’ practice before and after participating in the DRs.

Themes	Initial practices	Subsequent practices
Pedagogical knowledge	A limited range of vocabulary teaching techniques Mainly use only L1 translation and vocabulary exercises in the book (T1, T3, T4, T5)	A wider range of vocabulary teaching techniques (T1-T5) Borrowing other teachers’ techniques (T1) Initiating other techniques apart from Thai translation such as pictures, gap-filling and games (T1, T3, T4, T5)

Word knowledge	Mainly focus only on meanings and parts of speech (T5)	Adding new aspects of knowing a word: pronunciation and sentence writing (T1, T5)
Emphasis of vocabulary teaching	No provision of multiple exposure (T1, T2, T3, T5)	More provision of multiple exposure through games and pictures (T1, T3)

Table 4.2 Summary of practice change

4.4 Summary

This chapter reports the results relating to EFL Thai university teachers' beliefs and practices regarding vocabulary instruction in reading before and after DRs. The discussions of what beliefs they held, how they taught, and factors leading to their shifts in beliefs and practices are presented in the following chapter.

Chapter 5. Discussion

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the key findings are discussed in light of the main arguments emerging from the study, the conceptual framework underpinning this study, and the literature in the field. It begins with a discussion of factors influencing teachers' beliefs and practices prior DRs (5.2), changes of teachers' beliefs and practices pre- and post- DRs (section 5.3 and 5.4) which is followed by the features of DRs leading to changes in beliefs and practices (section 5.5).

5.2 Factors influencing teachers' beliefs and practices pre-DRs

One of the main aims of this study was to understand changes in teachers' beliefs and practices post-DRs. However, in order to understand their belief and practice change, it is essential to know what has formed their beliefs and practices in the first place. PRI data revealed that their 'lived' experience including learning experiences as a learner, teaching experiences as a practitioner and artefacts (textbooks and course syllabus) was the most influential factor forming their beliefs and practices pre-DRs. It was surprising that little influence was reported from professional coursework. The results might be explained by the fact that most of their beliefs were not obtained from professional coursework or teacher training as most of them did not graduate from education and did not have time to receive teacher training (section 3.6 for teacher profile). Therefore, the prominent source of their beliefs originated from their 'lived' experiences which obtained from social contexts they have nurtured.

The findings of the present study reflect those of Vygotsky (1978) who emphasises that learning is a result of the culture which has been developed through symbolic tools shaping the development of beliefs. Furthermore, the findings corroborate with Lantolf (2004) who states that teachers can appropriate cultural artefacts including textbook, teaching methods, course syllabus and school contexts which play an influential role on teachers' belief construction. Additionally, the findings are consistent with that of Turuk (2008) and Johnson (2009) who suggest that individuals' learning occurs differently according to specific social and cultural contexts; therefore, development of beliefs cannot be separated from these contexts where ones have been cultivated. This might explain why their 'lived' experience as a language learner and

teacher practitioners have influenced their thoughts and instructional behaviours. Therefore, the findings support the association between the culture the teachers have been nurtured and teacher learning that has formed their beliefs and influenced their practice.

5.3 Changes of teachers' beliefs pre-and post DRs

Comparison of teachers' beliefs pre- and post-DRs based on the semi-structured interview (PRI and POI) data reveals some changes in their beliefs (section 4.2). First, while their initial beliefs regarding pedagogical knowledge were in a non-specific domain of only L1 translation, activities and visual literacy, their subsequent beliefs show an increasing awareness of current practices, awareness of a variety of vocabulary teaching techniques (VTT) and confirmation of a variety of VTT (section 4.2.1). Second, their prior beliefs regarding word knowledge were limited on meanings and parts of speech; however, their awareness of other aspects of productive skills (pronunciation and use) were identified after DRs (section 4.2.2). Third, whereas their pre-existing beliefs regarding important roles of vocabulary teaching revealed no frequent emphasis on vocabulary instruction in class due to time constraints, their beliefs post-DRs show an increasing awareness of important roles of vocabulary teaching and adoption of new beliefs regarding this aspect (section 4.2.3).

The findings indicate that belief change varied across individuals. In this present study, some types of changes occur with some individual teachers. For instance, the findings reveal that T2 did not report her belief changed; however, she felt more confident in her beliefs relating to vocabulary instruction (section 4.2.1, POI 5) after DRs. In contrast to T2, T5 clearly responded about his change in beliefs as he became aware of his current practice that might not be the best (section 4.2.1, excerpt 4.12) and T1 who shared her belief change from not to pay attention to focus more on vocabulary instruction (section 4.2.3, excerpt 4.27).

It might be possible to explain that DRs triggered some shift in teachers' beliefs or have influenced individual teachers' beliefs; however, this change might occur differently depending on the individuals ranging from raising awareness to the adoption of new beliefs. Moreover, beliefs might not dramatically change, but it depends on how beliefs are operationalised. In this study, teachers may experience or appropriate a variety of social and cultural artefacts (shared past teaching experience, shared teaching techniques and shared solutions of instructional problems through dialogic reflections) after DRs which eventually reconstruct teachers' beliefs.

The results corroborate the findings of Yuan and Lee (2014) whose study shows that beliefs can change through interaction with others. Their study investigated the process of belief change of the pre-service teachers during their teaching practicum. Through ‘lived’ experience in social learning activities of the school context and mentor’s scaffolding to assist the teachers, their study showed the development of the belief change. The results are also in line with Bleiler (2015)’s study showing that after collaboration and participation of the partner’s practice, a collaborative team teaching between a mathematics content teacher and a mathematics method teacher led to their awareness of their current practice. Even though Yuan and Lee (2014)’ study was developed based on a cognitive framework unlike Bleiler (2015) whose study was founded on SCT in Community of Practice, it is apparent that social interaction with other teachers influences on teachers’ beliefs and this influence varies individually.

The findings derived from POI data clearly confirmed that there were two main reasons for belief changes after DRs. The first reason involves a *willingness to learn* (section 4.2.3, POI 9). In this current study, T1 adopted a new belief of explicit vocabulary instruction (section 4.2.3, excerpt 4.27) which was reflected through her continuous employment of a variety of teaching techniques and the provision of multiple exposures through vocabulary revision (section 4.3.1). This finding shows that *open-mindedness or willingness to listen to comments* relating to their practice reflected by themselves and others’ is very crucial as a catalyst for change, and without this value, reflection might not be successful. Through dialogic reflective practices among peers, T1 had opportunities to learn about and become aware of her weaknesses in her practice which eventually reshaped her beliefs.

The results of the present study extended to the literature that knowledge emerges through social interaction (Vygotsky, 1978); however, without a willingness to learn, internationalisation and affordance cannot be promoted. It appears that participating in DR contributes to knowledge construction or meaning co-construction based on reflective practice and experiences among peers. However, even though DR engages teachers to contribute to this meaningful social learning activity and might have led to some influence on teachers’ thinking, it eventually depends on the teachers whether to take what they have learned into consideration. Accordingly, a willingness to learn is one of the most important characteristics essential for teachers’ changes in beliefs and practices.

The second reason involves the need for contribution making (section 4.2.3, excerpt 4.28). The findings of the present study supported the previous study conducted by Harford and MacRuairc

(2008) suggesting that reflection which takes place in peer-based activity, prompts for dialogue and shared learning were supportive in order for teachers to make changes or refinements to their practice. Their study examined a peer-VDO base as a type of learning activity with pre-service teachers during a Post-Graduate Diploma in Education Program which could promote the engagement of teachers in reflective practice, observation, and professional dialogue. The findings are also in agreement with Danielowich (2014) whose findings show that video-based and peer-based reflections relating to their own and others' practices guide the development of teachers' change regarding directed thinking. His study revealed that the direct support from self-reflection and peer-evaluation on their own mini-teaching VDO foster changes as the technique requires the teachers to individually reflect and to make a contribution to their peer-teaching VDOs. It might be explained that even though this study did not employ VDO as a means facilitating change, the role of interaction with peer enable some features fostering scaffolding (Vygotsky, 1978) and affordance (Mann and Walsh, 2017) which allow teachers to contribute and learn from each other.

However, the findings of this study present different views from previous studies (such as Keay *et al.* (2014), Owen (2014), Murugaiah *et al.* (2016), and Mann and Walsh, 2017) whose results focus on learning or *gaining* knowledge from an interaction. In the present study, T1' s responses underline the role of the participant who should not only *take* or learn from others but should also *give* back to the group. In this study, after T1 has learned from others, she might feel a need to contribute to her peers. This type of shared learning activity required participation from both their own and others to take turns or both to give and to take. This is in agreement with Lantolf and Pavlenko (1995) who mention that in ZPD, "each person contributes something to and take something away from, the interaction" (p.165). This suggests that during DR, each teacher both novice and expert can learn from each other and DR can be an essential component for a teacher to contribute and take from a mediational tool through DR.

This might explain why after reflecting on her own practice, hearing some comments by peers made T1 feel that she learned from others; thus, she should employ some new teaching techniques to be able to contribute to others. Participating in DR allowed teachers to share their practice in which at a certain degree encourages them to reconstruct their belief and adjust some practices in order to have something new to share with others. Therefore, social interaction through DR promotes sharing knowledge in a way that teachers can learn from others and at the same time, it socially and culturally influences them on making contributions to the group.

Therefore, as beliefs are socially co-constructed (Ro and Jung, 2016) and contextualised (Mansour, 2009, 2013), teachers' beliefs are shaped in accordance with reflective practice and in the context of social interaction through DRs as a mediational tool. Furthermore, it appears that beliefs and practices are interrelated and dialogic reflections could trigger some changes.

5.4 Changes in teachers' practice relating to vocabulary instruction pre-and post DRs

Some changes were found in comparisons of teachers' practices regarding vocabulary instruction pre-and post-DRs. The observation data show that before DRs, teachers used a limited range of vocabulary teaching techniques, emphasised a few aspects of word knowledge, provided a limited multiple exposure and were poor in classroom management. After they experienced DRs, observation data reveal some changes in their practice including 1) a wider range of vocabulary teaching techniques, 2) adding new aspects of knowing a word: pronunciation and sentence writing and 3) providing more provision of multiple exposures through games and pictures. Clearly, the findings suggest that teachers' change in practice after DRs involves three respects of change in pedagogical knowledge or vocabulary teaching techniques, word knowledge and the emphasis of vocabulary instruction.

The possible explanation might be that teachers' learning of teaching techniques and classroom management (section 4.3.3, POI 17 and 18) occurs as a result of sharing of their practice and teaching experience through DR. According to Borg (2014), "enhanced in ELT in EFL techniques results in changes in practice" (p. 39). Consequently, the results of the current study clearly show changes in teachers' practices.

Five main reasons fostering practice changes after DRs were reported based on POI data. The first reason for practice change is in relation to questions. It appeared that *making inquiries regarding teachers' beliefs* was the initial step triggering them to ponder on their beliefs or reasons behind their practices (section 4.33, excerpt 4.48). In this study, the questions targeted to T3 urged her to examine her current practice. The possible explanation might be that reflective questions guides T3 to pay attention to her current practice. The questions play an important role as a scaffolding which helps teachers to consider her beliefs and the relevance between her beliefs and practices. Apparently, interaction with others plays a crucial role as a guiding and scaffolding for T3 to think beyond her current practice, and questions and responses act as a catalyst for teachers' change. Therefore, practical knowledge is co-constructed through

inquiry, and beliefs and practice influence on each other. This issue will be discussed further at section 5.5.1.

Willingness to change is the second reason influencing shifts in practice. In this study, T3 reported a willingness to learn, and T5 reported time allocation at the end of the semester which can be interpreted as his willingness to change (section excerpt 4.51 for T3 and 4.52 for T5). It is possible to explain that if teachers do not want to change how they teach, their practice definitely remains the same. Even though the social context fosters teacher learning or influences on their new beliefs, if teachers are not ready to change, they might just ignore what they have learned from the group. Participating in DR might have formed their new beliefs and provided more options of teaching techniques; however, it eventually depends on the individual teachers whether they would like to change their practice. It appears that apart from a willingness to learn (5.3), willingness to change is also another essential factor leading to teacher change.

Third, knowledge gained from *a trustable source* leads to changes in instructional behaviour. In the present study, T2 and T3 similarly shared that the knowledge gained from this group is practical and reliable which persuade them to try those techniques without reluctance (section 4.3.3, POI 20 for T2 and POI 21 for T3). The results of the present study were in line with Keay *et al.* (2014); Own (2014) and Murugaigh *et al.* (2016) whose studies emphasise the role of trust and collegial relationship fostering teacher learning in professional learning community (PLC). Owen (2014) investigated three Australian models of school-based professional learning regarding their application of PLC which is founded on SCT framework. The results of the semi-structured interview and a focus group in her study show that key characteristics of PLC including a shared vision, teacher inquiry, and joint involvement in practical tasks are found in all three schools. The results show that trust and collegial relation are the most important feature of effective PLC. Clearly, trust amongst members is essential for sharing in professional dialogue.

However, the findings of the current study add another aspect from the previous studies (such as Lencioni (2002); Wiseman (2008); Wiseman and Arroyo (2011)) which emphasise trust of members in a professional group. In the previous studies, trust which is a key factor leading to knowledge shared in a professional learning group refers to and focus on only teacher members who attend the group. In this present study, a trustable source of knowledge refers to the techniques employed in actual classes, not a more teaching experienced teacher who shares the techniques. The main reason persuading them to follow the techniques shared among peers is

because the teachers already tried out the new teaching techniques in their actual class. Therefore, the trust regarding the experience of teachers might not play a major role in influencing other teachers' decision making of the techniques teachers would follow in the future class.

The fourth reason involves faces. One remarkable finding of this study which extends knowledge relating to DR is that the feature of DRs can also lead to negative effects on teachers. The findings of this study indicate that unsuccessful instructional behavior was a common topic in teachers' reflections of their individual teaching practice. However, it reveals the weaknesses of individual teachers in DRs. The results suggest that sharing what individual teachers practice in a similar fashion might cause shame or embarrassment for some teachers as they might think this is a way of "comparing" their practice (section 4.3.3, excerpt 4.49).

The findings of the current study support the previous studies of Stone-Romero and Stone (2002) and Shipper *et al.* (2007) who find that negative feedback is normally avoided in a collectivist culture like Asian culture in order to maintain harmony in the group. Moreover, the findings of the study support the idea of Komin (1990) who finds that Thai culture values "ego" identical as "face", saving or guiding behavior shared and practiced by people in the society, and of Ukosakul (2009) whose study shows that the loss of face is so powerful that it encourages or discourages certain behaviors. As face emerges in a social group interaction, a possible explanation for this might be that sharing in the group does not reveal only strength but also weaknesses, causing a loss of face without verbal comments being made (section 4.3.3 excerpt 4.49).

However, the results of this study are not supported by Little (2002) and Haberman (2004) whose studies suggest that teachers who felt that they were not well-accepted in the group avoided the group. In contrast, the results of this study show that T1 and T3 might feel embarrassed to hear comments or feedback from others (excerpts 4.28 for T1 and 4.49 for T3); however, they did not ignore or withdraw from the group. Instead, they put more effort into their instructional practice. It was clearly evident that the need for contribution making (not only to take but to share) in the group, and the negative feelings (losing face) encouraged the teachers in the study to change their practice (section 4.3.3, excerpt 4.28 for T1 and excerpt 4.49 for T3).

A possible explanation might be that in order to "save face" or "gain face" within a group, teachers attempted to improve their instructional behaviors by adjusting some instructional

behavior or employing other teaching techniques in order to be able to share with others. This change or improvement in practice leads to more confidence in their beliefs and practices which then further enhances their face. Thus, it appeared that shared dialogic reflection in the same group members reveals their face, whilst at the same time encouraging them to save their face with changes in their teaching behavior.

It might be also possible to explain that teachers change in practice regarding face-saving is strongly influenced by the social-cultural context of and teachers' perceptions of their peers' expectation. T1 and T3 might feel that there was an expectation from their peers which encouraged them to employ new techniques so that they could contribute to others. After teachers had appropriated the instructional techniques or practical knowledge gained from the group, they used them in their own ways and their new practices sometimes influenced the techniques of others.

This might be explained that emotion is one of the important elements fostering learning within ZPD (Murphy *et al.*, 2015). In this present study, teachers engaged in DRs which encouraged them to contribute to the group. This shared dialogic reflective practice revealed both strengths and weaknesses or areas of improvement which was reflected in T3' reporting about losing face. Face saving is common for humans in a society or in social interaction (Baumeister *et al.*, 2005; Cappelen *et al.*, 2017) because individuals care about how others perceive their actions and what people think about them (Eriksson and Villeval, 2012). DR as a social-cultural learning activity influences the formation and development of thinking, it encourages T1 and T3 to save their face through changing their practice.

Another possible explanation might be that divergent social contexts influenced teachers' beliefs and practice differently. In contrast to previous studies of changes in beliefs and practices (such as Little, 2002; Harberman, 2004; Phipps and Borg, 2009; Borg, 2011) based on cognitive framework with western culture and Keay *et al.* (2014); Own (2014); Murugaigh *et al.* (2016) whose framework is on the application of SCT in PLC with western culture, this present study focused on a Thai context. It appears that different cultural contexts might have led to dissimilar influences or have variously formed new beliefs and practices. As learning occurs in a social-cultural context learners have been through, Thai teachers in this study might feel a need of contribution making or a need of changes in their instructional behavior after experiencing DRs in order to save or gain face. After hearing their own and other teachers' reflections, some teachers might have learned that others had better ways of classroom management and teaching techniques, and they might be aware that it was possible for them to

vary their practice like others. Therefore, the evidence strongly suggests that changing beliefs or practice might be caused by *contribution making* or *comparing* through DRs.

The final reason concerns *students' reaction* to teachers' new practice. It appears that students' active participation influences their continuation of new practices. It might be possible to explain that students' reaction(s) toward teachers' new practice boosted their confidence in instructional behaviors, which eventually persuaded them to change their practice or to maintain their new practice (section 4.3.4, excerpt 4.50). The study suggests that after implementing new teaching techniques, students' reaction and level of learning can be used as a means of assessment for teachers in deciding whether the new practice is worth conducting. However, it should be underlined that this might also be a 'Hawthorne Effect' or 'Observe Effect' (Labov, 1972; Monahan and Fisher, 2010) in which a new approach offered gets recipients more engaged.

The findings of this study are in accordance with a recent study indicating that change in students' learning outcome, which is considered as feedback provided from external sources, is crucial for teachers' practice change (Kang and Cheng, 2013). The results of this study are consistent with what Vygotsky (1978) underlines a new 'lived' experience (gaining during DRs) has influenced a reconstruction of new beliefs and practice. In this study after students actively participated, T3 and T5 have learned that their new practice was good for students which were the reason why they maintained their new practice.

Therefore, it appears that beliefs and practices are interrelated and that behavioral changes do not always originate from changes in beliefs. In this study, the context has changed from individual to social group learning; as a result, this group learning which is mediated through DRs has influenced changes in teachers' beliefs and practices.

The following show features of DR that might have led to teacher change.

5.5 Features of DRs leading to changes in beliefs and practices

It appears that teachers' beliefs and practices are not stable but changeable, and they are interrelated. The findings of the present study suggest that participating in DR sessions provided learning space and opportunities for teachers to experience teacher learning amongst peer teachers as features of DRs can trigger change. This section discusses the features of the DR, which appears to have led to change.

5.5.1 Enhancing awareness of beliefs and practices

The first feature leading to changes in beliefs and practices is raising awareness. It appears that the realisation of their current beliefs and practice seems to be an important factor initiating change. Paying explicit attention to beliefs and practice is crucial because if teachers are not aware of their current beliefs and practice, they cannot choose to act differently. In this study, DRs provide opportunities for teachers to examine and assess if their beliefs correspond with practices. T1 and T5 responded about the awareness and changes of their beliefs and practice after DRs (section 4.2.3, POI 9 for T1 and section 4.2.2, POI 6 for T5). It might be possible to explain that after they participated in DRs, reflecting on their own practice and listening to their peers' reflection trigger them to examine their belief. Then comparing their beliefs with others' accelerates the change in their beliefs and practice in a short time (section 4.2.3, POI 9 for T1 and section 4.2.2, POI 6 for T5). Furthermore, the teachers in this present study became aware of their beliefs and practice as a consequence of being asked through reflective questions in DRs (Appendix U for examples of reflective questions). Therefore, it is essential to make teachers notice the beliefs they hold and the practice they have which will enable them to examine and restructure their beliefs.

The findings of this study are in line with those which encourage teachers to examine other teachers' practices to gain better understanding of beliefs, values and experiences guided through the reflection process (Nolan *et al.*, 2005; Nolan, 2008; Leijen *et al.*, 2012; Leijen *et al.*, 2014) which eventually develops their teaching skills (Rieger *et al.*, 2013). The results of Nolan's study (2008) using focus groups with pre-service undergraduate students reveal that with support from a skilled facilitator proving guided questions, focus groups are meaningful and productive as they help pre-service teachers consider their practices, teaching theories, thoughts and reflection while hearing and considering their peers' reflections. Hearing their own and others' reflections help teachers to transform from their intermental to intramental functional levels. After internalisation of their own beliefs and practices, teachers reconstruct their new beliefs and practices. Accordingly, opportunities for teachers to examine the beliefs they hold is potential for beliefs and practice change.

5.5.2. Scaffolding

The second main feature facilitating belief and practice changes is scaffolding. The findings of this study support the positive role of social interactions occurring through reflective conversations that foster *sharing knowledge* (Allen, 2011; Nauman, 2011). The possible explanation might be that this social interaction mediated through DR as a social activity allows teachers to practice reflection (Hardford and MacRuairc, 2008; Chick, 2015; Mann and Walsh, 2017; ab Rashid, 2018) and gain practical knowledge, such as a wider vocabulary teaching repertoire and techniques to tackle pedagogical problems (Little, 2002; Hepple, 2010; Nehring *et al.*, 2011; Keay *et al.*, 2014; Owen, 2014; Haneda *et al.*, 2016; Murugaiah *et al.*, 2016). The results of the current study corroborate with Vygotsky (1978) who state that knowledge occurs through sharing in conversations among more and less experienced teachers and Mann and Walsh (2017) who emphasise that learning emerges through dialogic reflection shared with other peers (interpersonally) and then intrapersonally after they internalise what they have learned from the reflective conversations.

It is clearly evident that practical knowledge emerged as shown in their following some teaching techniques (excerpt 4.32 for T1) and creating their own techniques (excerpt 4.33 for T3, excerpt 4.40 for T5, excerpt 4.37 for T4). It might be possible to explain that practical knowledge is shared through a mediational tool of DR. After internalisation, teachers have appropriated the teaching techniques by using them in their own ways and this influenced the techniques of others. Teachers in the present study have opportunities to closely examine how they practice and learn from others' reflection. Through sharing in DR, they can reconsider some instructional aspects they might overlook in self-reflection. Peer members can provide scaffolding for them to tackle some instructional problems as they take turns to share their practice and teaching experience relating to others' practice. Changes in their practice result from a mediated meaningful activity of DR enables less knowing teachers to bridge their zone of proximal development. Thus, opportunities to share is essential for affordance resulting in teacher learning (Mann and Walsh, 2017).

The results of the present study support the role of interaction which allows teachers to learn from each other (Vygotsky, 1978). Asking teachers to reflect on their practice and hearing other teachers' reflection on their practice act as scaffolding that guides them to ponder their beliefs and practice. DR as a new socially and culturally interactional learning activity among more and less experienced teachers triggers them to examine or reflect on their own practice and to

hear other teachers' reflection. Therefore, the findings suggest DR as a learning process fosters higher mental thinking leading to professional development or changes in beliefs and practice.

Furthermore, it appears that DRs take place in a form of supportive and collaborative conversations (Mann and Walsh, 2017). The findings corroborate with ab Rashid (2018) whose study revealed that supportive conversation on FB fosters English language teachers' understanding of their practice which led to reconceptualisation of professional development. The results are in agreement with Murugaiah *et al.* (2016) who investigated the use of Web technologies promoting the online communities of practice (CoPs). The findings of their study show that this online affordance helps teacher members reflect on their practice, develop new teaching skill in a supportive and collaborative atmosphere. It is possible to state that support among the professional group facilitates change (Lipka and Ilutsk, 2014). In this study, the DRs promote support or collaboration as this sharing in reflective dialogues leads to the collaborative construction of opportunities for learning which creates intersubjectivity or joint meaning making (Mann and Walsh, 2017).

The possible explanation might be that in this current study, participating in the DRs provides opportunities or learning space for teachers to share and discuss how to solve instructional problems which eventually improve their practice (Mann and Walsh, 2017). The findings of the present study are supported by Tam (2015) whose study shows that the opportunities for teachers' collaboration are essential as it allows teachers to examine their beliefs and practice, to learn and feel supported which eventually fosters teacher learning. Additionally, the findings support Bain *et al.* (2002) and Fakazil and Gönen (2017) who found that engaging teachers in a discussion, analysis, and interpretation of classroom events, and having interactions with others allows sharing different voices. The results were in line with those of DuFour and DuFour (2009); Hord (2009); Mann and Walsh (2013, 2017); Fakazli and Gönen (2017) whose findings show that sharing among peer teachers facilitates new knowledge which optimises learning.

In essence, the results of the present study support the role of dialogic reflection in which learning is mediated through a symbolic tool of language (Vygotsky, 1978) in DRs which allows new understanding or novel knowledge to be co-constructed, internalised and appropriated through a dialogic reflective process (Mann and Walsh, 2017). Participating in DRs offers opportunities to foster the interplay between spontaneous and scientific concepts as DR involves dialogues among more and less experienced teachers about a 'lived' classroom experience. In the study, dialogic mediation in which teachers and important interlocutor

sharing and acknowledging the importance of contributions could lead to teacher learning or changes in beliefs and practices. Through sharing the instructional problems and challenges with each other, teachers have opportunities to reach intersubjectivity (Wertsch, 1985).

Apart from the sharing of knowledge through social interaction in DR, *scaffolding* in the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) through *reflective questions* and *constructive comments* facilitated in DRs may have led to teacher change. It can be explained that after teachers shared their reflection, some questions were distributed to raise teachers' awareness of their practices (see sample questions in Table 3.4). The facilitated question and comments made by me and other teachers (Appendix T for samples of transcripts of DR1) might have led to their knowledge construction (section 4.3) because the teachers did not only follow but also adjusted or initiated their vocabulary teaching techniques and improved their instructional behavior.

The findings of the present study are in line with Mercer and Littleton (2007) and Mercer (2008) whose studies support the important role of questions promoting thinking. The results of the current study are agreement with Leijen *et al.* (2012) whose findings show that questions relating to reflection is a way of scaffolding in professional dialogues and with Bolam *et al.* (2005) and Vescio *et al.* (2008) who emphasize reflective professional inquiry as one of the characteristics of effective professional learning. Moreover, the results of the present study corroborate with what Poom-Valickis and Mathews (2013) found that scaffolding through questions can lead to teacher change.

Another possible explanation might be that *regular feedback* facilitated during shared dialogic reflection leads to teacher development. The findings of the current study support previous research into this teaching/learning which links practice and feedback. The results of the current study seem to further support the idea of Kang and Cheng (2013) who suggest that feedback on new practice from various sources, including teachers' own perception of the teaching and learning and others, should be regularly conducted to solidify a new practice to become the new norm in the classroom. The results of this study are in accord with recent studies (Richards, 2008; Burns, 2009) indicating that the formation of teachers' personal pedagogical knowledge requires hands-on experience of new practice and feedback from various sources, as a means for teachers to elaborate and understand or make sense of such knowledge.

Therefore, DR provides scaffolding through sharing knowledge, reflective questions and comments and regular feedback to teachers to move from peer-assistance level to self-assistance level.

5.5.3 The continuing process of teacher learning

The third feature of DRs is a continuing process of teacher learning. The results of the present study show that participating in DR sessions allowed teachers to continuously reflect on their practice and then practice after reflection. A possible explanation might be that these regular weekly meetings in DR sessions allow teachers to continuously reflect on their teaching which promotes the interrelated relationship between the reflection and the practice (Kemmis, 2011; Kang and Cheng, 2013; Yuan and Lee, 2014). The results of the study further support the ideas of Garmon (2005) and Brookfield (2017) who suggest that regular reflection is essential for all teachers as a means of professional development.

Regular reflection and practice help teachers to frequently encounter a new ‘lived’ experience created through the mediation of DR. Experiencing reflective practice and putting new ideas into practice promote higher mental thinking or learning and bridging the ZPD zone from peer assistance to self-assistance level. Consequently, these regular meetings promote a reflective cycle encouraging teachers to explore and learn from real practices, which eventually foster teacher change or professional development as seen in Figure 5.1.

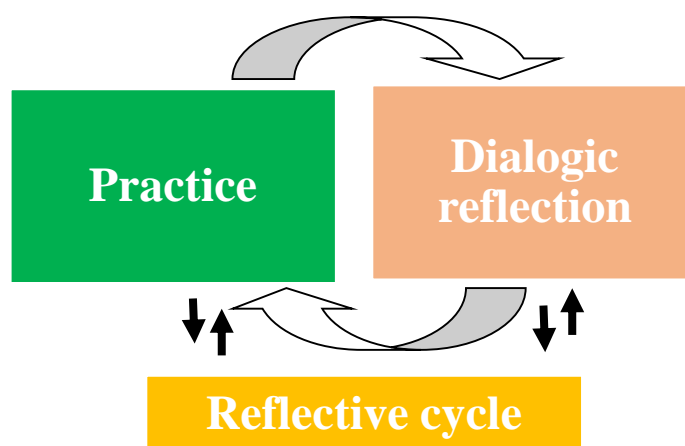


Figure 5.1 Relationship between practice and dialogic reflection

It appears that learning is mediated through language occurring in a dialogic process as meanings are co-constructed in dialogues fostering an understanding of professional learning (Mann and Walsh, 2017). The interwoven relationship between practice and belief triggered and examined through DR (reflective questions and comments) between more and less experienced teachers promoted the change process. Regular meetings of DRs promote the examination of current practice and learning from each other facilitating cognitive change which subsequently leads to further behavioral modification and professional development and

vice versa. Thus, regular reflection and practice contribute to beliefs construction and practice adjustment, and without their implementation of new practice, their beliefs might remain the same.

Considering all the features of DRs, Figure 5.2 briefly summarises and explains how DR operated and led to teacher change.

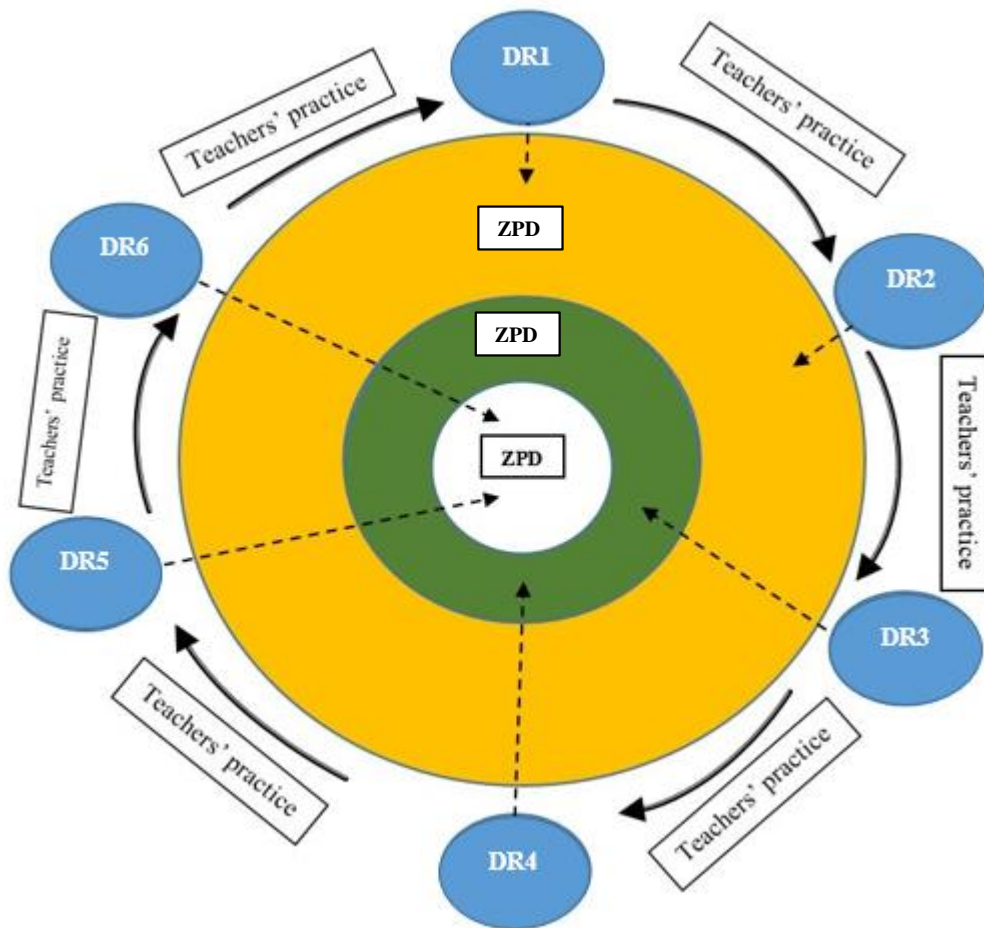


Figure 5.2 Development in teachers' ZPDs through dialogic reflection

Figure 5.2 is adapted from Vygotsky's ZPD (1978). His original figure consists of three circles in which learners in the outer circle cannot achieve a task even though assistance is provided, followed by those in the middle circle which need some assistance to accomplish the task. In contrast to those two circles, learners in the innermost circle can complete the task without any assistance. Moreover, it was created based on a combination of Vygotsky's ZPD (1978) and Schwieter (2010) whose findings show that learning occurs over time, within several ZPDs, through assisted scaffolding.

As shown in Figure 5.2, there are three different sizes of ZPDs circle. ZPD represents the stage of learning through DR. Different ZPD circles represent different levels of support which teachers might need. Before participating in the community teachers have different instructional skills and teaching experience, and their personal knowledge can appear at different times during DR sessions. In this study, the continuity of reflection and practice allows some knowledge to be gradually formed as this teaching-learning cycle occurs repeatedly. In the beginning, some members of the DRs who may lack or may be unaware of some vocabulary teaching techniques were supported by more skillful members of the group in DR 1 and 2, as seen in the biggest outermost ZPD circle. After that, a similar process between reflection and practice repeatedly takes place, which helps teachers to form some knowledge as shown in the second ZPD circle. After several reflections and practice, teachers eventually become more independent learners; therefore, the ZPDs are smaller and smaller because they need less and less assistance, as seen in the innermost circle. For instance, T1 and T3 improved their teaching relating to time management (POI 10 and 11). In the beginning, T1 and T3 had a problem with classroom management; however, after several DRs, their change in classroom management was observed. This example shows that there is some learning or some change taking place after teachers dialogically reflected on their practices. As the study mainly explored if dialogic reflection could lead to teachers' shift in beliefs and practices, the evidence clearly shows that through several dialogic reflections, some teachers gradually learned and eventually changed their beliefs and practice without much assistance from other members.

In this study, the interrelation between reflection and practice is added into the figure because it is repeatedly promoted during the two-month or eight-week-period of the data collection. It is noticeable that dialogic reflection allows teachers to reflect on their self-practice, which in a way acts as scaffolding to the teachers to learn and improve their pedagogical knowledge, through the sharing of knowledge, questions and constructive comments through reflective interaction. After reflecting and sharing on the past teaching experience in the first DR session, some teachers adopted and adapted their colleagues' ideas into practice. Then, they gathered again to reflect on their practice. It appears that this encourages teachers to connect what they have learned with actual practice periodically. To be more specific, it happened almost every week in the study. Moreover, it appears that whenever there is a meeting of DR, teachers who may not understand some particular points of the previous sessions seemed to be able to gain more insight in the following sessions. Similarly, teachers who only just received the knowledge imparted in the previous sessions may learn more from others who have already implemented what they have learned in subsequent sessions. The advantages and disadvantages

of the shared techniques may be also seen and even implemented by the teachers who would never have had a chance to put it into practice. Whenever there was a sharing of knowledge through DRs, some teachers who may not have picked up some points in the previous sessions might gain knowledge in the following sessions, and some teachers who just listened to the knowledge shared in previous sessions may learn more from the teacher who had already tried out what they had learned in subsequent sessions. Some teachers who may never try the shared techniques may see greater possibilities of how to implement the techniques and become more convinced or aware of advantages and disadvantages, including how to improve the techniques. Furthermore, it is noticeable that some teachers adapted some techniques based on what was shared in the group, and some initiated some teaching techniques. This sharing of knowledge promotes learning among peers in a supportive, informal environment. Therefore, the connection between dialogic reflection and practice leads to knowledge formation, through a teaching and learning cycle.

In summary, DR could lead to changes in teachers' beliefs and practices. The present study confirms the interwoven relationship between beliefs and practices. Teacher change differs variedly and individually. Opportunities to meet and share reflection enable teachers to examine their beliefs and practices and eventually reconstruct beliefs and modify instructional behaviours through DRs. One of the factors leading to changes differs from other previous studies is about the issue of *face* which was reported to lead to change in beliefs and practices. Moreover, reflection and practices are also interrelated. With the support of minimal self-or-other regulation, teachers shared knowledge and assistance through DR as a means of mediation. Knowledge is not static. Teachers may learn through the interplay between knowledge gained from DR and personal experiential knowledge or 'lived' experience. Therefore, beliefs and practices are interrelated and belief and practice change can be mediated through language in DRs which differ culturally and socially as seen in Figure 5.3.

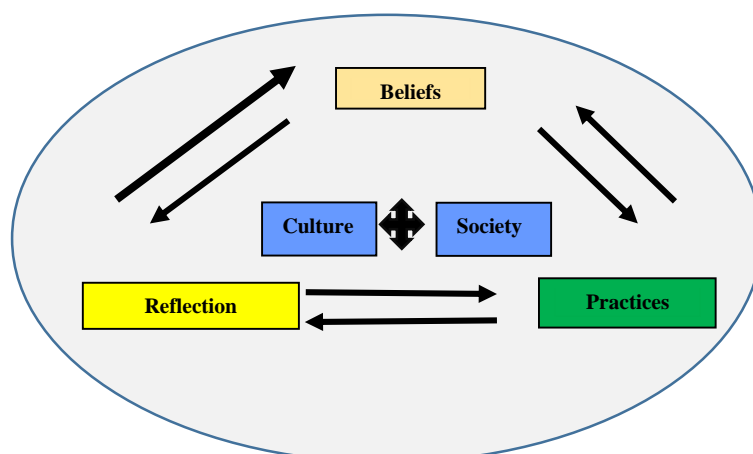


Figure 5.3 Interrelationship of features fostering changes in beliefs and practices

5.6 Summary

This chapter presents discussions of the main findings in order to show which findings are in line, or not in line, with other previous studies. In the final chapter, the conclusions of the study are presented, along with the implications, the limitations of this study and suggestions for further research.

Chapter 6. Conclusions

6.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a brief summary of this study (section 6.2), main findings (section 6.3), the implications for professional development (section 6.4), the contributions of this study (section 6.5), limitations of the study (section 6.6), recommendations for future research (section 6.7) and concluding remarks (section 6.8).

6.2 Summary of the study

This study investigated how dialogic reflection could lead to changes in beliefs and practices of five Thai university teachers of English relating to vocabulary instruction in reading. To explore the influence of DRs on teacher change, their beliefs pre- and post-DRs were investigated through PRI and POI, and their practices pre- and post- DRs were mainly examined through classroom observations.

The major theoretical framework underpinning this study was a socio-cultural learning theory (section 2.7). It was mainly utilized to explain changes in beliefs and practice. However, other literature concerning language teacher beliefs (section 2.2), vocabulary instruction (section 2.3), reflection (section 2.5) and dialogic reflection (section 2.6) was also combined in interpreting the data in order to confirm understanding and to validate the interpretation of the data before building up new knowledge.

The study addressed the following questions:

1. How did dialogic reflection influence on the teachers' beliefs relating to vocabulary teaching in reading pre-post reflective practice?
2. How did dialogic reflection influence on the teachers' practices relating to vocabulary teaching in reading pre-post reflective practice?

6.3 Main findings

The study revealed that beliefs and practices are interwoven and DR influenced their beliefs and practice change. After post-DRs, shifts in teachers' beliefs were reflected in their practice change which was reported in three main themes of important roles of vocabulary teaching, word knowledge, and pedagogical knowledge. Their belief changes were categorised into three main ways: awareness of current practice, increase of confidence in or confirmation of pre-existing beliefs and adoption of new beliefs. These shifts were shown in their practice change post-DR including a greater emphasis on VT through a variety of teaching techniques, an addition of word knowledge on productive skills of pronunciation and use in a sentence and provision of more exposure through revision of vocabulary in games and exercises. The results show that DR in the form of a group creates a new social context which allowed teachers to reflect on their own and other teachers' practice and to learn from each other, and this new context of social learning activity of DR influenced on teachers' change in beliefs and practices.

The reasons are clearly evident that DR influenced on teacher change included a willingness to learn, willingness to change, saving face, a need of contribution making and learning from a trustable source. Without sharing through DR, this learning might not take place. The results suggest that DRs provided a learning experience for professional development. These DRs fostered teachers' scaffolding leading to the practice of reflection, the sharing of knowledge and teachers' development from actual to potential levels in ZPD zones. The data suggest that initially, dialogic reflection on practice raised their awareness of current beliefs and practices and facilitated practical knowledge which eventually shaped their practice. Then, continuing process of learning through regular participating in DRs promoted the interrelated relationship between the dialogic reflection and the practice leading to professional development.

Moreover, the findings suggest that behavioural changes do not always originate from changes in beliefs, although beliefs and practices are interrelated. The results of this study indicate that the teacher participants in this study reconstructed their beliefs and maintained their change in practice after they experienced students' reaction in the classroom. Students' active participation is another factor influencing teachers' decision making in the classroom. Therefore, the results confirm the reciprocal relationships between beliefs and practice.

However, it is worth noting that some of the findings of the present study conflict with those found in the literature. It appeared that shared DRs can cause teachers to lose face which influenced the improvement of their practice. According to the literature, trust in a professional

learning community is one of the most important components, and teachers who felt that they were not well-accepted in the group would avoid participating in the collaborative learning group. In contrast, it appeared that teachers in this study acknowledged the negative effect but instead of withdrawing from the group, they put more effort into their instructional improvement. Thus, it is possible to argue that DR influences on changes in teachers' beliefs and practices relating to vocabulary instruction. However, these changes vary from person to person and the influence of DR on their changes may not be radically diverse, but teachers' beliefs and practice are open to change.

6.4 Implications for professional development

With the provision of teacher training on vocabulary instructions and provision of DR, this study will hopefully be a springboard for teacher education, or teachers in general, to pay more attention to vocabulary instruction in classrooms. This section focuses on discussions of two major implications of the present study.

6.4.1 Provision of teacher training on vocabulary instructions

The evidence from the study suggests that training on vocabulary instructions should be provided for teachers. The results of this study reveal that teachers have only a partial understanding of the emphasis on vocabulary instruction, word knowledge, and pedagogical knowledge and that rely purely on teaching experience is insufficient to facilitate adequate pedagogical knowledge. Even though some teachers have seven or eight years of teaching experience, it is difficult for them to improve their pedagogical knowledge without being given specific training. Apart from 'lived' experience as a learner and teacher practitioner (Richards and Lockhart, 1994; Tsui, 2003; Borg, 2015), professional coursework is another source of teachers' beliefs and knowledge (Cabaroğlu and Roberts, 2000; Hall, 2005; Poynor, 2005; Borg, 2015). Consequently, it is crucial for both the less and the more experienced teachers to receive training as a means to further develop their professional knowledge.

Furthermore, the way in which teachers were taught when they were language learners influences on what they believe is the most appropriate or practical practice (Borg, 2003; Ellis, 2006, Borg, 2015). As 'lived' experience as a learner plays a very important role in teachers' beliefs and practice, it is highly important to emphasise vocabulary instruction even more in a

formal education so that good practice in vocabulary instruction learned at school will gradually impact on practice for students who would like to be teachers in the future.

6.4.2 Provision of DRs in teacher education/trainings

The results show that DRs successfully contribute to knowledge enhancement and the practice of reflection on instructional behaviours, which eventually facilitate changes in beliefs and practices (see sections 4.2 and 4.3).

Knowledge enhancement

Engaging teachers to reflect on their teaching and to talk about their teaching and learning experience shapes and facilitates teachers' knowledge construction, which is mediated through dialogic reflection or reflective interaction amongst both the less and the more experienced teachers in a supportive environment.

The results support the theoretical principle of sociocultural learning theory (SCT) in which knowledge is built up through language, a symbolic tool (Vygotsky, 1978) mediated through dialogic reflection or reflective conversations. Following SCT, the social construction of knowledge occurs in the actual interaction. Knowledge is socially created during conversations among groups of experts and novices (Woods, 2003). The results of the present study reveal that shared dialogic reflective practice among peers fosters internalisation and affordance of new understanding or knowledge to teachers (Mann and Walsh, 2017). Moreover, learning through dialogic reflection including reflective questions and comments shared in the group promotes scaffolding through mutual assistance amongst peer teachers, providing the ability to self-assistance with more confidence in teaching (Schwieter, 2010). Furthermore, several studies have shown that knowledge is transferred more effectively and frequently in informal learning situations than during formal training (such as Kim and McLean, 2014; Ellinger, 2015). DR as a social interactional learning activity nurtures a collaboration or support between more capable and less capable teachers in a professional learning group, which fosters greater pedagogical understandings and the collective construction of knowledge (Hadar and Brody, 2010; Lieberman and Miller, 2011; Dobie and Anderson, 2015).

Reflective teaching

The findings of this study indicate that providing opportunities for reflective practices is crucial to enable teachers to become aware of their teaching beliefs and current practices which could foster teacher learning.

The results of this study show that unequivocal attention to the beliefs teachers hold is highly crucial as it could be the beginning of teachers' awareness of their current practice. Without the awareness of beliefs, it is difficult to form new ideas or habits of thought (Borg, 2009; Blake *et al.*, 2011). One of the techniques used to foster self-awareness or belief examination is a dialogic reflection, which eventually leads to professional development.

DRs can be used as an optional method of fostering reflective practice, which can be particularly useful to teachers who may never have received teacher training or attended educational courses to improve their professional career. Asking teachers, especially those who have never been trained to reflect on their teaching, is not easy; reflective questions could act as a scaffolding, leading them to deepen their understanding of their beliefs and teaching behaviours. Teachers develop their intellectual, experiential and attitudinal growth through DRs. Moreover, in this study, it was revealed that the teachers could manage some instructional problematic issues when reflecting with peers. Therefore, DRs promotes reflective teaching which can be used as a tool, fostering teachers to learn and develop their teaching in the profession (Corcoran and Leahy, 2003; Moon, 2013; Zuber-Skerritt and Cendon, 2014; Mann and Walsh, 2017).

Furthermore, the results show positive outcomes of the regular meetings of DR which strengthens the interrelationship between theory and practice. Provision of DR should be arranged regularly in order to promote the application of new ideas and the practice which would eventually promote professional development (Fakazil and Gönen, 2017).

Providing opportunities for teachers to experience DR helps increase the awareness of their beliefs and practice and helps them realise the advantages of reflection and being reflective.

The following section describes contributions to the study.

6.5 Contributions

The present study provides examples in the theoretical, practical and methodological aspects.

6.5.1 Theoretical contributions

Theoretically, this study makes some contributions to dialogic reflection promoting teacher learning. The little study found to date has actually investigated the influence of DR on changes in teachers' beliefs and practices relating to vocabulary instruction. Little investigation has been found that focuses on what changes can DR actually lead to and why DR actually influenced these changes. Unlike previous studies on DR investigating the effectiveness of sharing between teachers and students on their own teaching practices or between students and students regarding students' learning, this study focused on the influence of DR on changes in teachers' beliefs and practices. Thus, the results of the study contribute to the research gaps regarding influences of DR on changes in teachers' beliefs and practices based on sociocultural theory view and to understand how social activity of DR supports or helps to promote scaffolding to mediate the movement across from the zone of proximal development.

The present study supports the outcomes of changes in teachers' beliefs and practices or teacher learning through DR. The findings of the present study show that change in beliefs and practices is a result of shared process of joint knowledge construction carried out through language in DR. The results of the study reveal that practical knowledge is gained through the internalisation of a mediational tool of DR which has influenced on new beliefs and fostered new understanding in practice. The findings suggest that DR triggers and accelerates the connection between interpersonal (social) to intrapersonal (cognitive) planes.

DR involves contributions made by more and less experienced peer teachers who provide scaffolding for teacher learning (Lantolf, 2000). This study shows that DR requires teachers to engage in reflecting and sharing their own teaching experiences. Listening to how other teachers practiced, to how they solved problems, and to how shared comments made by peers raises their awareness, encourages them to compare their own practices with others, and enables them to learn new knowledge. This acts as a scaffolding for changes or reconstructing their beliefs and practices. In essence, through mediation in DR, teachers can have opportunities to reflect on their teaching practice, to share their teaching experience among novice or veteran teachers, to examine their existing beliefs and current practices, to gain knowledge shared among peers

in supportive and collaborative conversations, and to restructure their subsequent beliefs and practices leading to implementation of new instructional practices.

Additionally, this study fills research studies insufficient emphasis on the importance of peer-co-construction of knowledge (Roth and Radford, 2010). When teachers endeavour to share their perspective on how to improve some instructional practice, on teaching techniques, and classroom management related issues, they experienced a sense of accomplishment after putting out new ideas into practice based on students' active participation. This enhances understanding of beliefs and practices and eventually contributes to the development of thinking or development of beliefs and practices.

Within the ZPD, DR plays a central role in initiating and enriching reflective interaction and communication between teachers. Initially, DR plays a key role in learning space and scaffolding teachers' knowledge and practice. It initiates change in a way that it allows teachers to conceptualise their current beliefs and practice and reform new understanding of beliefs and adjust their teaching behaviour according to their own developing of practical knowledge and what is shared through DR. Thus, this social interactional activity of DR promotes teacher professional development.

The findings of this study confirm that DR as a social learning activity has the potential to enrich changes in teachers' beliefs and practice relating to vocabulary instruction. However, even though social interaction through DR influences on teacher change, this does not necessarily result in their change. The results of the present study show that this change may or may not occur depending on an individual's decision. Their willingness to learn and willingness to change were reported as one of the major reasons leading to changes in their beliefs and practices.

Apart from the positive influence of DR, the current study shows a negative side of losing face emerging through DR. The data shows that shared reflective dialogue required teachers to dialogically reflect on both strong and weak teaching practices among peers, therefore, it seems that DR could lead to some degrees of embarrassment. Importantly, regular participation in DR triggers teachers to pay more attention to both beliefs and practice and to improve some practices in order to save face among group peers. However, this study shows that opportunities to implement new ideas or techniques that increase students' motivation, and their continued active participation after teachers changed their practice, was found to be one of the reasons of practice change. Therefore, the findings indicate that the negative feeling turned out to be

positive as it encouraged teachers to improve their practices. However, it is worth noting that facilitator and peers need to be careful how reflective questions are targeted to teachers.

Furthermore, even though vocabulary is regarded as fundamental in language teaching and learning, there is no available empirical data of Thai university teachers' beliefs and their practices in direct relation to vocabulary instruction. Therefore, this study fills some gaps in research regarding teachers' beliefs and practices relating to vocabulary teaching (Borg, 2003; Borg, 2006; Hassankiade and Alsadat, 2012) focusing for the first time on the EFL Thai context.

The findings show that teachers' 'lived' experience as a language learner and language teacher obtained from the social context of school culture, students' background knowledge, teaching materials (textbooks and vocabulary exercises), and time influence their pre-existing beliefs and practice. As teachers appropriate various cultural artefacts, such as curriculum, syllabus, teaching methods, textbooks, and school culture, these contexts play an influential role in their belief development (Vygotsky, 1987; Lantolf, 2004).

6.5.2 Practical contributions

Practically, the data obtained from the study increases an understanding of the beliefs and the classroom practices of Thai university teachers. Moreover, the results further raise teachers' awareness of the roles of vocabulary instructions and dialogic reflection, which ultimately contributes to professional development (Bartels, 2005; Nolan, 2008; Mann and Walsh, 2017).

By engaging teachers in DR, they become more aware of their beliefs and practice. After reflecting on their own beliefs and practices and hearing others' reflection, they are likely to react in a future situation. DR facilitates the transformation from thought into action. It acts as a catalyst and as a scaffolding because it helps teachers to move across their ZPD and shows some alternative teaching methods that deem appropriate in their future classroom situation. Therefore, DR serves as a tool for the process of professional development.

The findings could also contribute to teacher training both in Thailand and beyond. Sharing in a group may reveal teachers' weak teaching skills; however, the study shows that the Thai teachers put more effort into gaining or saving face in order to achieve recognition from the community (Hwang *et al.*, 2003). As the concept of face is universal (Brown and Levinson, 1987), this concept should not only pervasive and important purely in Thai culture, but is also highly valued in other cultures. The findings of the study show that DR can facilitate teacher

change; therefore, the implementation of DR in the teacher education or teacher training can promote both pedagogical learning and changes in beliefs and practice, something which is practicable for both pre-service and in-service teachers from Thailand and other countries. In essence, professional development through DRs can be seen as another contribution of this study.

6.5.3 Methodological contributions

Methodologically, this study makes contributions to research on teachers' belief and practice change. This study promoted DR as a means to facilitate shifts in belief and practice. The results of the study support the implementation of DRs for teacher change in a short period of eight weeks and it is simpler in a relaxed atmosphere among colleagues.

Unlike other methods fostering professional development, DR can contribute to changes in beliefs and practices without much effort required from the participants. It can be seen that the concepts of DR are similar to group learning or learning communities which are defined as "ongoing groups ... who meet regularly for the purposes of increasing their own learning and that of their students" (Lieberman and Miller, 2008, p. 2). DR might be similar to a discussion after observation, too. Even though DRs share some similar characteristics, learning communities noted in other studies required a more complex process and time in practice (such as individual or collaborative action research (Atay, 2008; Banegas *et al.*, 2012), teacher study group (Boshell, 2002; Lamson, 2010), lesson study (Lee, 2008; Bocala, 2015; Cajkler *et al.*, 2015) and informal workplace learning (Mawhinney, 2010). To elaborate, lesson study was considered demanding as participants were required to prepare before the formal meetings and to work more after the meetings in order to improve their lesson plan. In addition, it was reported as stressful as their practices were observed by peers (Lee, 2008). On the contrary, a study by Mawhinney (2010) did not cause any stress and was not considered demanding because it took place when participants shared their pedagogical problems or experience during the routine activity of having lunch. However, this study could not prove if the participants would actually apply what they had learned from sharing with others in their classes. Moreover, the study was unstructured and took time due to the unpredictability of when this sharing could occur.

Unlike other methods, DR requires less processing and less time from participants. The participants can meet and dialogically reflect among peer teachers without preparation

beforehand. With regular meeting and contribution from more and less experienced teachers, practical knowledge emerges through social interaction. This regular sharing through DR acts as a scaffolding leading to internalisation and bridging their ZPD zones which eventually result in belief and practice change. Therefore, DR can be used as an alternative option for investigation of changes in teachers' beliefs and practices.

6.6 Limitations

Some limitations need to be considered. Firstly, the results of the present study may not be applicable to teachers in other contexts. This study was based on qualitative data from a relatively small number of five teachers; thus, they represent only a specific context, which cannot then be generalised to typify the whole group of Thai university teachers of English or other EFL teachers.

Secondly, the insufficient timescale is another limitation of the present study. To investigate the influence of DR, it might be worth conducting a longitudinal study or a follow-up study to observe if there are any long-lasting influences on changes in teachers' beliefs and practices. However, due to time constraints, it impedes the construction of the longitudinal study.

Thirdly, this present study did not include data of dialogic reflection. It might be worth conducting research on the influence of DR on teacher changes in beliefs and practices by incorporating DR data in research design as a means of data triangulation in order to increase the validity of the data.

Fourthly, the teacher participants were asked to participate in DR sessions in which I was involved as a researcher. Even though this study was based on interpretivism, it is essential to be aware of my position to ascertain that no prejudice is involved. Primarily, evidence used to support the arguments is captured from what was stated by the teachers. Furthermore, many techniques were employed in order to ensure data validity, to increase its trustworthiness and to provide multiple perspectives and rich data; therefore, my position should not devalue the importance of the findings of this study.

6.7 Recommendations for further studies

The findings of this study provide the following insights for future research. To take this research a step further, first, this study examined influences of DRs on Thai university teachers' shift in beliefs and practices. Further studies on the influences of DRs could be carried out by following up how DRs were conducted in a minimum of a two-month time scale, in order to examine and confirm the influences of DRs on other university teachers in general. Moreover, it might also be useful to undertake further study of the influences of DRs on language teachers at other educational levels to confirm the effectiveness of DRs on teacher change.

Secondly, even though there is a similarity in teaching-related beliefs held by L2 teachers (Bell, 2005), they are not the same at all (Kissau *et al.*, 2012). It might be useful to conduct a similar study with different Thai teacher participants in order to gain insights of what beliefs regarding vocabulary instruction the majority of Thai teachers hold and to reaffirm the data to reflect current vocabulary teaching circumstance in Thailand. Furthermore, a similar study should be investigated in different contexts or countries in order to contribute to this body of research.

Thirdly, a longitudinal study is recommended in order to examine if DRs can influence a shift in teachers' beliefs and practice in the long term. This study was undertaken for two months, and observation paradox is a condition that always occurs especially when conducting classroom observation (Labov, 1972). Thus, to confirm if DRs can really influence on a change in teacher's beliefs and practices whilst minimizing the effect of observation phenomena, a longitudinal study should be conducted in order to consider the lasting influences of DRs on teacher change.

Fourth, this study examined beliefs pre- and post-DRs through interviews. Further studies on beliefs may include the data derived from classroom interactions in order to better understand the complexity of beliefs (Li and Walsh, 2011). Moreover, the results of classroom observation or classroom interactions can be utilised to triangulate teachers' beliefs pre- and post-DRs which are reflected in classroom interactions.

Fifth, this study used pictures which could reveal only some particular moment of the action took place or the situation going on in a classroom when teacher participants shared their reflection among peers. Further studies may include other tools, for example, a video which can help teachers to focus on a particular moment or use as a springboard for shared reflection (Mann and Walsh, 2013, 2017).

Sixth, in this study, I was a facilitator who asked reflective questions and monitored their interactions to be certain that all the teachers had opportunities to reflect on their practice and to share their opinions concerning any issues emerging during DR session. DR sessions in further studies may not include an outsider as a facilitator to examine whether there will be any differences in the results regarding teacher change if they just reflect among peers.

6.8 Concluding remarks

This study expands the understanding of beliefs and practices held by Thai university teachers in an EFL context in relation to vocabulary instruction in reading pre- and post-DRs. In addition, it shows the influences of DR on the shift in teachers' belief and practice.

The main argument of this study was that DRs influenced some changes in teachers' beliefs and practices. These influences may not be radically diverse in relation to the change of beliefs and practice in all teachers. However, it at least enables them to consider their current practices, highlights how sharing of dialogic reflection also leads to increasing practical knowledge and informs on how dialogic reflection as scaffolding supports teachers in order to allow them to become self-assisted teachers.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Consent form



Participation Consent Form

Researcher's statement

I hereby confirm that the participant was given an opportunity to ask questions about the research project, and all the questions asked by the participant have been answered correctly and to the best of my ability.

Miss Woralak Bancha

.....

.....

Researcher's name

Signature

Date

Consent given by participant

By signing this form, I confirm that I have read the information sheet enclosed with this form and I agree to take part in this research project.

.....

.....

.....

Participant's name

Signature

Date

Appendix B: Information sheet for students



Participant Information Sheet

Research Title: Influences of Dialogic Reflection on Changes in Beliefs and Practices of Thai University Teachers of English Relating to Vocabulary Instruction in Reading

Invitation

I would like to invite you to take part in this research project. One of the main purposes of the study is to examine teachers' beliefs and practices relating to vocabulary teaching, and one possible way to obtain the data is to observe an actual class. Your participation is entirely voluntary and is appreciated as the primary data source of this research project.

Research procedure

In this study, actual classroom practice will be video recorded for about two months. The recorded data will be used only for the purpose of research analysis. I can assure that your identity will not be shown in public, and anonymity will be assured.

Participants' right

Please note that your participation is voluntary. You are free to withdraw from the research participation at any time if you would like to. To show that you agree to take part in this research project, you will be asked to sign a consent form enclosed with.

Researcher's contact information

You can contact the researcher for questions and further details of this research at w.bancha@ncl.ac.uk.

Appendix C: Information sheet for teachers



Participant Information Sheet

Research Title: Influences of Dialogic Reflection on Changes in Beliefs and Practices of Thai University Teachers of English Relating to Vocabulary Instruction in Reading

Invitation

I would like to invite you to take part in this research project. The research aims to examine the beliefs and practices relating to vocabulary teaching in reading before and after the dialogic reflections. Your participation is entirely voluntary and is appreciated as the primary data source of this research project.

Research procedure

In this study, actual classroom practice will be video recorded for about two months, and the dialogic reflection will be arranged for about six times. The recorded data will be used only for the purposes of research analysis. I can assure that your identity will not be shown in public. Pseudonym will be used and only your utterances will be shown in research chapters.

Participants' right

Please note that your participation is voluntary. You are free to withdraw from the research participation at any time if you would like to. To show that you agree to take part in this research project, you will be asked to sign a consent form enclosed with.

Researcher's contact information

You can contact the researcher for questions and further details of this research at w.bancha@ncl.ac.uk.

Appendix D: Course syllabus

Course Syllabus

417-102: English Reading and Writing 3(3-0-6) Credits

Semester: 2/2014 Department of Western Languages

Course Category: Fundamental course for first-year students

Course Description: Developing reading skills focusing on main ideas and vocabulary improvement; developing grammatical and meaningful sentences and short paragraph writing skills

Course Objectives:

1. To enhance students' abilities in English reading and writing
2. To enhance students' understanding of the culture of English-speaking countries
3. To encourage students to develop self-study habit
4. To provide students with basic knowledge and learning strategies for their future study

Course Content

Week/Date	Contents
Week 1 – 2 (12 - 23 Jan 15)	Unit 1: Around the World <ul style="list-style-type: none">- Reading: finding the topic- Writing: writing a complete sentence, using correct word order
Week 3-4 (26 Jan - 6 Feb 15)	Unit 2: A Special Animal <ul style="list-style-type: none">- Reading: finding the topic, identifying main ideas- Writing: making subject-verb agreement, using capital letters- Grammar: Simple Present, Simple Past- Exercise Unit 2Quiz#1: Unit 1, 2
Week 5-6 (9 - 20 Feb 15)	Unit 5: Housing <ul style="list-style-type: none">- Reading: identifying topic sentences- Writing: using 'There is/are', using descriptive adjectives- Grammar: Simple Past- Exercise Unit 5
Week 7-8 (23 Feb - 6 Mar 15)	Unit 3: The Art and Science of Food <ul style="list-style-type: none">- Reading: finding supporting sentences- Writing: making compound sentences with 'and, but, so and or', formatting a paragraph- Grammar: Simple Present, Present Continuous- Exercise Unit 3Quiz#2: Unit 5, 3
Week 9 (7 Mar 15)	Mid-term Exam

Week 10-11 (16 - 27 Mar 15)	Unit 4: Memory <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Reading: understanding pronoun reference - Writing: using time expressions - Grammar: Simple Past Tense - Exercise Unit 4 - Quiz#3: Unit 4
Week 12-13 (30 Mar - 10 Apr 15)	Unit 7: The Working World <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Reading: understanding signal words - Writing: using imperative - Grammar: Can and Imperative
Week 14-15 (13 - 24 Apr 15)	Unit 8: What's Next? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Reading: understanding cause and effect - Writing: using 'because' and 'so', using future time clauses, and if clauses - Grammar: Future tense - Exercise Unit 8 - Quiz#4: Unit 7, 8
Week 16 (27 Apr - 1 May 15)	Review
Week 17-18 (7 May 15)	Final Exam

Evaluation: Total 100%

- Exercises	15%	- Quizzes	15%
- Midterm Exam	35%	- Final Exam	35%

Grades:	A: 80-100	B+: 75-79	B: 70-74	C+: 63-69
	C: 57-62	D+: 49-56	D: 40-48	E: 0-39

Passing Score: 40 %

Grading Criteria: Criterion-Referenced Testing/Raw Score (อิงเกณฑ์/คะแนนดิบ)

Requirement: 80% of class attendance is required.

Textbook:

Lynn B. & Linda R. F., 2010, **From Reading to Writing 1**, USA: Pearson Longman.

Appendix E: The textbook: From Reading to Writing I

Summary of the book, from Reading to Writing 1

From Reading to Writing Series

Books 1, 2, 3, and 4

Lynn Bonesteel, Level 1

Karen Blanchard and Lynn Bonesteel, Level 2

Linda Robinson Fellag, Level 3

Collin Ward, Level 4



Linda Robinson Fellag, Series Editor

Beginning – Advanced

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- Explicit reading and writing skill instruction guides students to become better learners.
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- Step-by-step process-writing assignments with peer feedback, editing, and revising help students master common academic genres and rhetorical forms.
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 - Provides students with immediate individualized feedback on Grammar, Usage, Style, and Mechanics.
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Source: http://www.longmanusahome.com/images/stories/2010_Catalog/sections/2010catalog_writing

Appendix F: Sample interview questions in a pilot study

Before Pilot	After Pilot
How to teach (Pedagogical knowledge)	
1. Do you normally teach vocabulary in reading lessons?	√
1.1 To what extent can vocabulary be acquired through reading? Why?	1.1 What do you think about this statement, vocabulary can be acquired through reading? (Prompts: Do you agree or disagree that vocabulary can be acquired through reading? Why?)
1.2 <u>When</u> should vocabulary be taught or introduced in reading lessons? Why?	√
1.2.1 Could you give some examples of <u>how</u> you <u>teach</u> or introduce vocabulary <u>in reading lessons</u> ? (Prompts) – Pre-teaching - While teaching - Post-teaching - Guessing words from contexts - Analysing words - Using a dictionary - Mnemonic technique	√
What to teach (Word knowledge)	
2. What aspects of words do you <u>introduce in reading lessons</u> ?	2. What aspects of words do you think you should introduce in reading lessons? Prompts: meanings, parts of speech, etc.
	2.1 Why do you introduce those aspects?
3. Important roles of vocabulary teaching	

<p>1. What do you think about this statement “The most important part of a foreign language is learning vocabulary words.”?</p>	<p>1. What do you think about this statement “The most important part of a foreign language is learning vocabulary/words.”?</p> <p>Prompt: Comparing to other skills of reading, writing, grammar and so on, do you think learning vocabulary is the most important part of learning a foreign language?</p>
<p>How vocabulary should be taught at a university level?</p>	<p>√</p>
<p>How much time do you think you spend on vocabulary teaching?</p>	<p>√</p>

Adapted from Zhang (2008)

**Appendix G: Sample questions of a pre-observational semi-structured interview
(English and Thai)**

Guided questions

English guided questions	Thai guided questions
1. Pedagogical knowledge	ความรู้ด้านการสอน
1. Do you normally teach vocabulary in reading lessons?	1. ปกติสอนคำศัพท์ในเรื่องที่อ่านบ้างมั๊ย
1.1 To what extent can vocabulary be acquired through reading? Why?	1.1 ท่านคิดว่าเราสามารถเรียนรู้คำศัพท์จากการอ่านได้อย่างไร ทำไม
1.2 <i>When</i> should vocabulary be taught or introduced in reading lessons?	1.2 ในบทเรียนวิชาการอ่าน ท่านสอนคำศัพท์ช่วงไหน
1.2.1. Why do you decide to do it at that stage?	1.2.1 ทำไมจึงตัดสินใจสอนในช่วงนั้น
1.3 Could you give some examples of <i>how</i> you <i>teach</i> or introduce vocabulary <i>in reading lessons</i> ? (Prompts) - Pre-teaching - While-teaching - Post-teaching - Guessing words from contexts - Analysing words - Using a dictionary - Mnemonic technique	1.3 โปรดยกตัวอย่างประกอบการสอนคำศัพท์ว่าสอนอย่างไร ตัวพร้อม - ก่อนสอน - ระหว่างสอน - หลังสอน การทายคำศัพท์จากบริบท การวิเคราะห์ส่วนของคำ การใช้พจนานุกรม เทคนิคนิว โมนิค (เชื่อมเสียงกับภาพในใจ)
2. Word knowledge	ความรู้เกี่ยวกับคำศัพท์
2 What aspects do you really <i>introduce in reading lessons</i> ?	2 สอนความรู้เกี่ยวกับคำศัพท์ด้านใดบ้างในวิชาการอ่าน
2.1 Why do you introduce those aspects?	2.1 ทำไมจึงสอนความรู้เหล่านั้น
3. Important roles of vocabulary	บทบาทสำคัญของคำศัพท์
3.1 What do you think about this statement “The most important part of a foreign language is learning vocabulary.”?	3.1 ท่านมีความคิดเห็นอย่างไรกับประโยคนี้ ส่วนที่สำคัญที่สุดของการเรียนภาษาต่างประเทศคือการเรียนคำศัพท์

3.2 How should vocabulary be taught at a university level?	3.2 ท่านคิดว่าระดับมหาวิทยาลัย ควรสอนคำศัพท์อย่างไร
3.3 How much time do you think you spend on vocabulary?	3.3 ท่านคิดว่าท่านใช้เวลาทำไหร่ในการสอนคำศัพท์

Appendix H: Sample of transcripts of pre-observational semi-structured interview (English and Thai)

Question	Responses (Thai)	Responses (English)
1. Pedagogical knowledge (How to teach)		
1. Do you normally teach vocabulary in reading lessons?	ใช่	Yes.
1.1 To what extent can vocabulary be acquired through reading? Why?	<p>คำศัพท์ปรากฏในเนื้อเรื่องที่อ่าน...</p> <p>...เรียนรู้จาก เรียนรู้คำศัพท์ในบริบทจริง นักเรียนจะได้ทราบวิธีใช้คำในบริบทที่แท้จริง ตัวอย่างเช่น หากสอนเพียง เช่น คำศัพท์เกี่ยวกับการทำอาหาร การทอด อบ นึ่ง นักเรียนจะไม่สามารถทราบวิธีการใช้ศัพท์ แต่หากมีข้อความประกอบอยู่ด้วย นักเรียนจะสามารถเรียนรู้คำศัพท์จากวิธีการทำไข่ต้มประมาณนี้</p> <p>ส่วนมากก็จะแปลจากภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาไทย พอนักเรียนเห็นคำในบริบท ฉันจะแปลประโยคและขอให้นักเรียนเดาว่ามันหมายความว่าอะไร</p> <p>นักเรียนไม่ได้ใช้เอกภาษาอังกฤษ หากใช้เฉพาะภาษาอังกฤษพวกเขาอาจไม่เข้าใจ</p>	<p>Words appear in reading passages...</p> <p>...learn from, learn vocabulary in real contexts. Students will know how words are used in a real context. For instance, if I teach only for example vocabulary about cooking, fry, bake, steam, students do not know how to use them, but if there is a text available, students can learn the target words from how to make boiled eggs something like this.</p> <p>Most of the time, I always translate from English into Thai. Students see words in contexts. I translate sentences and ask them to guess what it means.</p> <p>Students do not major in English. If I use only</p>

		English, they won't understand.
<p>1.2 <i>When</i> should vocabulary be taught or introduced in reading lessons?</p> <p>1.2.1. Why do you decide to do it at that stage?</p>	<p>คือลองมาหลายวิธีนะคะ ตอนแรกก็ทำตามทุกอย่างในหนังสือ ทำทุกอย่างตามหนังสือมีมา หนังสือจะเริ่มด้วยการสอนคำศัพท์ ประมาณ 10 คำ คือคิดว่ามันน่าเบื่อก็เลยข้ามหน้านั้นและให้นักเรียนอ่านเนื้อเรื่องเลย เวลานั้นนักเรียนเจอคำศัพท์ที่ไม่รู้จักก็จะให้เขาเดาความหมาย</p> <p>ตอนแรกก็ถามอาจารย์คนอื่นนะคะ อาจารย์เค้าแนะนำว่าควรให้นักเรียนเรียนคำศัพท์ก่อนตั้งแต่ต้นเพื่อจะได้เข้าใจความหมายของคำ</p> <p>คือเหมือนที่บอกนะคะ ให้นักเรียนจับคู่คำศัพท์กับความหมายของคำ มันน่าเบื่อ ความหมายคำศัพท์ที่ให้เป็นภาษาอังกฤษ นักเรียนภาษาอังกฤษอ่อนมา ทำแบบฝึกหัดไม่ได้ ก็ต้องแปลความหมายจากภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาไทยให้อีก พอแปลทุกๆคำก็น่าเบื่อ ก็เลยให้นักเรียนเริ่มอ่านเลย</p>	<p>I have tried many ways. Initially, I followed everything in the book. I did whatever the book offered. The book begins with teaching vocabulary. About 10 target words are highlighted in bold. I think it was boring, so I skipped that page and had students read the passage right away. When students met unknown words, I asked them to guess the meaning.</p> <p>In the beginning, I asked other teachers and they said vocabulary should be introduced at the beginning, so students know the meanings of words. Nonetheless, as I mentioned earlier, it was very boring to have students match words and definitions. The definitions are provided in English and students have low proficiency; therefore, they could not do the exercises. I had to translate the definitions from English into Thai. Translating every single word was very boring; thus, I had students directly begin with the passage.</p>

	<p>ในใจอยากสอนคำศัพท์ก่อนเริ่มอ่านนะคะ แต่ไม่มีเวลาคิดกิจกรรมเลย มั่นหน้าจะมีกิจกรรมที่น่าสนใจมากกว่าจับคู่คำกับความหมาย อย่างเช่นการใช้บัตรคำหรือแสดงบัตรคำแล้วให้นักเรียนเดาความหมาย แต่ยังไม่ได้เริ่มทำอะไรเลยคะ</p>	<p>In my mind, I want to teach words before reading but I have never had time planning any activities. There might be activities that are more interesting than matching words and definitions, such as using word cards or showing word cards and have students guess meanings, but I have never started doing anything yet.</p>
<p>1.3 Could you give some examples of <u>how</u> you <u>teach</u> or introduce vocabulary <u>in reading lessons</u>?</p>	<p>ส่วนมากตัวเองก็จะแปลและให้นักเรียนอ่านและเดา ความหมายในบริบท ให้นักเรียนบอกความหมายเป็นภาษาไทยและจากนั้นก็ยืนยันคำตอบให้อีกครั้ง ตอนนี้นั้นเริ่มสอนพวกเขาทั้งภาษาไทยและภาษาอังกฤษ</p>	<p>Mostly, I just translate and have students read and guess meanings in contexts. I ask them to tell me the meanings in Thai and then I confirm the answers with them again. Now, I begin teaching them both in Thai and English.</p>
<p>2. Word knowledge (What to teach)</p>		
<p>2. What aspects do you really <u>introduce in reading lessons</u>?</p>	<p>เน้นความหมายภาษาไทยนะคะ นักเรียนควรารู้ส่วนของคำ ทั้งคำนำหน้าและคำต่อท้าย ...</p> <p>อย่างเช่น คำที่มีเสียงคล้ายกัน เช่น ดี เสิร์ต และ เดสเสิร์ตมีเสียงคล้ายกัน ก็จะบอกพวกเขาว่าคำสองคำนี้มีสะกดคล้ายๆกันนะ และถามว่าพวกเขาอ่านออกเสียงคำเหล่านี้อย่างไร แล้วจึงสอนการออกเสียงที่ถูกต้องให้</p>	<p>I focus on L1 meanings. Students should know parts of speech, prefixes, and suffixes. ... for example, words that have similar sounds. For example, desert and dessert sound similar. I told them these two words have similar spellings, and I asked them how you</p>

	<p>ตัวเองจะเน้นการออกเสียงทุกคำ อยากให้นักเรียนเน้นเสียงได้ถูกต้อง</p> <p>ฉันสอนคำศัพท์ในหมวดเดียวกัน ด้วย อย่างเช่น เมื่อวานสอนเรื่องการ ทำอาหาร คำศัพท์ที่ต้องการสอนคือ เค็ม และสอนนักเรียนให้รู้คำศัพท์ เกี่ยวกับรสชาติอื่นในกลุ่มเดียวกัน ไปด้วย</p> <p>ส่วนมากใช้การแปลภาษาไทยนะคะ ก็จริงๆแล้วก็ไม่ได้รู้สึกดีที่ใช้ เทคนิคนี้ในการสอน เวลาแปล ก็ ต้องแปลทุกบท ก็กำลังพยายามหา วิธีที่ดีในการสอนนะคะ</p> <p>...เวลาสอนตัวเองจะเน้นสอน หน้าที่ของคำ ทุกครั้งตัวเองก็จะ</p>	<p>pronounced these words? Then I told them how to pronounce each word accurately.</p> <p>I focus on the pronunciation of every word. I want students to stress accurately.</p> <p>I also teach words in the same categories, for example, yesterday I taught cooking. ...The target word was salty, and I told them other words in the taste group.</p> <p>Mostly I use L1 translation. Actually, I do not feel good about using this teaching technique. When I translate, I have to do this with every chapter. I am trying to find a good way to teach.</p> <p>...When I teach, I emphasize parts of</p>
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	อธิบายส่วนของคำและขยายไปที่ ส่วนของคำนำหน้า และคำต่อท้าย	speech. Every time I will say what part of speech it is and then I expand to prefixes and suffixes.
3. Important roles of vocabulary (บทบาทสำคัญของคำศัพท์)		
3.1 What do you think about this statement “The most important part of a foreign language is learning vocabulary.”?	ไม่เห็นด้วยนะคะ เห็นด้วยตรงที่ว่า คำศัพท์สำคัญมาก แต่ไม่ใช่สำคัญ ที่สุด คือหมายความว่าคำศัพท์สำคัญ แต่ถึงแม้ว่านักเรียนจะรู้ทุกคำในเนื้อ เรื่องแต่นักเรียนก็ไม่ได้เข้าใจว่าเรื่อง ที่เค้ากำลังอ่าน การเข้าใจว่าวิธีการใช้คำมี ความสำคัญมากในความคิดของ ตัวเองนะคะ	I disagree. I agree that vocabulary is very important but not the most I mean vocabulary is significant but even though students know every word in a passage, they can't comprehend what they are reading. Understanding how words are used is more important in my opinion.
3.2 How should vocabulary be taught at a university level?	ในระดับนี้ครูควรเน้นกลยุทธ์การ เรียนรู้คำศัพท์โดยเฉพาะอย่างยิ่งการ ใช้บริบท แต่นักเรียนส่วนใหญ่อ่อน ภาษาอังกฤษดังนั้นก็เลยต้องใช้ ภาษาไทยในการอธิบายความหมาย ด้วยข้อจำกัดของเวลา ทำให้เป็นไปได้ ไม่ได้ที่จะเน้นเรื่องคำศัพท์ใน ห้องเรียน	At this level, teachers should focus on vocabulary learning strategies, especially by using context clues, but most students are weak at English, so I always have to use Thai translation to explain meanings. With time limitation, it is impossible to emphasize vocabulary in the classroom.
3.3 How much time do you think you spend on vocabulary?	ไม่นานมากนะคะ คิดว่าไม่เกิน 15 นาที ปกติจะอธิบายความหมายของ คำศัพท์ไปพร้อมกับเนื้อเรื่อง เมื่อ เห็นคำเป้าหมายก็จะหยุดและ	Not much at all. I think it is not more than 15 minutes. I always introduce meanings of

	อธิบาย แล้วจึงอ่านเรื่องต่อ จริงๆ แล้วในสองชั่วโมงจะสอนศัพท์และ เปลี่ยนไปสอนการอ่านเนื้อเรื่อง	words along the reading passage. When I see a target word, I stop and explain it and then continue with the reading. In fact, in two hours, words are taught and then switched to reading throughout the text.
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Appendix I: Sample of back translation of transcripts of pre-observational semi-structured interview

Questions	Transcripts (Thai version)	Back translation (English to Thai)	Differences between the Thai transcripts and back translation
1. Pedagogical knowledge (How to teach)			
1. Do you normally teach vocabulary in reading lessons?	ใช่	ใช่	√
1.1 To what extent can vocabulary be acquired through reading? Why?	คำศัพท์ปรากฏในเนื้อเรื่องที่อ่าน... ...เรียนรู้จาก เรียนรู้คำศัพท์ในบริบทจริงนักเรียนจะได้ทราบวิธีใช้คำในบริบทที่แท้จริง ตัวอย่างเช่น หากสอนเพียง เช่น คำศัพท์เกี่ยวกับการทำอาหาร การทอดอบ นึ่ง นักเรียนจะไม่สามารถทราบวิธีการใช้ศัพท์ แต่หากมีข้อความประกอบอยู่ด้วย นักเรียนจะสามารถเรียนรู้คำศัพท์จากวิธีการทำขนมปังปริมาณนี้	คำศัพท์ปรากฏในเนื้อเรื่องที่อ่าน... ...เรียนรู้จาก เรียนรู้คำศัพท์ในบริบทจริงนักเรียนจะได้ทราบวิธีใช้คำในบริบทที่แท้จริง ตัวอย่างเช่น หากสอนเพียง เช่น คำศัพท์เกี่ยวกับการทำอาหาร การทอดอบ นึ่ง นักเรียนจะไม่สามารถทราบวิธีการใช้ศัพท์ แต่หากมีข้อความประกอบอยู่ด้วย นักเรียนจะสามารถเรียนรู้คำศัพท์จากวิธีการทำขนมปังปริมาณนั้น	The degree of politeness in the back translation is higher than the Thai transcripts. The first example of the differences is the use of a subject pronoun, ฉัน (I) instead of omitted pronouns or ตัวเอง (I) and the use of object pronoun, พวกเขา (them) instead of เค้า (them).

	<p>ส่วนมากก็จะแปลจากภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาไทย พอนักเรียนเห็นคำในบริบท ตัวเองจะแปลประโยคและขอให้นักเรียนเดาว่ามันหมายความว่าอะไร</p> <p>นักเรียนไม่ได้เอ่ยภาษาอังกฤษ หากใช้เฉพาะภาษาอังกฤษเค้า อาจไม่เข้าใจ</p>	<p>ส่วนมากฉันจะแปลจากภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาไทย เมื่อนักเรียนเห็นคำศัพท์ในบริบท ฉันจะแปลประโยคและขอให้พวกเขาเดาว่ามันหมายถึงอะไร</p> <p>นักเรียนไม่ได้เอ่ยภาษาอังกฤษ หากใช้เฉพาะภาษาอังกฤษพวกเขาจะไม่เข้าใจ</p>	<p>Another example of differences is the use of time expression, <i>เมื่อ</i> (when) instead of <i>พอ</i> (when).</p>
<p>1.2 <i>When</i> should vocabulary be taught or introduced in reading lessons?</p> <p>1.2.1. Why do you decide to do it at that stage?</p>	<p>คือลองมาหลายวิธีนะคะ ตอนแรกก็ทำตามทุกอย่างในหนังสือ ทำทุกอย่างตามหนังสือมีมา</p> <p>หนังสือจะเริ่มด้วยการสอนคำศัพท์ ประมาณ 10 คำ คือคิดว่ามันน่าเบื่อก็เลยข้ามหน้านั้นและให้นักเรียนอ่านเนื้อเรื่องเลย</p> <p>เวลานักเรียนเจอคำศัพท์ที่ไม่รู้จักก็จะให้พวกเขาเดาความหมาย</p> <p>ตอนแรกก็ถามอาจารย์คนอื่นนะคะ อาจารย์เค้าแนะนำว่าควรให้นักเรียนเรียนคำศัพท์ก่อนตั้งแต่ต้นเพื่อจะได้เข้าใจความหมายของคำ</p>	<p>ฉันได้ลองหลากหลายวิธีมาก เดิมทีฉันทำตามทุกอย่างในหนังสือ ทำทุกอย่างที่หนังสือมีมา</p> <p>หนังสือจะเริ่มด้วยการเล่นสอนคำศัพท์ ประมาณ 10 คำ ฉันคิดว่ามันน่าเบื่อดังนั้นจึงข้ามหน้านั้นและให้นักเรียนอ่านเนื้อเรื่องทันที</p> <p>เมื่อนักเรียนพบกับคำที่ไม่รู้จักฉันจะให้พวกเขาเดาความหมาย</p> <p>แรกเริ่ม ฉันสอบถามอาจารย์ท่านอื่น พวกเขาแนะนำว่าควรให้นักเรียนเรียนคำศัพท์ตั้งแต่เริ่มต้น</p>	<p>The degree of politeness in the back translation is higher than the Thai transcripts.</p> <p>The first example of the differences is the use of a subject pronoun, <i>ฉัน</i> (I) instead of omitted pronouns or <i>ตัวเอง</i> (I) and the use of object pronoun, <i>พวกเขา</i> (them) instead of <i>เค้า</i> (them).</p> <p>The second example of the difference is the use of ending particles which were found in Thai transcripts but</p>

	<p>คือเหมือนที่บอกก่อนหน้านี้นะคะ ให้นักเรียนจับคู่ คำศัพท์กับความหมายของ คำมันน่าเบื่อ ความหมาย คำศัพท์ที่ให้ เป็น ภาษาอังกฤษ นักเรียน ภาษาอังกฤษอ่อนมา ทำ แบบฝึกหัดไม่ได้ ก็ต้อง แปลความหมายจาก ภาษาอังกฤษเป็น ภาษาไทยให้อีก พอแปล ทุกๆคำที่น่าเบื่อ ก็เลยให้ นักเรียนเริ่มอ่านเลย</p> <p>ในใจอยากสอนคำศัพท์ ก่อนเริ่มอ่านนะคะ แต่ไม่มี เวลาวางแผนกิจกรรม เลย มันน่าจะมีกิจกรรมที่ น่าสนใจมากกว่าจับคู่คำ กับความหมาย คำ อย่างเช่น การใช้บัตรคำหรือแสดง บัตรคำแล้วให้นักเรียนเดา ความหมาย แต่ยังไม่ ได้เริ่มทำอะไรเลยคะ</p>	<p>เพื่อจะได้เข้าใจ ความหมายของคำ ดังที่ได้กล่าวไว้ก่อนหน้า นี้ เป็นเรื่องที่น่าเบื่อที่ จะต้องให้นักเรียนจับคู่ คำศัพท์กับความหมายของ คำ ความหมายคำศัพท์ที่ ให้เป็นภาษาอังกฤษ นักเรียนทักษะ ภาษาอังกฤษไม่ดี จึงไม่ สามารถทำแบบฝึกหัดได้ ฉะนั้นจึงต้องแปลความหมาย จากภาษาอังกฤษเป็น ภาษาไทย การแปลทุกๆ คำเป็นเรื่องน่าเบื่อ ดังนั้น ฉะนั้นจึงให้นักเรียนเริ่มที่ ข้อเขียน โดยตรง</p> <p>ในใจต้องการสอนคำศัพท์ ก่อนจะเริ่มอ่าน แต่ฉันไม่มี เวลาในการวางแผน กิจกรรม มันอาจจะ มีกิจกรรมที่มีความน่าสนใจ มากกว่าการจับคู่คำและ ความหมาย เช่นการใช้ บัตรคำหรือแสดงบัตรคำ และให้นักเรียนเดา ความหมาย แต่ฉันยัง ไม่ได้เริ่มทำอะไรเลย</p>	<p>they were omitted in the back translation version.</p> <p>The third example of the differences is the use of verb, <i>เริ่มต้น</i> (begin) instead of <i>เริ่ม</i> (begin) and <i>ต้องการ</i> (want) instead of <i>อยาก</i> (want).</p> <p>Another example of differences is the use of time expression, <i>แรกเริ่ม</i> (initially) instead of <i>ตอนแรก</i> (initially) and <i>ดังที่ได้กล่าวไว้ก่อนหน้านี้นี้</i> (as mentioned earlier) instead of <i>คือเหมือนที่บอกก่อนหน้านี้นะคะ</i> (as mentioned earlier).</p>
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<p>1.3 Could you give some examples of <i>how you teach</i> or introduce vocabulary <i>in reading lessons</i>?</p>	<p>ส่วนมากตัวเองก็จะแปล และให้นักเรียนอ่านและเดาความหมายในบริบท ให้นักเรียนบอก ความหมายเป็นภาษาไทย และจากนั้นก็ยืนยัน คำตอบให้อีกครั้ง ตอนนั้นก็ เริ่มสอนพวกเขาทั้ง ภาษาไทยและ ภาษาอังกฤษ</p>	<p>ส่วนมากฉันก็จะแปลและ ให้นักเรียนอ่านและเดา ความหมายในบริบท ให้นักเรียนบอกความหมาย เป็นภาษาไทยและจากนั้นก็ ยืนยันคำตอบให้อีกครั้ง ตอนนั้นฉันเริ่มสอนพวกเขา ทั้งภาษาไทยและ ภาษาอังกฤษ</p>	<p>The degree of politeness in the back translation is higher than the Thai transcripts.</p> <p>The first example of the differences is the use of a subject pronoun, <i>ฉัน</i> (I) instead of omitted pronouns or <i>ตัวเอง</i> (I).</p>
<p>2. Word knowledge (What to teach)</p>			
<p>2. What aspects do you really <i>introduce in reading lessons</i>?</p>	<p>เน้นความหมายภาษาไทย นะคะ นักเรียนควรรู้อส่วนของคำ ทั้งคำนำหน้าและ คำต่อท้าย ...</p> <p>อย่างเช่น คำที่มีเสียง คล้ายกัน เช่น ดีเสิร์ด และ เดสเสิร์ดมีเสียงคล้ายกัน <i>ตัวเอง</i>ก็จะบอกพวกเขาว่า คำสองคำนี้มีสะกด คล้ายๆกันนะ และถามว่า พวกเขาอ่านออกเสียงคำ เหล่านี้อย่างไร แล้วจึง สอนการออกเสียงที่ ถูกต้องให้</p>	<p>ฉันเน้นความหมาย ภาษาไทย นักเรียนควร เรียนรู้ส่วนของคำพูด ทั้ง คำนำหน้าและคำต่อท้าย</p> <p>ตัวอย่างเช่น คำที่มีเสียง คล้ายกัน เช่น ดีเสิร์ด และ เดสเสิร์ด เสียงคล้ายกัน</p> <p>ออกพวกเขาว่าคำสองคำนี้มี สะกดคล้ายๆกัน และถาม พวกเขาว่าพวกเขาอ่าน ออกเสียงคำเหล่านี้ อย่างไร แล้วจึงสอนการ ออกเสียงที่ถูกต้องให้</p>	<p>The degree of politeness in the back translation is higher than the Thai transcripts.</p> <p>The first example of the differences is the use of a subject pronoun, <i>ฉัน</i> (I) instead of omitted pronouns or <i>ตัวเอง</i> (I).</p> <p>The second example of the difference is the use of ending particles which were found in</p>

	<p>ตัวเองจะเน้นการออกเสียง ทุกคำ <i>อยาก</i>ให้นักเรียน เน้นเสียง ได้ถูกต้อง</p> <p>ก็สอนคำศัพท์ในหมวด เดียวกันด้วย อย่างเช่น เมื่อ วานสอนเรื่องการ ทำอาหาร คำศัพท์ที่ ต้องการสอนคือ เก็ม และ สอนนักเรียนให้รู้คำศัพท์ เกี่ยวกับรสชาติอื่นในกลุ่ม เดียวกันไปด้วย</p> <p>ส่วนมากใช้การแปลภาษา ไทยนะคะ คือจริงๆแล้วก็ ไม่ได้รู้สึกดีที่ใช้เทคนิคนี้ ในการสอน เวลาแปล ก็ ต้องแปลทุกบท ก็กำลัง พยายามหาวิธีที่ดีในการ สอนนะคะ</p> <p>...เวลาสอนตัวเองจะเน้น สอนหน้าที่ของคำ ทุกครั้ง ตัวเองก็จะอธิบายส่วน ของคำและขยายไปที่ส่วน ของคำนำหน้า และคำ ต่อท้าย</p>	<p>ฉันจะเน้นการออกเสียง ทุกๆคำ ฉันต้องการให้ นักเรียนเน้นเสียง ได้ ถูกต้อง</p> <p>ฉันสอนคำศัพท์ในหมวด เดียวกันด้วย เช่น เมื่อวาน สอนเรื่องการทำอาหาร เป้าหมายของคำที่ต้องการ สอนคือ เก็ม และสอน นักเรียนให้รู้ศัพท์เกี่ยวกับ รสชาติอื่นไปด้วย</p> <p>ส่วนมากใช้การแปล ภาษาไทย <i>ที่จริงแล้วฉัน</i> ไม่ได้รู้สึกดีในการใช้ เทคนิคนี้ในการสอน เมื่อ ฉันแปล ฉันต้องแปลทุก บท ฉันกำลังพยายามหา วิธีที่ดีในการสอน</p> <p>...เวลาสอน ฉันเน้นสอน ส่วนของคำ ทุกครั้งฉันจะ อธิบายส่วนของคำและ ขยายไปที่ส่วนของคำ นำหน้า และคำต่อท้าย</p>	<p>Thai transcripts but they were omitted in the back translation version.</p> <p>The third example of the differences is the use of verb <i>ต้องการ</i> (want) instead of <i>อยาก</i> (want).</p> <p>Another example of differences is the use of adverb expression, <i>จริงๆแล้ว</i> (actually) instead of <i>ที่จริงแล้ว</i> (actually).</p>
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3. Important roles of vocabulary (บทบาทสำคัญของคำศัพท์)			
3.1 What do you think about this statement “The most important part of a foreign language is learning vocabulary.”?	ไม่เห็นด้วยนะคะ เห็นด้วยตรงที่ว่าคำศัพท์สำคัญมาก แต่ไม่ใช่สำคัญที่สุด คือหมายความว่าคำศัพท์สำคัญ แต่ถึงแม้ว่านักเรียนจะรู้ทุกคำในเรื่องแต่เค้าก็ไม่ได้เข้าใจเรื่องที่เค้ากำลังอ่าน การเข้าใจวิธีการใช้คำมีความสำคัญมากในความคิดของตัวเองนะคะ	ฉันไม่เห็นด้วย เห็นด้วยที่ว่าคำศัพท์สำคัญมาก แต่ไม่ใช่ที่สุด หมายความว่าคำศัพท์สำคัญ แต่ถึงแม้ว่านักเรียนจะรู้ทุกคำในเรื่องแต่พวกเขาไม่เข้าใจเรื่องที่พวกเขากำลังอ่าน การเข้าใจวิธีการใช้คำมีความสำคัญมากในความคิดของฉัน	The degree of politeness in the back translation is higher than the Thai transcripts. The first example of the differences is the use of a subject pronoun, <i>ฉัน</i> (I) instead of omitted pronouns or <i>ตัวเอง</i> (I) and the use of object pronoun, <i>พวกเขา</i> (them) instead of <i>เค้า</i> (them).
3.2 How should vocabulary be taught at a university level?	ในระดับนี้ครูควรเน้นกลยุทธ์การเรียนรู้คำศัพท์ โดยเฉพาะอย่างยิ่งการใช้บริบท แต่นักเรียนส่วนใหญ่อ่อนภาษาอังกฤษ ดังนั้นก็เลยต้องใช้ภาษาไทยในการอธิบายความหมาย ด้วยข้อจำกัดของเวลา ทำให้เป็นไปได้ที่จะเน้นเรื่องคำศัพท์ในห้องเรียนไม่ได้	ในระดับนี้ครูควรเน้นกลยุทธ์การเรียนรู้คำศัพท์ โดยเฉพาะอย่างยิ่งการใช้บริบท แต่นักเรียนส่วนใหญ่อ่อนภาษาอังกฤษ ดังนั้น ฉันจึงต้องใช้ภาษาไทยในการอธิบายความหมาย ด้วยข้อ จำกัดของเวลา ทำให้เป็นไปได้ที่จะให้ความสำคัญกับคำศัพท์ในห้องเรียน	The first example of the differences is the use of a subject pronoun, <i>ฉัน</i> (I) instead of omitted pronouns or <i>ตัวเอง</i> (I) and the use of object pronoun, <i>พวกเขา</i> (them) instead of <i>เค้า</i> (them).
3.3 How much time do you think you	ไม่นานมากนะคะ คิดว่าไม่เกิน 15 นาที ปกติจะอธิบายความหมายของ	ไม่นานมาก ฉันคิดว่าไม่เกิน 15 ปกติฉันอธิบายความหมายของคำศัพท์ไป	Another example of differences is the use of adverb expression,

<p>spend on vocabulary?</p>	<p>คำศัพท์ไปพร้อมๆกับเนื้อเรื่อง เมื่อเห็นคำเป้าหมายก็จะหยุดและอธิบาย แล้วจึงอ่านเรื่องต่อ <i>จริงๆแล้ว</i> ในสองชั่วโมงจะสอนศัพท์และเปลี่ยนไปสอนการอ่านเนื้อเรื่อง</p>	<p>พร้อมๆกับการเนื้อเรื่อง เมื่อเห็นคำเป้าหมาย ก็จะหยุดและอธิบาย แล้วจึงอ่านเรื่อง <i>ในความเป็นจริง</i> ในสองชั่วโมงจะสอนศัพท์และเปลี่ยนไปสอนการอ่านเนื้อเรื่อง</p>	<p><i>จริงๆแล้ว</i> (in fact) instead of <i>ในความเป็นจริง</i> (in fact).</p>
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Appendix J: Samples of codes and subthemes of pre-observational semi-structured interview data

Responses	Codes	Sub-themes	Themes/ Categories
<p>(T1)</p> <p>Words appear in reading passage. They can learn from, learn vocabulary in real contexts. Students will know how words are used in a real context. For instance, if I teach only for example vocabulary about cooking, fry, this, that, bake, steam, students do not know how to use them, but if there is a text available, students can learn eggs, how to make boiled eggs something like this.</p>	<p>See words in reading passages</p> <p>See words in real contexts</p> <p>How words used in real context</p>	<p>Advantages of learning words through reading</p>	<p>Vocabulary acquisition through reading</p>
<p>Most of the time, I always translate from English into Thai. Students see words in contexts. I translate sentences and ask them to guess what it means. Students do not major in English. If I use only English, they won't understand.</p>	<p>Translate from English into Thai</p> <p>Ask students to guess meanings after translation</p>	<p>Teaching techniques that teachers actually use</p>	<p>Vocabulary teaching techniques</p>
<p>I have tried many ways. Initially, I followed everything in the book. I did whatever the book offered. The book begins with teaching vocabulary. About 10 target words are highlighted in bold. I think it was boring, so I skipped that page and had students read the passage right away. When students met unknown words, I asked them to</p>	<p>The book begins with teaching vocabulary.</p>	<p>When to teach vocabulary (Pre-reading)</p>	<p>Stages of vocabulary teaching</p>

<p>guess the meaning. In the beginning, I asked other teachers and they said vocabulary should be introduced at the beginning, so students know the meanings of words.</p> <p>However, as I mentioned earlier, it was very boring to have students match words and definitions. The definitions are provided in English and students have low proficiency; therefore, they could not do the exercises. I had to translate the definitions from English into Thai. Translating every single word was very boring; thus, I had students directly begin with the passage.</p> <p>In my mind, I want to teach words before reading but I have never had time planning any activities. There might be activities that are more interesting than matching words and definitions, such as using word cards or showing word cards and have students guess meanings, but I have never started doing anything yet.</p>	<p>vocabulary should be introduced at the beginning, so students know meanings of words</p> <p>it was very boring to have students match words and definitions.</p> <p>The definitions are provided in English and students have low proficiency; therefore, they could not do the exercises.</p> <p>Translating every single word was very boring</p>	<p>Reasons why pre-teaching</p> <p>Reasons why not pre-teach vocabulary</p>	
<p>Mostly, I just translate and have students read and guess meanings in contexts. I ask them to tell me the meanings in Thai and then I confirm the answers with them again. Now, I begin teaching them both in Thai and English.</p> <p>Mostly I use L1 translation. Actually, I do not feel good about using this teaching technique. When I translate, I have to do this with every chapter. I am trying to find a good way to teach.</p>	<p>translate and have students read and guess meanings in contexts</p> <p>(L1 translation)</p>	<p>How to teach vocabulary/ Teaching techniques</p>	<p>Vocabulary teaching techniques</p>

<p>I focus on L1 meanings. Students should know parts of speech, prefixes, and suffixes.</p> <p>... for example, words that have similar sounds. For example, desert and dessert sound similar. I told them these two words have similar spellings, and I asked them how you pronounced these words? Then I told them how to pronounce each word accurately.</p> <p>I focus on the pronunciation of every word. I want students to stress accurately.</p> <p>I also teach words in the same categories, for example, yesterday I taught cooking. ... The target word was salty, and I told them other words in the taste group.</p> <p>...When I teach, I emphasise parts of speech. Every time I will say what part of speech it is and then I expand to prefixes and suffixes.</p>	<p>L1 meanings</p> <p>parts of speech, prefixes, and suffixes</p> <p>pronunciation</p> <p>I want students to stress accurately.</p> <p>words in the same categories</p>	<p>What aspects of words students should know/ Aspects of words taught</p> <p>Reasons why focusing on these aspects</p>	<p>Word knowledge</p>
<p>I disagree. I agree that vocabulary is very important but not the most. I mean vocabulary is significant but even though students know every word in a passage, they can't comprehend what they are reading.</p>	<p>not the most</p>	<p>Degree of significance of vocabulary</p>	<p>Importance of vocabulary</p>

<p>Understanding how words are used is more important in my opinion.</p>	<p>even though students know every word in a passage, they can't comprehend what they are reading.</p>	<p>Reasons why it is not the most significant</p>	
<p>At this level, teachers should focus on vocabulary learning strategies, especially by using context clues, but most students are weak at English, so I always have to use Thai translation to explain meanings.</p> <p>With time limitation, it is impossible to emphasize vocabulary in the classroom.</p>	<p>vocabulary learning strategies, especially using context clues</p> <p>time limitation</p>	<p>Vocabulary learning strategies</p> <p>Reasons why not emphasise on vocabulary</p>	<p>Teaching vocabulary at a university level</p>

Notes: the same color for the same category

Appendix K: Examples of themes, subthemes and definitions of themes of pre-observational semi-structured interview data

Teachers' beliefs regarding teaching vocabulary in reading

No	Theme	Definitions of themes	Sub-themes
1	Vocabulary acquisition through reading	Teachers' opinions regarding vocabulary learning through reading; for example, do they think that reading can help students learn vocabulary?, is vocabulary learning through reading an effective strategy?, why can reading facilitate vocabulary learning? or why cannot reading lead to vocabulary learning?	1.1 Advantages of learning words through reading
			1.2 Limitations of learning words through reading

No	Theme	Definitions of themes	Sub-themes
2	Stages of vocabulary teaching	Teachers' perspectives towards their vocabulary teaching practices: whether vocabulary is presented in a stage of pre-reading, while-reading or post reading and whether it is taught through the deployment of L1 translation, tasks, games, and so on	2.1 When to teach (stages of vocabulary presentation)
			2.2 Reasons why pre-reading

No	Theme	Definitions of themes	Sub-themes
3	Vocabulary teaching techniques	Teachers' perspectives towards their vocabulary teaching practices: whether it is taught through the deployment of L1 translation, tasks, games, and so on	3.1 Teaching techniques that teachers actually use
			3.2 Limitations of learning words through contexts

No	Theme	Definitions of themes	Sub-themes
4	Word knowledge	Teachers' perspectives on aspects of vocabulary knowledge which students should possess: receptive and productive skills: 1) form (spellings, pronunciation, word parts including prefixes, suffixes, and roots), 2) meanings (meanings, concepts and referents, associations (synonyms and antonyms) and 3) use (word class, collocation and registry)	4.1 Aspects of words taught
			4.2 Reasons why focusing on these aspects

No	Theme	Definitions of themes	Sub-themes
5	Importance of vocabulary	Teachers' opinion concerning the significance of vocabulary in language learning including the degrees of significance comparing to other language skills and reasons for certain degrees of its significance	5.1 Degree of significance of vocabulary
			5.2 Reasons why it is significant
			5.3 Reasons why it is not the most significant

No	Theme	Definitions of themes	Sub-themes
6	Teaching vocabulary at a university level	Teachers perspectives on how vocabulary should be taught at a university level; for instance, how should students learn vocabulary at this level?, should vocabulary be taught in classes? and reasons why vocabulary should or should not be incorporated in classroom practices	6.1 Vocabulary learning strategies
			6.2 Self-study
			6.3 Reasons why self-study

Appendix L: Samples of units of analysis created by myself

First, the responses were divided into units of analysis (/) and sub-themes were identified for each unit by me (themes and sub-themes at Appendix K). After I, finished my part, the other teacher of English was asked to follow the same procedures. After that we compared our units of analysis to find the agreement rates.

Teachers	Responses	Units of Analysis
Interview question	To what extent can vocabulary be acquired through reading? Why?	
T1	<p style="text-align: center;">1.1</p> <p>Words appear in reading passages/...</p> <p style="text-align: center;">1.1</p> <p style="text-align: right;">1.1</p> <p>...learn from, learn vocabulary in real contexts./ Students will</p> <p style="text-align: center;">1.1</p> <p>know how words are used in a real context./ For instance, if I</p> <p>teach only for example vocabulary about cooking, fry, this,</p> <p>that, bake, steam, students do not know how to use them, but</p> <p>if there is a text available, students can learn about how to</p> <p>make boiled eggs something like that. /</p> <p>Most of the time, I always translate from English into Thai. Students see words in contexts. I translate sentences and ask them to guess what it means. Students do not major in English. If I use only English, they won't understand.</p>	4
T2	<p style="text-align: center;">1.1</p> <p>I ask students to see the position where words appear and ask</p> <p>them to tell me what function of the word is. / Contexts</p> <p style="text-align: center;">1.2</p> <p>provide meanings only to a certain degree but not always. /</p> <p style="text-align: center;">1.2</p> <p>Students cannot really guess correct meanings. /</p> <p style="text-align: center;">1.2</p> <p>They don't know most of the words/, and I don't want to tell them meanings in Thai, so I normally ask them to self study or look up for words by themselves.</p>	4
T3	<p>Normally, I read and translate the meanings from English into</p> <p style="text-align: center;">1.2</p> <p>Thai. Vocabulary can be learned through contexts but only at a</p>	3

	<p>1.1 certain level. / Meaning can be guessed from contexts/, but I 1.2 know that my students do not know words surrounding./</p>	
T4	<p>I agree because I learn vocabulary through reading. Contexts 1.1 1.1 guide meanings./ One word has many meanings and the 1.1 context tells what the word means, / tells how it is used, tells which function of words, tells how to use. /</p>	3
T5	<p>1.1 Reading is good in which it provides words and contexts. / When I teach students, I always make two points of contexts. One is about grammar and the other is about meanings. 1.1 Contexts related to grammar are seeing features, explaining 1.1 forms./ How to know parts of speech can be done by looking at 1.1 structures surrounded, / and to know approximate meanings is to look at words surrounding. /</p>	4

Notes: /..../ - one unit of analysis
number - sub-theme and theme
~~cross-out~~ - irrelevant part

Appendix M: Samples of calculating the inter-rater reliability

Themes	Units of analysis (by me)	The same counted units of analysis by two raters
1. Vocabulary learning through reading	18	16
2. Stages of teaching	12	9
3. Vocabulary Teaching techniques	9	9
4. Aspects of words	14	12
5. Significance of vocabulary	4	4
6. Vocabulary teaching at a university level	3	3
Total	60	53
		= 88.33%

Appendix O: Sample of classroom observation notes

Date 7 April 2015

Course English Reading and Writing

Teacher: T2

Lesson Doing Business in UK (2 hrs)

Class began 8:20

Teacher	Students	Remarks
<p>T2 had students work in the same groups. They had 10 minutes to look for 5 new words of a page assigned and look up for meanings and parts of speech. They had to scramble the words. (25 minutes)</p> <p>The teacher showed an example on the board with the scrambled letters for the word, eg. lion (noli).</p> <p>2. Each group took turn to write down their scrambled words on the board. The group that knew the answers could come and write down the answers next to the scrambled words. When other team could answer all five words, the game was over.</p> <p>Group 1 p.123</p> <p>Words chosen were</p> <p>foreigner (n.) ชาวต่างชาติ, necessary (adj.) จำเป็น, creative (adj.) สร้างสรรค์, imperative (n.) ความจำเป็น</p> <p>Group 2 p.124</p> <p>Friendship (n.) มิตรภาพ, expect (v.) คาดหวัง/คาดว่า, voice (n.) เสียง, face (n.) ใบหน้า, gift (n.) ของขวัญ</p> <p>Group 3 p.125</p> <p>Patient (adj.) อุตุน , negative (adj.) ด้านลบ, underline (v.) จีดเส้นใต้, colleague (n) เพื่อนร่วมงาน, decision (n.) การตัดสินใจ</p> <p>Group 4 p.128</p>	<p>Students did not really understand what to do, so they asked her to repeat the instructions.</p> <p>Students were actively participating. They were very active in playing this game.</p> <p>All students could get involved.</p>	<p>At first, T2 gave 10 minutes, but students could not finish preparing words so they took another 15 minutes for the first step.</p> <p>While students were working, T2 monitored and turned on the music.</p> <p>The teacher spent almost 10 minutes to get students to sit in groups and explain the task.</p> <p>Time for preparing scrambled words was 15 minutes.</p> <p>Students wrote scrambled letters and</p>

<p>Female (adj.) เพศหญิง, formal (adj.) เป็นทางการ, invitation (n.) เชื้อเชิญ, lunch (n.) มื้อเที่ยง, treat (v.) รักษา</p> <p>Group 5</p> <p>Compose (v.) ประกอบด้วย, proud (adj.) ภูมิใจ, charge (in charge) รับผิดชอบ, experience (n.) ประสบการณ์</p> <p>Group 6</p> <p>Disagree (v.) ไม่เห็นด้วย, express (adj.) คำวน, neutral (adj.) เป็นกลาง, reserved (adj.) เก็บความรู้สึก, foreign (adj.) ต่างชาติ</p> <p>Group 7</p> <p>Expect (v.) คาดหวัง, upset (adj.) เศร้าใจ, patient (adj.) อุตุน, proud (adj.) ภูมิใจ</p> <p>Group 8</p> <p>Sneakers (n.) รองเท้าแตะ, colleague (n.) เพื่อนร่วมงาน, reserved (adj.) เก็บความรู้สึก, scream (v.) กรีดร้อง, neutral (adj.) เป็นกลาง</p> <p>Group 9</p> <p>Certain (adj.) อย่างแน่นอน, explain (v.) อธิบาย, future (n.) อนาคต</p> <p>3. After that the groups that wrote the scrambled letters checked the answers. (10 mins)</p> <p>4. The teacher checked the answers again (10 mins)</p> <p>5. The teacher had students read a passage and find the main idea of each paragraph focusing on the use of signal words.</p> <p>T2 read all the words again and translated them into Thai.</p>		<p>answers for 25 minutes.</p> <p>Students spent 5 minutes to guess the right the answers.</p> <p>The teacher checked the answers again (5 minutes)</p>
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The teacher asked students to recall words they have learned and then asked for meanings. Some sentence samples were given.

Imperative sentences, colleague- co-worker and friends in class-classmate

formal-informal, invitation-invite, lunch-breakfast, charge-in charge, agree-disagree

like-dislike, express (v.) แสดงออก, foreign-foreigner (n.) ชาวต่างชาติ, colleague-co-worker,

certain (v.)-certainty (n.), future-present-past

T: Upset (adj.) most of the time, it is used as an adjective. How to use it?

SS: Use it with verb to be

T: I am upset.

proud-I'm proud of you. This word is used with a preposition "of"

T2 asked students to repeat after some words: decision, invitation, and invite

Appendix P: Lesson Descriptions

All five teachers' lessons were observed for seven weeks: three hours per week. The lessons covered different topics, such as memory, the working world and so on. The focus of the Reading and Writing course was on vocabulary, reading grammar and specific language functions. However, the main focus of the study was on vocabulary. The target words of each chapter were shown below.

Table 1 Target words

Unit 3 The Art and Science of Food	Unit 4 Memory		Unit 7 The working World		Unit 8 What's Next?	
Chapter 6: The Art of Food	Chapter 7: Memory	Chapter 8 Smell, Memory, and Sales	Chapter 13: Doing Business in UK	Chapter 14: Emails: Terrific Tools or Time Waster	Chapter 15: Is 50 the New 30 and 70 the New 50	Chapter 16: Millennials in the Workforce
Recipes	memory	advertisement choose	expect	communicate	client	share
reheat	instead	customer	negative	depend on	healthy	media
rice	method	develop	patient	waste	improve	grow up
serve	order	product	proud	message	population	generation
spicy	imagine	guest	in charge	interrupts	expert	valuable
sweet	memorize	make sure	neutral	limit	retiring	structure
taste	practice	perfume	reserved	concern	active	confident
variety	useful		voices	tool	improving	fair

The summary of all teachers' practices was presented below.

Teachers' practice of vocabulary teaching

Teachers	Chapters	Teaching Techniques					Stages of Teaching	Features of Word Aspects	Purposes of the Lessons	Time spent in teaching vocabulary
		Board	Game	Task	Picture	Exercises in the book				
Teacher 1	Memory (2 hrs)			√ SS in groups think about a memorisation technique of word assigned and present it to class.			Presentation	- L1 meanings - Parts of speech - Pronunciation	Teaching	25 mins
	Memory 2 (1 hr)		√ T says L1 meanings/ L2 definitions and students in team write down the words.				Warm up	- Meanings (in Thai and English) - Spellings	Revision	20 mins
	Smell, Memory, and Sales 2 (2 hrs)				√ SS see photos shown on		Warm up	- L2 definition - L1 meanings - Parts of speech	Revision T cancelled the first	10 mins

					PPT and guess the words based on what they have self-studied from the previous lesson.			- Spellings	class and assigned students to self-study.	
	Doing Business in UK 2 (2 hrs)	√ T presents vocabulary on the board					Presentation	- L2 definition - L1 meanings - Parts of speech - Pronunciation - Sentence samples (some: antonyms, two word verbs)	Teaching	17 mins
	Emails: Terrific Tools or Time Waster (2 hrs)	√ T writes words on the board. Representatives from each group sit with back facing the board. The other SS give hints by telling meanings in					Warm up	- L2 definition - L1 meanings - Pronunciation	Revision	10 mins

			Thai or L2 definition.							
	Is 50 the New 30 and 70 the new 50 (2 hrs)			√ SS find 5 words, their meanings in Thai, parts of speech, and pronunciation in a paragraph they are assigned and then read the paragraph and share with classmates.			Presentation	- L1 meanings - Parts of speech - Pronunciation	Teaching	25 mins
	Millennials in the Workforce (2 hrs)		√ (Hangman) T says L2 definitions and students guess the words.				Warm up	- L2 definitions - L1 meanings - Parts of speech	Revision	10 mins
My comments	As seen from the table above, there were four teaching techniques employed by T1 in teaching vocabulary. Two vocabulary teaching strategies employed most frequently were using games (33.33%) and tasks (33.33%). The main purpose of using games was to review vocabulary that students have been learned from the previous lessons. Therefore, games were used in a warm-up stage or at the beginning of the lessons. Spellings, meanings, parts of speech, and pronunciation were the focus of using games in revision. To illustrate, one of the vocabulary games T utilised was to have a representative from each team take turns to come in front of the class to write down the words on the board based on L1 meanings or L2 definitions told by the teacher. This game									

<p>seemed to focus on only the aspect of spellings; however, T always reviewed the meanings, pronunciation, and parts of speech after the game was over.</p> <p>Apart from games, tasks were used to present vocabulary. The teacher's role was not a knowledge provider but a facilitator. An example of a task was to have students work in team to find 5 unknown words, their meanings in Thai, parts of speech, and pronunciation in a paragraph they were assigned and then read the paragraph and share with classmates. According to this instance, it showed that the teacher attempted to get all students involved in learning instead of using a traditional style of teaching. Similar to games, the main focus of word knowledge is spellings, meanings, parts of speech, and pronunciation as students were asked to present all the aforementioned aspects of words on the board.</p> <p>The other two teaching techniques utilised consisted of using the board (16.67) and pictures (16.67). The teacher used a board to present vocabulary while matching pictures and vocabulary was used to review vocabulary. Although teaching techniques were used for different purposes, four main aspects of words T1 emphasised were spellings, meanings, parts of speech, and pronunciation.</p> <p>To sum up, data revealed that words were introduced before reading, and T1 varied her VTT every class.</p>										
Teachers	Chapters	Teaching Techniques					Stages of Teaching	Features of Word Aspects	Purposes of the Lessons	Time spent
		Board	Game	Task	Pictures	Exercises in the book				
Teacher 2	Memory (2 hrs)	√ (Not much use) T asks SS to underline and asks for meanings of their unknown words.					Presentation While-reading	- L1 meanings - Parts of speech - Use - Word family	Teaching	Vocabulary is presented along the reading passage. Vocabulary and reading exercises are assigned to SS.

	Smell, Memory, and Sales									SS are asked to self-study.
	Doing Business in UK (2 hrs)			√ SS in groups find 5 words on the page they are assigned and mix letters of each word. Then write scrambled words on the board and have the other groups write the correct words.			Presentation Pre-reading	- L1 meanings - Parts of speech - Pronunciation - Spellings	Pre-reading	60 mins
	Emails: Terrific Tools or Time Waster (2 hrs)			√ SS in each group find words of the page in the textbook they are assigned and present vocabulary to class.			Presentation Pre-reading	- L1 meanings - Parts of speech - Pronunciation	Pre-reading	60 mins
	Is 50 the New 30			√			Presentation	- L1 meanings		60 mins

	and 70 the new 50 (2 hrs)			SS in groups find words of the paragraph they are assigned, read and share what they have read to classmates.			While-reading	- Parts of speech - Pronunciation		
	Millennials in the Workforce									SS are asked to self-study.
My comments	<p>The table showed that Teacher 2's main teaching strategy was using tasks (75%). Data showed that this VTT was used to present vocabulary but at a different stage. Namely, some were used to present vocabulary before having students begin reading whereas some were presented while having students read a passage. The tasks assigned to students were always different. What shared in common was that tasks were used as a technique of vocabulary teaching and learning which required SS to work among the team in order to learn new words and present them to their classmates.</p> <p>To illustrate, an example of a task T2 used with the aim of having students learn vocabulary before reading was to have students work in groups to find five words on the page they were assigned and to mix letters of each word. After that, they were asked to write scrambled words on the board and have the other groups write the correct words. This task allowed SS to learn spellings, meanings, parts of speech and pronunciation.</p> <p>The other instance of the task was to have students work in groups to find words of the paragraph they were assigned, read and shared what they have read to classmates. Three main aspects of words comprised meanings, parts of speech and pronunciation. Unlike games, spellings were presented but not emphasised much as words were just shown on the board.</p> <p>The other vocabulary teaching technique was using the board (25%). It might be possible to say that T2 preferred a learning style that required students to be actively engaged rather than passively received the information from her. Based on the observation, while students were reading, they were asked to underline their unknown words. Students told T the words they did not know the meanings and the teacher wrote those words on the board. T asked if any students knew the meanings of the words their</p>									

	<p>classmates asked. Most students were encouraged to self-study and they were allowed to use a dictionary in class. Therefore, when one student asked for his unknown words, the other students could provide the answers. After that, T explained more about the use of the words. Thus, L1 meanings, parts of speech, use, and word family were emphasized in this lesson.</p> <p>It can be concluded that Teacher2 introduced vocabulary through tasks which were provided for SS before reading and while reading. Meanings in L1 and parts of speech were the most significant aspects of word knowledge T always emphasised.</p>									
Teachers	Chapters	Teaching Techniques					Stages of Teaching	Features of Word Aspects	Purposes of the Lessons	Time spent
		Board	Game	Task	Picture	Exercises in the book				
Teacher 3	Micro-compact house (2 hrs)					√ T uses L1 meanings as main teaching technique. T reads and translates or she reads and asks students to translate the words.	Pre-reading Presentation	(The book contains word, and L2 definitions) - L1 meanings - Pronunciation - Parts of speech	Teaching	30 mins
	Science in the Kitchen (2 hrs)					√ (T uses L1 meanings as main teaching technique. T reads and	Pre-reading Presentation	(The book contains words, and L2 definitions) - L1 meanings - Pronunciation	Teaching	30 mins

						translates or T reads and asks SS to translate the meanings.		- Parts of speech		
	Doing Business in UK (2 hrs)				√ On PPT, two pictures are shown and SS are asked to choose the right pictures representing the meanings of words given on PPT by writing down the answers of the right pictures and their parts of speech on the paper.	√	Pre-reading Presentation	(The book contains words, and L2 definitions) - L1 meanings - Pronunciation - Parts of speech	Teaching	70 mins
	Doing Business in UK 2				√ Using the same PPT,		Revision	- L1 meanings - Pronunciation	Teaching	5 mins

	(a hr)				T asks SS to say what the words are.			- Parts of speech		
	Emails: Terrific Tools or Time Waster (2 hrs)				√ Using the same PPT, T asks SS to say what the words are. After checking the answers, T asks them to repeat after her.		Revision	- L1 meanings - Pronunciation - Parts of speech	Teaching	10 mins
	Memory (2 hrs)				√ T shows pictures and asks SS to match the picture A or B with the target words. After all 8 words are introduced, SS are asked to repeat after T.		Pre-reading Presentation	(The book contains words, and L2 definitions) - L1 meanings - Pronunciation - Parts of speech	Teaching	50 mins

	Smell, Memory, and Sales (2 hrs)				√ T shows pictures and asks SS to match the pictures and the words.		Pre-reading Presentation	(The book contains words, and L2 definitions) - L1 meanings - Pronunciation - Parts of speech	Teaching	30 mins
	Is 50 the New 30 and 70 the new 50 (2 hrs)					√ (L1 meanings)	Pre-reading Presentation	(The book contains words, and L2 definitions) - L1 meanings - Pronunciation - Parts of speech	Teaching	30 mins
	Millennial in the Workforce									Students are asked to self-study.
My comments	<p>As shown in the table above, T3 used two major VTT of pictures (62.5%) and doing exercises in the book (37.5%). Pictures were used to present new target words and to review the words students have learned from the previous lessons. In teaching words, T asked SS to match a word and a picture. On PPT, two pictures were shown and SS were asked to choose the right picture representing the meaning of the target word. After all eight target words were presented, T had SS repeat after her. Meanings in L1 and parts of speech are checked again. At the stage of revision, the same PPT is shown and students are asked to choose the right pictures of each word. Parts of speech and pronunciation are checked afterwards.</p> <p>The other technique was to have students do exercises in the book. In every chapter, vocabulary was presented before reading and writing skills. There were two exercises of vocabulary before reading and another one after reading. All vocabulary exercises were in the same format of gap-filling which required students to read target words and their definitions and then used the words</p>									

	to fill in the blanks. T read and translated everything into Thai or asked SS to translate it. T asked for parts of speech of the target words or asked students to see the positions where words appeared in the sentences and tell her what parts of speech they were. The whole class did the exercises and checked the answers altogether. Finally, T3 asked students to repeat after her. T always emphasised meanings, parts of speech and pronunciation.									
Teachers	Chapters	Teaching Techniques					Stages of Teaching	Features of Word Aspects	Purposes of the Lessons	Time spent
		Board	Game	Task	Pictures	Exercises in the book				
Teacher 4	Science in the Kitchen (2 hrs)	√ Teacher writes everything on the board.				√	Presentation	- Spelling - L1 meanings - L2 definition - Parts of speech - Sentence samples (Some antonyms and pronunciation)	Teaching	30 mins
	Memory (2 hrs)					√ A group of SS presents vocabulary exercises and a reading passage.	Presentation	- L1 meanings - Parts of speech	Teaching	30 mins
	Memory 2	√				√	Warm up	- L1 meanings	Revision	7 mins

	(1 hr)	T asks SS to say words and parts of speech they have learned from the previous lesson and write down words and parts of speech on the board.						- Parts of speech		
	Smell, Memory, and Sales (1 hr)	√ T asks SS to say words and parts of speech they have learned from the previous lesson and write down words and parts of speech on the board. Then ask SS to do vocabulary exercise T prepares on the board using a table				√	Warm up	- L1 meanings - Parts of speech - Spellings	Revision	5+28+5 mins

		<p>of 3 columns of answers, parts of speech and key words.</p> <p>Finally, have SS listen to all the words again from the website.</p>								
	<p>Doing Business in UK (2 hrs)</p>	<p>√</p> <p>T asks SS to say words and parts of speech they have learned from the previous lesson and write down words and parts of speech on the board. Then presents new target words on the board.</p>				√	<p>Warm up Presentation</p>	<p>- L1 meanings - Parts of speech - Pronunciation (some antonyms, collocations, word families)</p>	Revision	15+10 mins

	<p>Doing Business in UK 2 (1 hr)</p>	<p>√</p> <p>T asks SS to say words and meanings they have learned from the previous lesson and write down words and parts of speech on the board. T says the L2 definition after L1 meanings. Then students are divided into 2 teams. Do the vocabulary gap fillings exercise T prepares and shows on the screen. Write down the answers on the board. The whole</p>				<p>√</p>	<p>Warm up</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - L1 meanings - L2 definitions - Parts of speech 	<p>Revision</p>	<p>10+15 mins</p>
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		class checks the answer altogether.								
	Emails: Terrific Tools or Time Waster (2 hrs)	√ T asks SS to say words and meanings they have learned from the previous lesson and write down words and parts of speech on the board.				√	Warm up	- L1 meanings - L2 definitions - Parts of Speech - Spellings	Revision	10 mins
	Is 50 the New 30 and 70 the new 50? (2 hrs)	√ T asks SS to say words and meanings they have learned from the previous lesson and write down words and parts of				√ a new lesson	Warm up	- L1 meanings - L2 definitions - Parts of Speech	Revision	10+15 mins

		speech on the board.								
	Millennials in the Workforce									SS are assigned to self-study.
My comments	<p>Regarding the data shown, two main teaching techniques that T4 always employed were using the board (50%) and doing exercises in the book (50%). The teacher always used a board to present vocabulary and review vocabulary. In teaching vocabulary, the target words, meanings in L1 and L2, parts of speech and examples of words used in sentences were always written on the board. After that, T asked students to complete exercises in the book and checked the answers altogether.</p> <p>For revision, the teacher asked students to say words they remembered from the previous lessons. Spellings, meanings, and parts of speech were always checked if students can remember. After that the teacher asked students to do a gap-filling exercise written by herself. They were asked to use the target words they had just reviewed to fill in the blanks. Finally, the whole class checked the answers.</p> <p>Using the board and having students do exercises in the book were a common practice in relation to teaching vocabulary T4 always did with her students. Two aspects of words the teacher always emphasised were meanings and parts of speech.</p>									
Teachers	Chapters	Teaching Techniques					Stages of Teaching	Features of Word Aspects	Purposes of the Lessons	Time spent
		Board	Game	Task	Pictures	Exercises in the book				
Teacher 5	Science in the Kitchen (2 hrs)					√ (3 columns of answers, parts of speech, key words)	Presentation	- Spelling - L2 definition - Parts of speech	Teaching	20 mins
	Memory					√	Presentation	- Spelling	Teaching	20 mins

	(2 hrs)					(3 columns of answers, parts of speech, key words)		- L2 definition - Parts of speech		
	Smell, Memory, and Sales (2 hrs)					√ (3 columns of answers, parts of speech, key words)	Presentation	- Spelling - L2 definition - Parts of speech	Teaching	20 mins
	Doing Business in UK (2 hrs)					√ (3 columns of answers, parts of speech, key words)	Presentation	- Spelling - L2 definition - Parts of speech	Teaching	20 mins
	Emails: Terrific Tools or Time Waster (2 hrs)					√ (3 columns of answers, parts of speech, key words)	Presentation	- Spelling - L2 definition - Parts of speech	Teaching	45 mins
	Is 50 the New 30 and 70 the new 50? (2 hrs)				√ (Have SS see the pictures and guess what the words are. L2	√ (3 columns of answers, parts of speech, key words)	Presentation	- Spelling - L2 definition - Parts of speech	Teaching	30 mins

					definition and parts of speech are checked					
	Millennials in the Workforce (2 hrs)				√ (Have SS answer and then show pictures to explain more about the target words.)	√ (3 columns of answers, parts of speech, key words)	Presentation	- Spelling - L2 definition - Parts of speech	Teaching	30 mins
My comments	<p>With regard to data revealed in the table, Teacher 5 used two vocabulary teaching techniques of doing exercises in the book (77.78%) and matching pictures and words (22.2%). Before reading, the teacher had students do the vocabulary exercises in the book. The teacher asked students to write down their answers on a table the teacher drew. Students are asked to fill out the table of 3 columns of answers, parts of speech and keywords. Then the whole class discussed the answers. This was a common practice T5 did every class.</p> <p>The second teaching strategy the teacher used was to have students see the pictures on PPT and guess what the words were. After that students did vocabulary exercises in the book. Other steps of having students write down answers and discussing the answers were the same as the first technique.</p> <p>L2 definition and parts of speech were always emphasised.</p>									

Notes: L1 translation was used every class by all teachers except T5.

T: teacher

SS: students

Appendix Q: Transcription convention of discourse analysis

T:	- teacher
S1: S2: etc,	- identified student
SS:	- several learners at once or the whole class
/ok/ok/ok/	- overlapping or simultaneous utterances by more than one learner
[do you understand?]	
[I see]	- overlap between teacher and learner
=	- turn latching: one turn follows another without any pause
...	- pause of one second or less marked by three periods
(4.0/0.4)	- silence; length given in seconds or micro-seconds
?	- rising intonation – question or other
WHAT	- emphatic speech
((xxx))	- a stretch of unintelligible speech with the length given in seconds
((T gestures the students to start))	- researcher's comments
°said quietly°	- soft speech, said more quietly than usual
↑ ↓	- rising or falling intonation
C-U-S-T-O-M-E-R	- spelling
(.)	- a micro-pause
::	- lengthening of syllable

(Adopted and adapted from Walsh, 2011 and Markee, 2015)

Appendix R: The International Phonetic Alphabet (revised to 2015)

THE INTERNATIONAL PHONETIC ALPHABET (revised to 2015)

CONSONANTS (PULMONIC)

© 2015 IPA

	Bilabial	Labiodental	Dental	Alveolar	Postalveolar	Retroflex	Palatal	Velar	Uvular	Pharyngeal	Glottal
Plosive	p b			t d		ʈ ɖ	c ɟ	k ɡ	q ɢ		ʔ
Nasal	m	ɱ		n		ɳ	ɲ	ŋ	ɴ		
Trill	ʙ			r					ʀ		
Tap or Flap		ⱱ		ɾ		ɽ					
Fricative	ɸ β	f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ	ʂ ʐ	ç ʝ	x ɣ	χ ʁ	ħ ʕ	h ɦ
Lateral fricative				ɬ ɮ							
Approximant		ʋ		ɹ		ɻ	j	ɰ			
Lateral approximant				l		ɭ	ʎ	ʟ			

Symbols to the right in a cell are voiced, to the left are voiceless. Shaded areas denote articulations judged impossible.

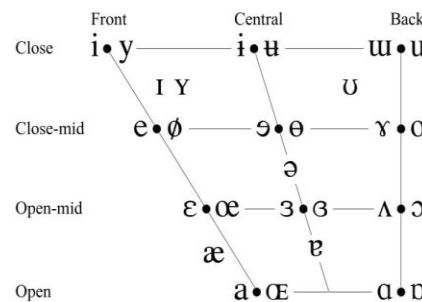
CONSONANTS (NON-PULMONIC)

Clicks	Voiced implosives	Ejectives
◌ ɸ Bilabial	ɓ Bilabial	ʼ Examples:
Dental	ɗ Dental/alveolar	ɸ' Bilabial
! (Post)alveolar	ɟ Palatal	t' Dental/alveolar
‡ Palatoalveolar	ɠ Velar	k' Velar
Alveolar lateral	ɣ Uvular	s' Alveolar fricative

OTHER SYMBOLS

ɱ Voiceless labial-velar fricative	ɕ ʑ Alveolo-palatal fricatives
ʋ Voiced labial-velar approximant	ɻ Voiced alveolar lateral flap
ɰ Voiced labial-palatal approximant	ɥ Simultaneous ʃ and x
ħ Voiceless epiglottal fricative	Affricates and double articulations can be represented by two symbols joined by a tie bar if necessary.
ʕ Voiced epiglottal fricative	
ʔ Epiglottal plosive	

VOWELS



Where symbols appear in pairs, the one to the right represents a rounded vowel.

SUPRASEGMENTALS

ˈ Primary stress	ˌ Secondary stress	ː Long	ˑ Half-long	˚ Extra-short
Minor (foot) group	Major (intonation) group	· Syllable break	◌ Linking (absence of a break)	

TONES AND WORD ACCENTS

LEVEL	CONTOUR
é or ˥ Extra high	ě or ˨ Rising
é ˥ High	é ˨ Falling
ē ˨ Mid	ē ˨ High rising
è ˨ Low	è ˨ Low rising
è ˨ Extra low	è ˨ Rising-falling
↓ Downstep	↗ Global rise
↑ Upstep	↘ Global fall

DIACRITICS Some diacritics may be placed above a symbol with a descender, e.g. ɲ̃

◌ Voiceless	◌ ɲ̃ ɲ̃	◌ Breathy voiced	◌ ɲ̃ ɲ̃	◌ Dental	◌ ɲ̃ ɲ̃
◌ Voiced	◌ ɲ̃ ɲ̃	◌ Creaky voiced	◌ ɲ̃ ɲ̃	◌ Apical	◌ ɲ̃ ɲ̃
◌ Aspirated	◌ ɲ̃ ɲ̃	◌ Linguolabial	◌ ɲ̃ ɲ̃	◌ Laminal	◌ ɲ̃ ɲ̃
◌ More rounded	◌ ɲ̃ ɲ̃	◌ Labialized	◌ ɲ̃ ɲ̃	◌ Nasalized	◌ ɲ̃ ɲ̃
◌ Less rounded	◌ ɲ̃ ɲ̃	◌ Palatalized	◌ ɲ̃ ɲ̃	◌ Nasal release	◌ ɲ̃ ɲ̃
◌ Advanced	◌ ɲ̃ ɲ̃	◌ Velarized	◌ ɲ̃ ɲ̃	◌ Lateral release	◌ ɲ̃ ɲ̃
◌ Retracted	◌ ɲ̃ ɲ̃	◌ Pharyngealized	◌ ɲ̃ ɲ̃	◌ No audible release	◌ ɲ̃ ɲ̃
◌ Centralized	◌ ɲ̃ ɲ̃	◌ Velarized or pharyngealized	◌ ɲ̃ ɲ̃		
◌ Mid-centralized	◌ ɲ̃ ɲ̃	◌ Raised	◌ ɲ̃ ɲ̃ (ɲ̃ = voiced alveolar fricative)		
◌ Syllabic	◌ ɲ̃ ɲ̃	◌ Lowered	◌ ɲ̃ ɲ̃ (ɲ̃ = voiced bilabial approximant)		
◌ Non-syllabic	◌ ɲ̃ ɲ̃	◌ Advanced Tongue Root	◌ ɲ̃ ɲ̃		
◌ Rhoticity	◌ ɲ̃ ɲ̃	◌ Retracted Tongue Root	◌ ɲ̃ ɲ̃		

Typefaces: Doulos SIL (metatext); Doulos SIL, IPA Kiel, IPA LS Uni (symbols)

Source: https://www.internationalphoneticassociation.org/sites/default/files/IPA_Kiel_2015.pdf

Appendix S: The International Phonetic Alphabet (Thai) (Naruemon, 2013)

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/	/p ^h /	/b/	/t/	/t ^h /			/k/	/ʔ/
	ป	พ, พ ^ย , พ ^ร , พ ^ล	บ	ต, ท, ถ, ด	ท ^ย , ท ^ร , ท ^ล , ต [*]			ก ข, ฃ, ฅ, ฆ, ง	อ [*]
Nasal		/m/			/n/			/ŋ/	
		ม			น			ง	
Fricative			/f/	/s/					/h/
			ฟ, ฟ ^ย	ซ, ส, ซ ^ย , ส ^ย					ห, ฮ
Affricate						/tʃ/	/tʃ ^h /		
						จ	ฉ, ช, ฉ ^ย		
Trill					/r/				
					ร				
Approximant		/w/					/j/		
		ว					ย, ย ^ย		
Lateral					/l/				
					ล, ล ^ย				

*At the end of a syllable บ/b/ and ด/d/are devoiced, becoming pronounced as /p/ and /t/ respectively.

*ฃ/k^h/ and ฆ/k^h/ are no longer used. Thus, modern Thai is said to have 42 consonants.

*Initial อ 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,ซ,ฉ,ถ,ต,ฏ,ฐ, ช,ฉ,ค,ก,ค,ก,ท,ช, ต,ษ,ถ		/k/ ก,ข, ค,ฆ					/ʔ/*
Nasal		/m/ ม		/n/ ณ,ญ,น, ร,ล,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/ โอะ	/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:/	/fã:/	ฝา	lid	อะ	/a/	/fãn/	ฝัน	to dream
อี	/i:/	/ti:/	ตี	to hit	อิ	/i/	/tit/	ติด	to stick
อู	/u:/	/du:/	ดู	to look	อุ	/u/	/dù/	ดุ	fierce
เอ	/e:/	/tʰe:/	เท	to pour	เอะ	/e/	/kʰem/	เค็ม	salty
แ	/ɛ:/	/tɛ:/	แต่	but	แอะ	/ɛ/	/kɛ̀/	แกะ	sheep
อื	/u:/	/mu:/	มือ	hand	อื	/u/	/du:ŋ/	ดึง	to pull
เออ	/ɤ:/	/tɛʰɤ:n/	เชิญ	to invite	เออะ	/ɤ/	/ŋɤn/	เงิน	money
โ	/o:/	/kʰɔ:n/	โขน	one kind of Thai drama	โอะ	/o/	/kʰon/	คน	to stir
อ	/ɔ:/	/kʰɔ:/	คอ	neck	เอะ	/ɔ/	/kɔ̀/	เกาะ	island

2.2 Diphthongs

Table 5 Thai diphthongs

Long					Short				
Thai	IPA	Thai word	IPA	Meaning	Thai	IPA	Thai word	IPA	Meaning
เอือ	/tu:a/	เสือ	/sũi:a/	tiger	เอือะ	/tua/		/tua/	
เอีย	/i:a/	เสีย	/sĩ:a/	rotten	เอียะ	/ia/	เฟียะ	/pʰia/	The sound of beating
อัว	/u:a/	กลัว	/klu:a/	fear	อัวะ	/ua/	ฟัวะ	/pʰua/	The sound of beating

2.3 Triphthongs

Table 6 Thai triphthongs

Thai	IPA	Thai word	IPA	Meaning
เขียว	/iaw/	เขียว	/k ^h iaw/	green
ช่วย	/uaj/	ช่วย	/tɛ ^h uaj/	help
เฝ้า	/uaj/	เฝ้า	/lɯaj/	saw

2.4 Extra Vowels

Table 7 Thai extra vowels

Thai	IPA	Thai word	IPA	Meaning
อัม	/am/	อัม	/k ^h am/	word
ฤ	/ru/			
ฤา	/ru:/	ฤาษี	/ru:sɯ:/	hermit (n)
ฤ	/lu/			
ฤา	/lu:/			

3. Tones

Table 8 Thai tones

Tone	Thai word	IPA	Meaning in English
mid	ฟา	/faː/	the fourth note in a musical scale
low	ฝา	/fâː/	violate, break
falling	ฝ้า	/fâː/	blemish, ceiling
high	ฟ้า	/fâː/	sky
rising	ฟา	/fãː/	wall, lid

Appendix T: Sample of transcript of DR1

Dialogic Reflection 1

Date 19 March 2015

5 participants + 1 researcher

Time spent 45 minutes

Aids: pictures

There are 2 lessons observed over 2 weeks: Science in the Kitchen and Memory.

(The first week, some teachers did not teach. They just had students take a quiz. A few teachers taught only the first lesson. The second week, all teachers were at the same pace of memory chapter.)

R: As you all do not have much time, let me begin now with the objectives of the two chapters, one before midterm and one after midterm. Can I ask one teacher to tell us about the objectives of the Science in the Kitchen chapter and another one about the other chapter of Memory, please?

T1: The objectives of the Science in the Kitchen are that students should be able to find supporting sentences, use present simple and continuous tenses, write sentences using connectors *of*, *and*, *but*, and *or* and know vocabulary concerning the kitchen.

T4: There are four main objectives of Memory. Regarding reading, students should be able to understand pronoun referents. Grammar and writing skills aim at enabling students to use past tense and pronouns accurately. Last, students know vocabulary concerning memory.

R: Did you reach the goals of the lessons? Did everything go as well as planned?

T1: I didn't plan the lessons. I just followed the sequences of the book.

T4: Actually I didn't plan very well.

T2: Just planned roughly and followed the book.

T5: If looking at the objectives, I think I can say that goals are achievable. Students learned what they should learn.

Other teachers nodded (which means agreement).

R: If everything went well as planned, do you have any ideas about how to make your teaching better?

T2: If possible, I want to reduce the number of students. I have one class with 80 students, so it is difficult to manage.

T4: Right. I have both small and large numbers of students. The class with a large number of students is hard to monitor.

T3: I have problems with time. I want to change the way I teach. My lessons go quite slow. I can't finish in 3 hours because I translate everything into Thai. If I do not do so, I am afraid students will not understand.

T1: Right, even though I help students with translations, some students still complain about too much translation. Are there other ways to teach reading without translation? I want to know how to teach reading without translation.

T3: If I don't translate, I am concerned. Without translation, students might complain when they evaluate my teaching at the end of the semester.

R: Shall we ask T5 as he does not use Thai at all in his class?

T5: Right. I see what the focus of the lesson is. If there is no specific reading skill students have to learn or practice in that chapter, normally I ask students to skim and scan. If they know how to skim, it means they can find the main ideas. Similarly, scanning helps them find details of the passage. These two skills are key strategies of all types of reading. It does not mean that translation is really needed. Even though they do not understand everything clearly, at least there are two things they learn: what the passage is roughly about and some important details from the exercises in the book. That is why I don't think it is necessary to translate everything.

T3: I want to try at least one lesson of teaching without translation, but I am afraid students will complain.

T5: At the end of the lesson, I told students that in class we focused on the understanding of passage such as main ideas and details. For other parts like vocabulary, they are supposed to self-study as their vocabulary background is not the same.

R: So if your students can answer the questions, you assume that they understand the lesson.

T5: Right.

T1: The problem is that it is difficult to check if students really understand because they use their seniors' book where the answers and all the notes are provided. It is impossible to know whether they exactly understand.

T5: The only way to control this is not to allow students to use the old books or making book purchasing mandatory.

T3: Right. It is hard to check.

T1/T4: Right.

T3: Even though they can give right answers, it does not mean that they can really understand.

T5: That's true. It doesn't guarantee that they understand.

T3: If we use translation, it helps them really understand it.

T5: Translation makes students really comprehend or visualize.

T3: If the translation is used, it has a problem with time limitation. Actually at this level, with these structures, students should be able to understand. Moreover, translation can promote both Thai and English. They can learn reading and translation at the same time. For example, once students said a material was พัสดุ (parcel) not วัสดุ (material). If I don't ask them to translate, I cannot know whether they have a misconception about this word.

T4: I also use translation but not every sentence or all the details. Normally I focus on the main ideas or some parts that seem important or unclear for students.

T2: I use translation as well but I do not translate everything. Usually, I assign students in groups to present and translate to their class. One group is in charge of one part or one paragraph, so they read and translate to their classmates. If no one seems to have questions, I just let it go and assume that they understand. I sometimes check some parts to confirm their comprehension.

T4: That's a good idea. All details can be covered and everyone can get involved. I also assign students to work in a group of 6-10. One group is responsible for the whole chapter. Then present it. I listen and check if everything is correct. If incorrect, I will help them.

R: All right now let me focus on vocabulary teaching. My understanding is that you use L1 translation to lead to the actual comprehension.

T3: I want to teach in the same pace as others. If their teaching is OK, I want to try to change too. My concern is still about translation. The percentage of translation is not the same. I want to ask if you don't translate in the class, do you assign them to study before coming to the lesson?

T2: No, I ask students to do it in class. Most students use an old book, so they finish it in a short time, 10 or 15 minutes. Some students use a new book. They can use any type of dictionary. They are asked to find the main idea and a topic sentence. Then summarize the paragraph to their classmates. They do not need to translate every sentence.

T3: I am thinking of saving time by asking students to study and translate before class, but I haven't tried yet.

R: Actually, I think it depends on how you plan and manage a class. Based on my observation, some teachers plan their activities well, so they can manage time well, and get almost everyone involved.

T1: Yeah. On that day, I went in a wrong class of Teacher In class, it is for activities and outside is for them to study on their own.

T4: Hmm Interesting.

T2: Interesting. Actually, at the beginning, I gave them assignments but I think they have too many assignments to do and I sympathize with them. Now I try to have them work in class. After the presentation, I always ask for their unknown words. Then all the words students ask will be written on the board. They can take notes or take a photo with their mobile phone. I don't mind.

R: OK, since you are talking about vocabulary, I would like to get straight to vocabulary teaching. You all used different techniques in teaching. Would you like to share the techniques you used? However, based on my observation, there was one technique most of you used, and that was the board, so I would like to talk about using the board first. When teachers teach and just tell students about words (spelling, parts of speech) orally without writing them down on the board, it is hard for students to follow. If you just say a word, say "imagination" means ... it is a noun, it is difficult for students to understand and they do not really catch everything you say. Let me show you the photos of how each of you used the board.

R: Begin with T1. You can see what she wrote on the board?

T4: She wrote L2 word, its part of speech in the brackets, and meaning(s) (L1 translation).

R: Do you notice how she writes?

T2: She writes everything down neatly.

R: Do you know why it is good to write neatly?

T1: Easy for students to copy and understand?

R: Right. It is said that a human brain can memorize better if the information is processed in order. The second one was T4. What did you provide to students?

T4: L2 word, its parts of speech, and meaning(s) (L1 translation).

R: Right. Actually, all of you give meanings and parts of speech. T4 gives both L1 and L2 definitions and examples of use. The way she writes is very neat. You can see from the photo. There is one more technique she used.

T1: Using different colours of markers?

R: Why did you use different colours?

T4: Well, I think it is more interesting. It is easy for students to recognize.

R: Right. It should also help with memorization.

T1: Great.

T2: Wow. How nice. She is good.

R: After that can you tell us what you did with vocabulary?

T4: In the second lesson, I had students write the vocabulary they had learned.

R: She reviewed vocabulary students have learned from the previous class by asking students to say words they have learned. Then write the words students say on the board. After that meanings and parts of speech are checked. Do you know how much time you spent on this activity?

T4: Around 10 to 15 minutes I think.

T2: Not so long actually.

R: Right, she does not spend much time doing this. Only about 15 minutes. Now let's see T5's style. He has a very interesting way to manage his class and deal with vocabulary. Can you share, please?

T5: At the beginning, students were asked to identify themselves in a group by counting starting from 1,2,3 in sequence. Then when it is time for exercises, I write students' numbers in front of the items and students know that if it is their number they have to come out of the class to write down the answers on the board. I draw columns of item numbers, words, parts of speech, and keywords.

R: Why did you do that?

T5: It is easy to manage and save time.

T4: Oh save time. Good idea.

T1: Never thought about this.

R: I agree. It is a very good way to manage a class. There is one more positive thing of managing class this way. Can anybody tell us what it is?

T2: Many students can have a chance to engage.

R: Right, this way makes him randomly select students fairly, and he can get many students involved. This is how he manages his class. This does not apply to only vocabulary. It is also used with other types of exercises. For example, the lesson is about using *and*, *but*, and *or*. He writes numbers and students know if they have to write sentences using the connectors. You can see from the photo. Please pass it around.

T4: That works. I like it. I will use it with my students.

T3: Good idea. Who are your students?

T5: English and Political Science students.

R: Now let's see T2, as she just said, she writes everything down on the board. As you see on the photo. You wrote almost every word on the board. Why did you write wherever space was available and why did you not write the meanings?

T2: Right. I can see it looks a bit messy. I hardly tell them the meanings. I asked them to look up the meanings before they study.

R: OK. The last one was T1. Would you like to share?

T1: I think you remember better. You can tell them first.

R: OK T1 divides students into groups to have them think about techniques to memorize vocabulary. Can you show the others how it goes?

T1: (She showed her technique with a song.)

T5: Very creative.

T2/T4: Creative!

R: Why do you use this technique?

T1: The lesson is relevant to memory, so I think about how to help students memorize vocabulary. Most students have problems memorizing vocabulary, and this idea came up to my mind, just this morning.

R: This technique is from your own thoughts. You try to relate an activity and the lesson. What about time consumption in doing this activity?

T1: That activity lasted almost an hour. It has many steps such as dividing them into groups, having students sit with their groups, etc. I think normally there are no activities related to vocabulary. This is like the new beginning after the midterm exam. If vocabulary is not emphasized, students do not learn any vocabulary and it means they do not learn anything, so I put more effort and time teaching vocabulary through activities.

R: You just mentioned time in doing this activity for an hour. Can you tell us a bit more about how you divide students into groups?

T1: I distributed pieces of paper of L2 definitions. Some received a word and some received a definition. They have to match the word and definition. They have 15 minutes to think about how to make their word easy to memorize. Then the group whose word (both spellings and meanings) are best memorized will be rewarded with scores.

R: T1 has students who get the same piece of papers get into the same group first and then they have to match the word and its definition. Actually, there are many ways to divide students into groups in a short time. Do you have any ideas of how to make it more time effective?

T4: We can just ask them to count the numbers. This is very easy and saves time.

T2: At the beginning, I divided students this way, but later on, I just have them work in the same group, not to waste time dividing them again.

T4: Me too. I have them work in the same group because I think they have experience working together so it should be easy for them to work together and they do not need to learn to adapt to new working style.

R: Do you have any other ideas? Actually using an activity does not need to be time-consuming. If we plan well, we can save a lot of time.

T1: Right on that day, some groups got the same word. It was a bit chaotic.

R: Right, it appeared that it took a lot of time on some steps. If we plan, we should think about this clearly from the first step to the last step. For example, you can just get students into groups, and then give them the word and its definition. Perhaps, you do not need to ask them to match the word and its definition because the main purpose is to have them think about a method to help them memorize its spelling and meaning. This will help you save some time. Moreover, we should limit the time for students. If you say 15 minutes, it should be 15 minutes, no time extension if not needed. If you are not strict with the time given, students won't try hard enough to finish it on time as well. Once time passes 10 minutes you should tell them how much time they have left. Actually, the activity should be done only in 25 minutes, not almost an hour as there are only 5 or 6 students. One group used only a few minutes. Preparation (15minutes) and presentation time (10 minutes) should not be over 25 minutes or at most half an hour. Please remember that we are not here to criticise but to share our teaching experience. Now let me turn to T4. You always give words, parts of speech and meanings, but both L1 and L2 meanings. Why do you do that?

T4: Because if students are not good enough in English, they can understand Thai but for students who are quite good, they might be able to remember some when they encounter the words in the future.

R: I see. Why do you always give examples?

T4: So they can see how words are used.

R: You think giving only parts of speech may be insufficient. Examples of use are necessary. When you introduce a word, why do you introduce some other words in the same family, such as cook, cooking, cooker?

T4: Actually for this one, I explain more because when students were presented and translated it, it was wrong. It shows that they do not really understand the meanings of the words and they seem confused.

R: Apart from these techniques, you also draw a picture. Why do you do that?

T4: I think it helps students remember meanings with ease and it is easy to understand.

R: It helps memorization. Now let's talk about T2's technique. You always check if there are students' unknown words. Why do you do that?

T2: Because I want them to be able to apply the knowledge of words to what they are going to learn.

R: OK. Can you tell us how you always teach words?

T2: I read, translate and ask if students know the meanings. If a student says the word they do not know, I will ask other students if they can tell us the meaning. Then I will ask for parts of speech and some other things.

R: For example?

T2: Words in the same family. For example, a student does not know what *improve* means, I will ask other students to say the meaning, and then I will ask what part of speech it is. After that, I will introduce another word, *improvement* and say that it is a noun.

R: Why do you always give words in the same family?

T2: Actually I want students to know many words. If they know word root, it will help them guess the meanings. For example, *wonder* is a noun. They may know *wonderful* which is an adjective. When I tell them the words, I do not want to write meanings on the board. I want them to struggle. I do not want to feed them everything. If students are brave enough to ask for meanings again, I might tell the meanings but if they don't ask, I will assume that they understand and remember.

R: Alright, thank you. Now let's talk about T5's teaching technique. Why do you always write in columns or tables?

T5: For me, I am similar to other teachers. I want them to know both parts of speech and know keywords in contexts leading to guessing meanings. I write everything in columns because I am afraid that my handwriting is not good. Students also will copy details neatly. Also, I can be certain they can get important and necessary information helping them to understand.

R: You use only L2, how do you check if they can really understand what you teach?

T5 I think they understand based on my observation. First, most vocabulary is not very difficult. Later on, if vocabulary is not abstract, I may find some pictures to aid their comprehension and memorization. Nevertheless, vocabulary exercises from the book are good enough because it has sentence samples for students to see how the words are used. Students have at least one example of words used in context if they want to memorize. I think so far my students are OK with my teaching.

T1: When you teach, you have students read the passage and you ask them if they understand?

T5: As you heard before about the table I use to teach vocabulary, I do a similar thing with reading. After they learn vocabulary, I draw a table for each paragraph. In the first column, I write words students think are important and then in the next column, write main ideas. Students use the words in the first column to make up sentences. Then have them compare and see if their sentences are similar to the main idea. They already learn how to find the main

ideas. Then we discuss the missing words. If important words are missing, then we discuss why they should not add those words. Most of the time, I just ask students to skim and scan which are significant reading skills. Thus, translation is not necessary.

T4: Do your students major in English?

T5: Yes, they do.

T3: Your students' background is OK.

T2: When I teach English majoring students, I do not use translation at all as well and the lesson could go very quickly. What I do with other majors, it takes almost an hour but with English major students, it is done in half an hour.

T4: Right. It is easy to teach English major students.

T5: So far I use translation only when students seem very confused with grammar. For other skills, I do not think it is very necessary to be very clear. Sometimes, I use Thai with Political Science students when I see their curious faces, especially when explaining grammatical rules because I want them to be clear and use them accurately. This is different from vocabulary where I never use Thai because I think if students want to know more, they can self-study on their own.

T2: Ah today I taught English major students. I had them play a game as the time was available. The students had to think about a word representing themselves. Students had to say their friend's word in order. Unbelievably students could remember their friends' words.

R: Interesting. Now let me ask you about the midterm exams. Did you all finish grading?

T2: Most students could pass the midterms. Not many got lower than half scores.

T1/T3/T4: Not finished yet.

T5: Most of them passed.

R: Do you know why they did not pass?

T2: I could not remember exactly which part they failed. I think most students did not get the score of the error part. They did not do it correctly or maybe they did not understand the instructions. They had to circle the errors and then correct them but they did not correct them.

T4: They might not understand the instructions.

T5: Actually, the format is similar to exercises in the book, but in the book most exercises are in the form of paragraphs. This time students saw it in sentence patterns, so probably they couldn't do it.

T1: Actually they have done this very frequently.

T3: Next time, if possible, I think a paragraph format is better and students are familiar with it.

T2: Another part they couldn't do well is sentence forming.

T5: Right. One student wrote Tom Yum Gung is the name of the movie. Very funny.

T4: That is still OK. My student wrote Tom Yum Gung is a man. It does not make sense.

R: Do you know why they could pass the exam?

T5: I think the test format is similar to what they have done.

T2: I think so. Next time we should follow the pattern to be certain that they can make it.

R: I have a final question. What evidence shows that students learn vocabulary? What makes you able to observe that students learn vocabulary?

T5: I think we can check when students take the quizzes and midterm exams. For the immediate results, maybe we can check from the exercises in the book if students could do it.

R: If we still have some time, can I get back to the question that if you could make your lesson better, what ideas do you have to make it better?

T2: My main concern is that I do not have much time to prepare. I spend more time on other courses, not the English fundamental course. I have less time to prepare, so sometimes I don't plan much, I just go ahead without plans. Whatever's coming up in my mind, I just try to use it immediately.

T1: How many PPTs have you made?

T5: Most of my PPTs are grammar lessons, not vocabulary or reading. Now lessons are more complicated, so I find pictures to help in teaching.

T2: I posted more information on FB and assign students to access the Internet.

R: Can you add me to your group? So I can see how it works. Thank you very much, everyone. See you next Thursday.

T4: T5, let me use your technique in my class next week.

T5: Sure, go ahead.

T2: Please try to use this technique with non-English major students and let me know how it works.

T3: OK. I will share with you next time.

T1: I will try to use T3's technique in my class too.

Appendix U: Sample questions in DRs categorized by themes

Questions were categorized by themes as oral group reflection involved reflective teaching; therefore, most questions concerning what to teach, how to teach, why to do so, how to improve were always asked in almost every week.

Question themes	Which DR?	Target teachers
Objectives		
R: As you all do not have much time, let me begin now with the objectives of the two chapters, one before midterm and one after midterm. Can I ask one teacher to tell us about the objectives of the Science in the Kitchen chapter and another one about the other chapter of Memory, please?	DR1	Any teachers
Overall lesson achievement		
R: Did you reach the goals of the lessons? Did everything go well as planned?	DR1	Any teachers
R: I see. Did everything go well as planned?	DR2	T1
How and what to teach		
R: Right. It is said that a human brain can memorise better if the information is processed in order. The second one was T4. What did you provide to students?	DR1	T4
R: Right, she does not spend much time in doing this. Only about 15 minutes. Now let's see T5's style. He has a very interesting way to manage his class and deal with vocabulary. Can you share, please?	DR1	T5
T2: So how did you teach?	DR5	T5
R: So how did you get this idea? Did it come from your learning experience or creativity?	DR5	T5
T4: Excellent! What program is it? I don't know how to use these kinds of things.	DR5	T5

Question themes	Which DR?	Target teachers
R: But you used the pictures last week. Let me show your pictures. I think the pictures of these lessons are clear and easy to guess. What are your students' reactions? Are they still active with learning vocabulary through pictures?	DR6	T3
R: Do you have any criteria about which words should be made examples of, or when you explain more about how to use them?	DR6	T5
R: If you have time, how would you like to teach?	DR6	T3
Why		
R: Why do you use this technique (memorisation techniques)?	DR1	T1
R: It helps memorisation. Now let's talk about T2's technique. You always check if there are students' unknown words. Why do you do that?	DR1	T2
R: I see. Why do you always give examples?	DR1	T4
R: It helps memorisation. Now let's talk about T2's technique. You always check if there are students' unknown words. Why do you do that?	DR1	T2
R: Alright, thank you. Now let's talk about T5's teaching technique. Why do you always write in columns or tables?	DR1	T5
R: I see. You always emphasised revision both before and at the end of the lessons. Why do you often do that?	DR2	T4
R: What is good about seeing and hearing again and again?	DR2	T4
R: Alright. Now, let me turn to T5. You always emphasize parts of speech. Why do you always ask or check if students really know what part of speech of the word is?	DR2	T5
R: Alright. Apart from the influence from T3, do you have any other reasons why you want to use pictures?	DR3	T1
R: What is good about teaching through activities?	DR4	T2

Question themes	Which DR?	Target teachers
R: I see. Do you think this activity is better than other activities you have used or does it help students learn vocabulary better?	DR4	T2
R: What are the advantages of this activity?	DR4	T2
R: Every time you have students repeat after you. You always have meanings, parts of speech and pronunciation. Why do you always emphasise the pronunciation of every word?	DR6	T3

Appendix V: Analysis of participating behaviour in DRs

Table 1 shows the occurrence of DRs and number of participants.

Dialogic reflection (DR)	Time of each session (minutes)	Participants						No. of participants
		R	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	
DR1	45	√	√	√	√	√	√	6
DR2	45	√	√	√	-	√	√	5
DR3	40	√	√	√	√	√	√	6
DR4	45	√	√	√	-	√	√	5
DR5	30	√	√	√	-	√	√	5
DR6	40	√	√	-	√	√	√	5

Table 1: Participation in DRs

Table 1 shows that six sessions of DRs were held approximately 40-45 minutes each. Only one session lasted about a half an hour because other language skills of grammar and reading were not shared. Only twice all six participants could attend (DR1 and DR3). Their reasons for the absence were of a made-up class and personal matters.

In order to examine the participating behaviours in DRs, the spoken data from DRs were classified into 10 categories as follows,

Categories	Its definitions
1. Questions concerning reflective teaching from R to T	The questions I as a researcher targeted at an individual teacher about his or her practice, and reasons behind the practice, for example, how did you teach?, why did you do so?, and so on
2. Questions concerning reflective teaching from R to Ts	The questions I did not intend to target any particular participants about their practice and reasons behind the practice, for example, can you tell me about the objectives of the lessons this week?, ... there are many ways to divide students into groups in a short time. Do you have any ideas of how to make it more time effective?, and so on
3. Questions concerning reflective	The questions other teachers asked a particular teacher regarding his or her practice

teaching from T to T	
4. Responses concerning reflection from T to R	Responses in which a targeted teacher replied to my questions concerning his or her practice
5. Responses concerning reflection from T to T	Responses in which a targeted teacher replied to other teachers' questions concerning his or her practice
6. Sharing information from R to T	Some information in relation to an individual teacher's practice that was not clearly explained by the teacher to other teachers, was later explained more by me
7. Raising the issues	Any issues that are not related to teachers' observed practice, and these issues are raised by teachers, not the researcher. For example, I want to know how to teach without L1 translation, If you do not assign students to self-study, how do you manage to teach vocabulary in class?, and so on
8. Sharing opinions	A situation in which other teachers and I shared opinions relevant to a particular teacher's practice or any issues raised in DRs
9. Compliments from R to T	Some positive feedback I gave to an individual teacher
10. Compliments from T to T	Some positive feedback a teacher gave to a teacher

Table 2: Categories and definitions of spoken data in DRs

These turns of speaking and number of words were derived from the aforementioned ten categories contributed by both teachers and me (R) when participating in all six sessions of DRs. Then numbers of words expressed in each turn were counted. These data were later analysed using linear regression to examine the correlation between turns of speaking as well as numbers of words shown in Table 7.3.

Total results	R		T1		T2		T3		T4		T5	
	Turns	Words	Turns	Words	Turns	Words	Turns	Words	Turns	Words	Turns	Words
DR1	42	1039	19	444	17	531	12	277	25	430	18	745
DR2	27	792	12	274	6	230	NA	NA	21	486	6	132
DR3	22	466	3	71	8	95	23	726	4	36	4	46
DR4	34	743	11	273	19	680	NA	NA	18	306	6	105
DR5	15	364	18	386	9	270	NA	NA	14	103	17	420
DR6	28	466	0	0	NA	NA	26	824	26	415	8	316
r	0.89		1.00		0.94		1.00		0.90		0.92	

Table 3: Number of words and turns of speaking

As shown in Table 7.3, the correlation coefficient (r) shows that there is a very strong relationship between turns of speaking and numbers of words as the most coefficient value was almost 1. This means that it is possible to examine turns of speaking or numbers of words only (if time is limited). In this study, both turns and words were described together.

Analysing data concerning numbers of words in each session of DR shows who contributed the most in each session. This illustrated and highlighted what emerged in each session. The reason why not presenting both turns and words in the same graph was to avoid the confusion of the data.

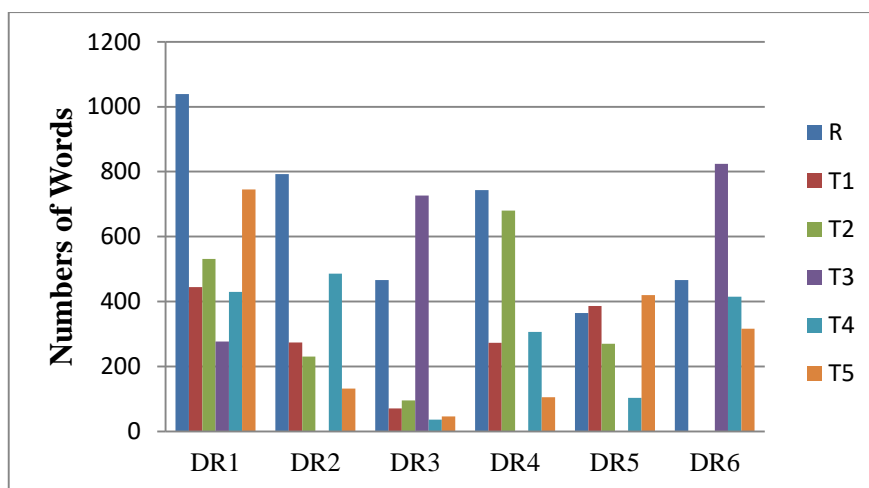


Figure 4: Contributions based on Number of Contributed Words

Table 4 shows who made the most contributions in each DR. T5 shared the most responses in DR1. The DR data shows that he shared how he taught reading without L1 translation, why he believed it was unnecessary to translate everything into Thai, how he dealt with vocabulary, reasons why he asked students to self-study, why he did not want to focus on vocabulary in

class. Last he was asked about how he checked students' comprehension of both vocabulary exercises and reading without L1 translation. T5 was the only teacher who never employed L1 translation. Therefore, he received attention and he was inquired by myself and other teachers to clarify and exemplify how he taught and managed his class.

Regarding DR2, T4 made the most contributions. She was asked to talk about the objectives of the lesson, to share how she reviewed vocabulary students had previously learned, to explain why she reviewed vocabulary before a new lesson and reviewed new vocabulary at the end of the lesson, to share about her employment of T5's technique, and to share about how she had students listen to pronunciation from a website and to explain why she had students both listen and see the words. It is worth noting that many questions concerning reasons behind her practice were investigated by me and many questions concerning the website, in particular, the source of the website and whether it was the same as the book or if it was from the publisher or if it came from the teachers.

Results derived from DR3 display that most contributions were made by T3. In this session, she was asked by me to share how she taught vocabulary through pictures and why she chose to teach this way. She shared about advantages of visualisation, limitation it could cause such as different perception of words, her source of the idea of this teaching technique. After that, the focus of the discussion was a reflection on her practice, especially on time she spent on this teaching technique and her reasons why it took much time. Apart from this, she shared her opinions and inquired about other teachers' techniques.

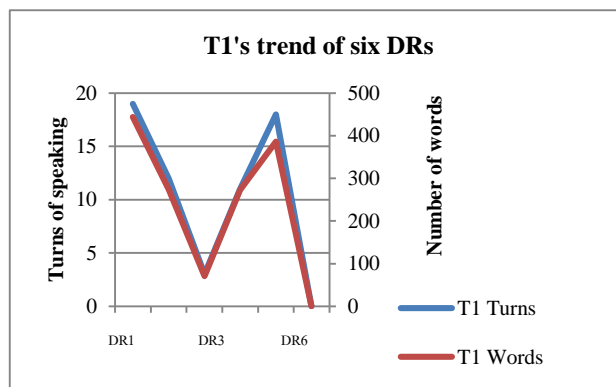
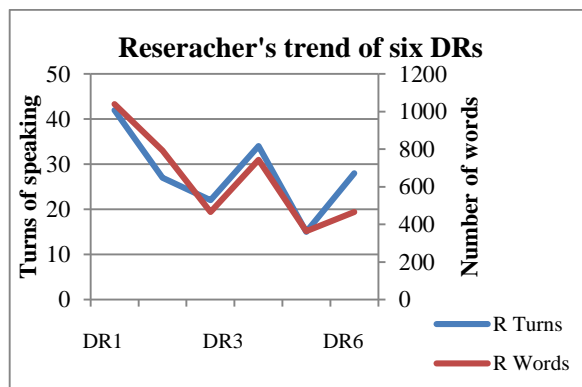
Data of DR4 reveal that T2 shared the most contributions among other teachers. It was found that T2 employed a game to have students learn vocabulary; therefore, she was invited to share how she taught, advantages of the technique, comparison of games and other techniques she has previously used and how to improve some steps of the game she employed. Many of the questions came from me to guide the teacher to consider her practice and some other ideas of how to improve and how to manage using the game in a big class of 80 students were shared by other teachers; thus, discussions were spurred on in this session.

The graph shows that T5 made the most contribution in DR5. The DR data reveal that T5 used a new technique of pictures to teach vocabulary which made other teachers interested and probed about how he searched pictures or use animations in PPT. In particular, he was asked to share how he taught vocabulary through pictures and why he chose to teach this way by me and

then other teachers inquired about the PPT and animations he used to present vocabulary and how he searched pictures. After that, he reflected about advantages and disadvantages of using pictures to teach vocabulary and how he chose pictures to present meanings of some abstract words.

T3 was found to make the most contributions in DR6 session. Examining how she taught, she did not change her practice of using pictures to teach vocabulary. In fact, she talked about her reason of why not to use pictures to teach vocabulary in the last week and she explained why she really emphasised pronunciation. Then she talked about how she shifted her practice and how she wanted to use pictures in other different ways.

Apart from the most contributions individual teachers made, the data also reveals the changing trend of participating behaviors over six sessions of DRs. Figure 5 presents the overall correlation between the turns of speaking, word counts and the six DR sessions of myself and individual teachers.



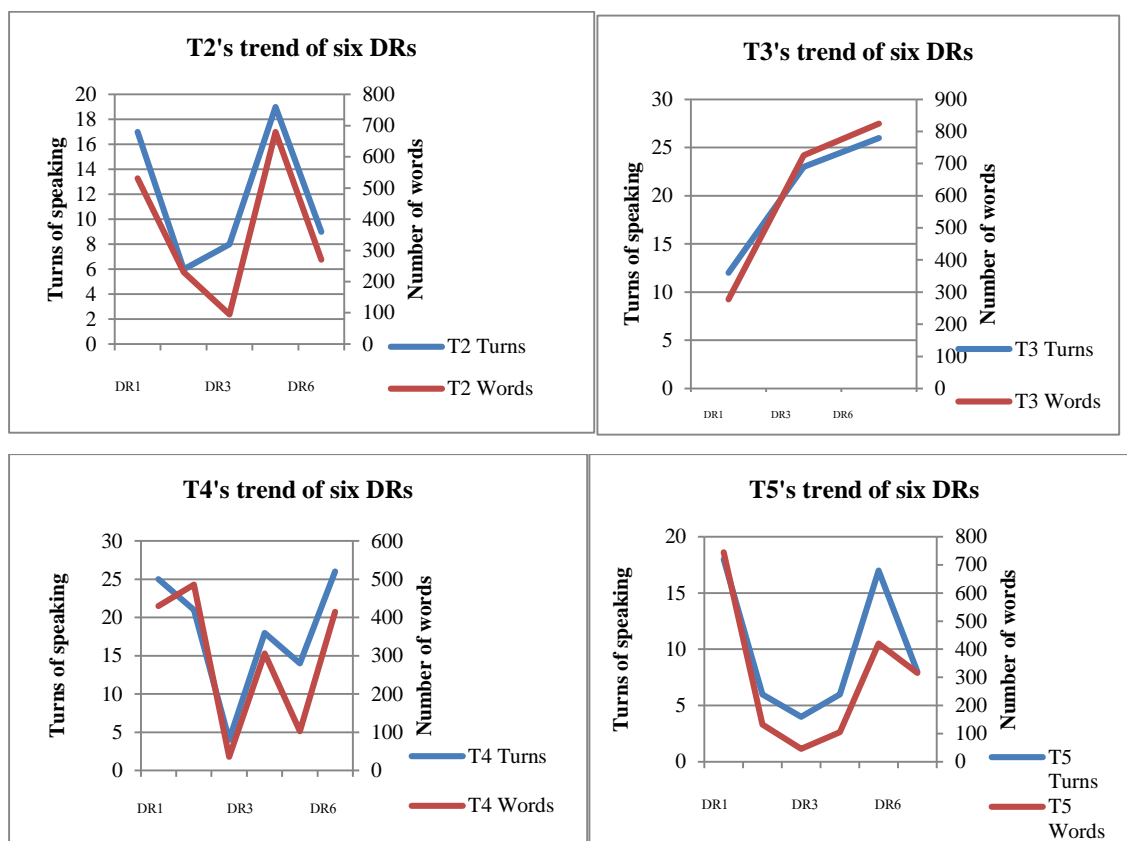


Figure 5: Trends of six DRs

Figure 5 shows the decrease in my facilitation and contribution in the latter sessions; however, it shows that T3's participation increases, and there is a fluctuation in the participation of T1, T2, T4, and T5.

The possible reasons for the decrease in my graph might be that a number of questions inquired about teachers' practices or what was shared in aspects of word knowledge and teaching techniques in DRs were the same as time went on. In addition, it might be possible to explain that over several sessions, I was not the only one who facilitated most of the questions as found in DR1. Furthermore, there was some improvement in some teachers' practice which made it unnecessary to ask some questions to lead the teachers to consider their inappropriate practice, but a few questions asked to guide them to examine why the practice went well were replaced. Another reason might be that some teachers made more contributions without waiting for me to ask. All of these decreased the inquiries and comments made by me.

In contrast to my results, the graph shows that T3 made more contributions every time she attended. A possible explanation may be that apart from sharing her teaching techniques, she also raised issues including how to teach without L1 translation which affected students' comprehension and time consumption. Moreover, she shared the problems concerning her teaching, such as time limitation and her wish to change her teaching techniques. It was found

that she always shared opinions on other teacher's teaching techniques and she also compared their techniques with hers. It might be possible to explain that T3 might feel comfortable to share some of her teaching problems with her colleagues and she might be open-minded as she compared her teaching techniques with other teachers' techniques. Furthermore, she might feel close or comfortable enough to comment or share her opinions on other teachers' techniques. The other four teachers' trend of contribution shows fluctuation. Examining T1's contributions over sessions of DRs, besides her sharing and reflecting on her practice, T1 did not share much of her opinions on any discussion issues. One of the reasons might be that she was not very confident as she was a new and the youngest teacher. Her limited teaching experience and the seniority might have impeded some of her contributions.

T2 made numerous contributions in every session. The possible explanation might be that T2 always changed her teaching technique almost every week; therefore, it was essential to ask her to explain how she taught, to ask if the lesson went well as she planned and to ask about how to improve it. Moreover, when she commented on her teaching, she did not just talk about what took place in that class, she also talked about how she had used it in other classes or courses. Apart from sharing her teaching techniques, it was observed that T2 always shared her opinions based on her teaching experience in almost every discussion. If she did not share her ideas in discussions, she always made compliments or shared some signs showing that she was listening attentively, for example, "interesting", "creative", etc. The fact that she was a new teacher who had less than one-year teaching experience did not impede her to share her views with others. Therefore, it might be possible to explain that she is quite confident with her instructional practices which might come from her schooling experience and she might feel comfortable to share her experience or ideas with others.

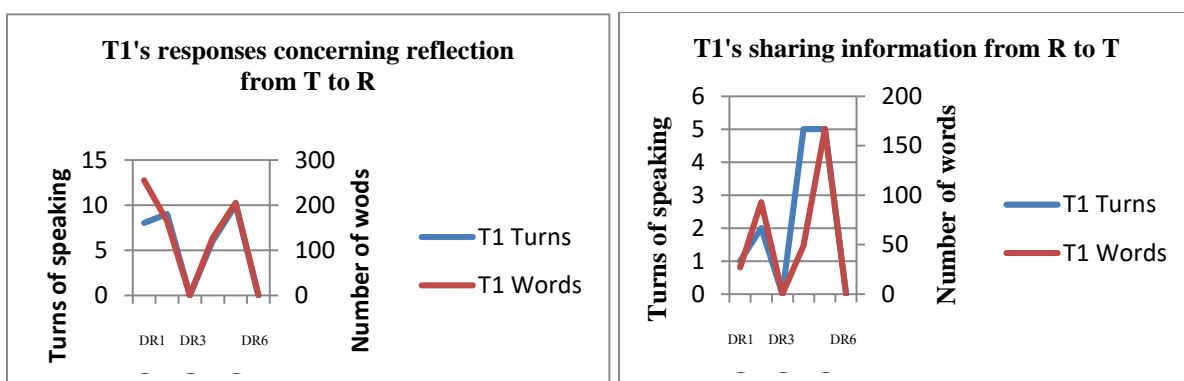
Similar to T2, T4 usually made a lot of contributions in DRs. T4 did not employ a variety of teaching techniques; however, DR data show that she usually shared her opinions in any topics raised based on her teaching experience, such as how to teach with or without L1 translation, how to solve the problems of a large class, how to manage class to save some time when asking students to do some activities and how to improve other teachers' teaching techniques. Besides frequent sharing of opinions, she also asked some questions for clarification about other teachers' techniques, such as the use of PPT computer program, how to search pictures and so on. Compliments on some techniques were also paid by her. A possible explanation of these contributions might come from her eight-year teaching experience that allows her to share ideas with others and on any emerged issues. She might have a certain degree of confidence to share her opinions about any issues, too.

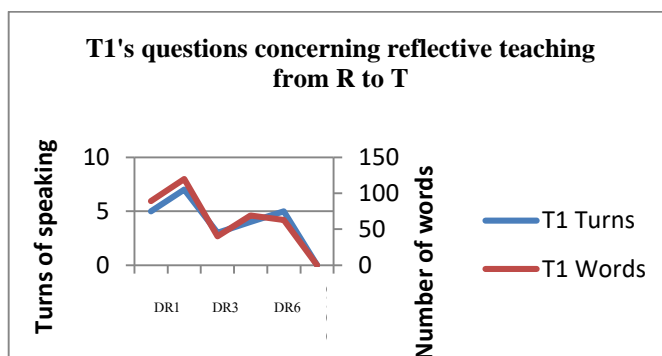
Figure 5 shows that T5 made the most contributions at the first session and decreases as time went on. A possible explanation might be that after his first time sharing about how he taught, his practices regarding vocabulary instruction including teaching technique and aspects of word knowledge remained the same. Thus, there were not many questions to probe about his practices by both researcher and other teachers. Moreover, it was found that T5 did not participate or share much of his viewpoints when discussing other teachers' techniques. One of the possible reasons might be that I did not try hard enough to encourage him to participate, or he might not feel comfortable, confident or safe enough to share with others. However, T5's contributions increased again in the last two sessions. This might be a result of his employment of a new teaching technique apart from three column tables which focused only on meanings, keywords, and parts of speech he always used; therefore, many questions in relation to this technique were asked for clarification by many teachers. It is worth noting that long teaching experience is not a contributing factor in DRs. T5 had seven-year teaching experience; however, his insecure feelings might hinder him to make contributions in DRs.

The graphs above can reveal only different trends of individual teachers. To gain insightful understanding, teachers' participating behaviors in DRs were individually investigated. The graphs below were derived from the categories of DR data, and then they were grouped based on the similarity of the trends.

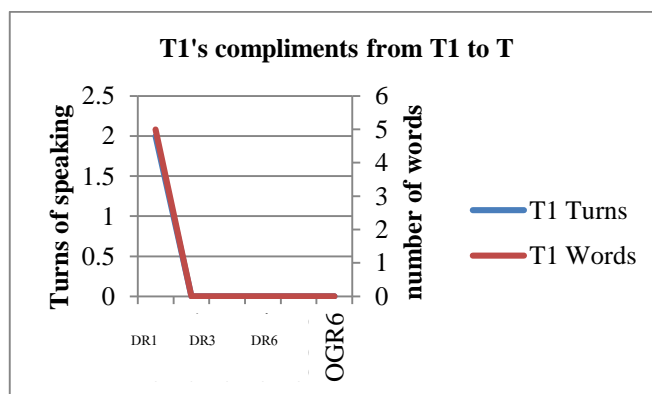
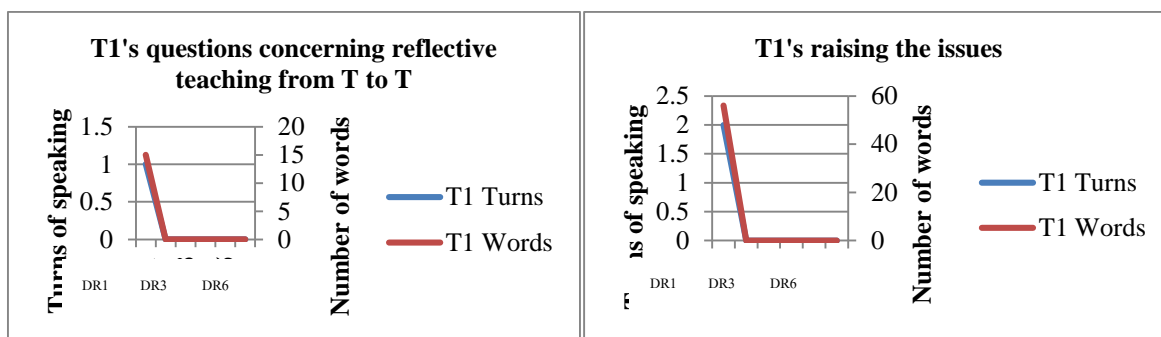
T1's participating behaviour in DRs

The three graphs below reveal that there is a similar fluctuation in questions concerning reflective teaching from me to T1, responses concerning reflection from T1 to me and sharing information from me to T1.





The data suggests that there was a relationship between T1 and me in terms of the amounts of contributions T1 made. The data seems to suggest that if I did not ask questions targeted to T1, she might not participate much in DRs and I provided some more information concerning her teaching practice varied from time to time.



The three graphs above show that T1's contribution concerning her questions about other teacher's practices, issues raised and compliments from her to other teachers decreased when time went on. This can be interpreted that she did not make much contribution if she was not asked to share.

The graph of opinions sharing and the graph of responses concerning reflection from T1 to other teachers revealed the similar fluctuation from week to week. The trends drop which might be explained with her unemployment of VTT in the final weeks. The data suggests that T1 participated well with me but not with other teachers.

T2's participating behaviour in DRs

As shown in the graphs above, the two trends of questions concerning reflective teaching from me to T2 and responses concerning reflection from T2 to me similarly fluctuate. This means that there is an interrelationship between my inquiries and T2's amounts of responses. In other words, T2 participated well when she was asked by me.

The following graphs show fluctuation regarding questions concerning reflective teaching from T2 to other teachers, and compliments from T2 to other teachers. The trends similarly fluctuated from week to week.

These data seem to suggest that T2 did not have interactions with only me, but she also interacted with other teachers including asking questions concerning other teachers' teaching techniques and paying some compliments on others which were shown differently from week to week.

However, the graph shows that her sharing opinion was decreased. Her participation was very high in the first sessions and decreased over the sessions of DRs.

Apart from the declining sharing information trend, the graphs regarding sharing information from me to T2 and her raising issues reached the lowest point. It can be interpreted that she explained her practice clearly; thus, I did not have to support her with more explanations. However, the raising issues graph shows that she never raised any new issues during DRs. However, it is worth noting that T2 participated well with me and others.

T3's participating behaviour in DRs

The four graphs above reveal a rising trend in questions concerning reflective teaching from me to T3, questions concerning reflective teaching from T3 to other teachers, responses concerning reflection from T3 to me and compliments from me to T3. This shows that T3 made more contribution every time she attended the DRs. Moreover, the graphs reveal the impact of my inquiries on her responses; however, her contribution regarding her questions to other teachers was increased.

The four graphs above show similar trends of T3's participation between herself and other teachers. Her responses concerning reflection from herself to other teachers, raising the issues, sharing opinions and compliments from herself to other teachers fluctuated. The data suggests that she had less participation. However, she attended only three times. Therefore, it is difficult to make a conclusion about her behavior toward other teachers.

The following graph shows that sharing information from me to T3 reached the bottom. This means that I did not add more details to support T3's sharing of her practice.

T4's participating behaviour in DRs

There was a fluctuation in questions concerning reflective teaching from me to T4, responses concerning reflection from T4 to me, responses concerning reflection from T4 to other teachers and sharing information from me to T4. The data suggest that there is a correlation between questions inquired by me to T4 and her responses to me and between her responses to other teachers. The sharing of information from me to T4 fluctuated every week which means that some details regarding her practices were not provided or supported by me.

There was an increase shown in questions concerning reflective teaching from T4 to other teachers and compliments from her to other teachers. This means she was interested in their teaching practice which aroused her to probe more for clarification and paid compliments.

Similar to T2, T4 has interaction with me and other teachers.

However, the graph below hits the bottom which means there is no issue raised by her over the six weeks of DRs.

T5's participating behaviour in DRs

The graphs show that the trends fluctuate in questions concerning reflective teaching from me to T5, responses concerning reflection from T5 to me and from T5 to other teachers and sharing information from me to teachers.

The trends of questions concerning reflective teaching from T5 to other teachers, sharing opinions and sharing compliments from T to T5 drop. Moreover, the graph of raising the issues shows that he never raised any issues during DRs. Further, the data suggests that after time went on, his participation decreased. This is interpreted that he might not be feeling comfortable to share his opinions and he might not have any questions he was interested in or curious enough to probe.

Overall, it can be seen that there are two types of interactions. The first type is an interaction between me (R) and a teacher (T) and the other type is a bi-directional relationship between me (R) and teachers (Ts) and between a teacher (T) and teachers (Ts). It is found that T1 and T5 share some similar characteristics in terms of their interaction which come from my facilitation. This suggests that I am the one who facilitates questions or arouses them to participate in DRs. Without my facilitation, these two teachers might not participate much in DRs. In contrast, the data shows that there is a bi-directional relationship between me and teachers and between teachers and teachers. T2, T3, and T4 have both ways of interactions with me and between teachers themselves. These three teachers responded to me and asked questions about other teachers' techniques.

Furthermore, the data above reveals two groups of their participating behaviours. The first group of decreasing behaviour is found in T1 and T5. Considering T1's case, it might be possible to explain that as she is the youngest and newest. She might not be very confident about her teaching practice and pedagogical knowledge which at some degree impedes her participation.

PRI data shows her concern about teaching vocabulary. She stated, "In the beginning, I asked other teachers about how to teach and they said vocabulary should be introduced at the beginning (before reading), so students know the meanings of words." (T1, PRI) The data suggest that she was not confident but eager to improve her teaching by asking more experienced teachers for suggestions. Moreover, POI data show that T1 was concerned about sharing her practice. In her words, "Normally, I have never been observed and received comments on teaching from anyone. It makes me stop thinking and it makes me lose confidence. I think it makes me think about what I have done and if it was good enough. However, I have to admit and open my mind in order to learn more and improve my teaching. Moreover, I think it is OK to share information about my weakness because others can learn that that way is not good and they should not do it." (T1, POI). The data also shows T1 seems not very confident, but she is open-minded and expresses her will or desire to improve her teaching.

The second teacher categorized in decreasing participating behavior in DRs is T5. It might be possible to explain that T5 is a more experienced and confident teacher, but he cares more about face-saving than other teachers. An instance of how he responded in DR1 illustrates that he was careful about how he reacted to the question.

Excerpt

R: Did you reach the goals of the lessons? Did everything go well as planned?

...

T5: It could not be said that it was not planned. If I look at the objectives, I think I can say that goals are reachable. Students learnt what they should learn.

(T5, DR1)

Furthermore, POI data shows that he is really concerned about negative comments. In his words, "I just want to propose, not sure if it is good. ...If we want to use a new technique, I think we should try and adjust it. We should have chances to talk to you first before sharing it in DRs. (T5, POI). It is suggested that sharing practice in DRs causes some stress or concern at some degree and it shows that he is concerned about what other teachers may think about his teaching. This might obstruct him to share his opinions concerning other issues as well.

Apart from his characteristics, my facilitation and comments are another cause leading to his decreasing involvement. As T5's practice in the following weeks remained the same, there were not many questions concerning his usual practice because many questions had already been asked in the first week. Furthermore, some comments may have made him lose confidence. The excerpts below illustrate this.

The second group of fluctuating engaging behavior is T2, T3, and T4. To begin with T2, she might be a confident person although she is the newest teacher with less than one-year teaching experience. However, when she made contributions, they originated from her learning experience and her personal preference or beliefs in teaching and learning through games which make her confident in her practice. Her responses in POI illustrate her opinions concerning attending DRs.

Excerpt

If I attend the DRs, I will work with a group that I feel comfortable to work with, but it is normal for sharing to have negative comments. It doesn't make me lose face because I think it is good to be told and I can decide whether to follow the suggestions. (*T3, POI*)

The data suggests that she has a positive attitude towards sharing which might allow her to share both her practice and opinions about any issues emerging in DRs.

T3 attended the sessions the least; however, her contribution increased every time she attended. This might be possible to explain that she is quite confident and comfortable to share her opinions with others. The POI data shows that she felt embarrassed when sharing teaching techniques with others, but she was aware of the fact that sharing included both positive and negative aspects. In her words, "Participating in DR causes sharing and revealing some weak points." (*T3, POI*). The data suggest that T3 believes that it is acceptable for her to share or be exposed to other teachers. This might explain why she does not worry much about sharing her teaching experience and opinions with her colleagues.

T4's participation fluctuated which means her involvement with DRs varied from week to week. T4 is not concerned much about sharing which makes her contribute whenever she can. This might explain why some teachers make some more contributions than others.

The data suggests that what is shared in common among T1, T2, and T4 reflects that they can accept to share and to hear some negative comments. Furthermore, teaching and schooling experience seems to be another factor leading to contributions. Apart from these, the experience of the facilitator effected how teachers would like to participate in the discussions. However, the observation and POI data reveal that T1 and T5 admitted that their beliefs and practice change while the other three's change was not obviously shown.

Considering what took place in DRs, the data suggest that I seemed to focus more on sharing new teaching practices. In fact, the purpose of attending these sessions was to reflect on their teaching which was beyond how to teach and why to do so; however, my limited interview experience impeded me to probe or encourage teachers to reflect on their practice or share their opinions.

Appendix W: Guided questions of post-observational semi-structured interview

Guided questions for dialogic reflection (Adopt and adapted from Harmer's DVD of The Practice of English Language Teaching, 2008)

Guided questions

English guided questions	Thai guided questions
1. What do you think about dialogic reflection?	ท่านเห็นว่าการใช้การสะท้อนความคิดเห็นเกี่ยวกับการเรียนการสอนโดยการคุยกันนี้เป็นอย่างไร
Prompts - Why do you think it is good?	เช่น ทำไมจึงคิดว่าเป็นวิธีการที่ดี
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Increase awareness of their beliefs and practice about teaching vocabulary - Gain some pedagogical knowledge - Have opportunities to meet and share an experience with colleagues 	<p>เพิ่มความตระหนักเกี่ยวกับความเชื่อเกี่ยวกับการสอนคำศัพท์และการสอนคำศัพท์</p> <p>เพิ่มความรู้เกี่ยวกับการสอน</p> <p>มีโอกาสดูพบปะและแลกเปลี่ยนประสบการณ์การสอนกับเพื่อนร่วมงาน</p>
- Why don't you think it is good?	ทำไมจึงคิดว่าวิธีนี้เป็นวิธีที่ไม่ดี
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Waste time - Not lead to any professional learning and professional development - Take place too frequently 	<p>เสียเวลา</p> <p>ไม่ได้เพิ่มพูนความรู้ความสามารถในการสอนและพัฒนาวิชาชีพ</p> <p>จัดบ่อยเกินไป</p>
2. Have you noticed any influences on your teaching of vocabulary after participating in dialogic reflection?	การเข้าร่วมการสะท้อนความคิดเห็นเกี่ยวกับการเรียนการสอนโดยการคุยกันเป็นกลุ่มส่งผลต่อการสอนคำศัพท์ของท่านบ้างหรือไม่
Prompts - Change how you practice	เช่น เปลี่ยนวิธีการสอน
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - How was your practice changed? - Give some examples, such as using new activities/exercises, testing what you teach, etc) - What made you change your practice? 	<p>เปลี่ยนวิธีการสอนอย่างไร</p> <p>โปรดยกตัวอย่างประกอบ เช่น การใช้กิจกรรมใหม่ๆ ใช้แบบฝึกหัดใหม่ๆ การออกแบบทดสอบตรงตามที่สอนและอื่นๆ</p> <p>อะไรทำให้เปลี่ยนการสอน</p>

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Change what you believe about vocabulary teaching - How was your belief changed? - Give some examples, such as doing something you used to think that it was inappropriate, understanding and writing tests with more confidence, etc) - Why did 	<p>เปลี่ยนความเชื่อเกี่ยวกับการสอนคำศัพท์</p> <p>ความเชื่อเปลี่ยนไปอย่างไร</p> <p>โปรดยกตัวอย่างประกอบ เปลี่ยนไปทำอะไรที่เคยคิดว่าไม่ใช่วิธีที่เหมาะสม เข้าใจและออกข้อสอบด้วยความมั่นใจมากยิ่งขึ้น เป็นต้น</p>
<p>3. If I want to use DR again, do you have any suggestions? What do we need to be aware of?</p>	<p>หากผู้วิจัยต้องการใช้การสะท้อนความคิดเห็นเกี่ยวกับการเรียนการสอน โดยการคุยกันอีกครั้งหนึ่ง ท่านมีข้อเสนอแนะหรือไม่ อะไรที่ควรคำนึงถึง</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - How to reflect / methods of reflection - What aspects to reflect - Time of doing group reflection - The frequency of meeting (How frequent) 	<p>วิธีการจัดการสะท้อนความคิดเห็นเกี่ยวกับการเรียนการสอน โดยการคุยกัน</p> <p>แง่มุมใดบ้างที่ควรมีในการสะท้อนความคิดเห็นเกี่ยวกับการเรียนการสอน โดยการคุยกัน</p> <p>ระยะเวลาของการจัดการสะท้อนความคิดเห็นเกี่ยวกับการเรียนการสอน โดยการคุยกัน</p> <p>ความถี่ในการจัดการสะท้อนความคิดเห็นเกี่ยวกับการเรียนการสอน โดยการคุยกัน</p>

Appendix X: Sample of transcripts of post-observational semi-structured interview

T3 (May 8th, 2015: 30 minutes)

Questions	Responses (Thai)	Responses (English)
<p>What do you think about DR? What is good about it? If good, why? If not, why not?</p> <p>คุณคิดอย่างไรเกี่ยวกับการสะท้อนความคิดเห็นเกี่ยวกับการเรียนการสอน (Dialogic reflection: DR)? ข้อดีของ DR? ถ้าดี ทำไมถึงดี? ถ้าไม่ได้ดี ทำไมถึงไม่ดี</p>	<p>มันทำให้เรารู้ว่าเราทำอะไร เพราะการสอนของเราสะท้อนออกมาด้วยการช่วยของคนอื่น ทำให้ได้เข้าใจจุดดีและสิ่งที่ควรปรับปรุง ทำให้รู้ว่าขาดอะไรหรือทำให้รู้ตัวว่าสอนอะไรหรือนั้นสอนอย่างไร ซึ่งมันแบ่งออกเป็นสองส่วน ส่วนแรกมาจากครูคนอื่น ทำให้เราได้เรียนรู้และนำไปปรับใช้ได้ ส่วนที่สองจากส่วนของตัวเอง เวลามีคนอื่นมาบอกเราว่าการใช้รูปเพื่อสอนคำศัพท์ดี มันทำให้เรามั่นใจมากขึ้นว่าความคิดของเราดี เพราะเป็นวิธีที่คนอื่น สนใจ ถึงแม้ว่าพวกเขาจะไม่ได้พูดออกมา แต่ก็เห็นได้จากปฏิกิริยาของพวกเขาเค้าในตอนนั้น ดังนั้น เริ่มแรกเลยเรารู้สึกว่าความคิดของเราได้รับการยอมรับ ซึ่งพวกเขาอาจจะเอาไปต่อยอด และเราก็สามารถไปต่อยอดเพิ่มเติมจากสิ่งที่พวกเขาเค้าได้พัฒนาขึ้นเช่นกัน มีหลายอย่างที่เรารู้สึกว่าไม่ได้เป็นรูปธรรมชัดเจน มันทำให้ฉันได้เรียนรู้อะไรบางอย่างที่เป็นรูปธรรมมากขึ้น เช่นการจัดการเรียนการสอนและเทคนิคการสอน สิ่งเหล่านี้ได้ถูกนำไปใช้โดยคนอื่น เช่นการใช้รูปภาพจริงๆในชั้นเรียน ฉันได้เรียนรู้เทคนิคการสอนจากครูอื่นเช่น T4 และ T5 ที่เน้นบริบทและ collocations นี้เป็นสิ่งที่ไม่สามารถเรียนรู้ได้จากหนังสือ แต่เป็นสิ่งที่ครูผู้สอนนำไปใช้และ</p>	<p>It makes me know what I did because my practice was reflected with the help of others. I learned my strengths and what I should improve. It allowed me to know what I lacked or made me realize of what I taught or how I taught. There are two parts. From other teachers, I can learn something that I can apply. From my part, when the others said using pictures to teach vocabulary was good, it confirmed my idea that what I did was good because others were interested. Even though they did not say it, I could see it from their reactions at the time. So, initially, I can see for myself whether my ideas are acceptable which they may develop and I can then also develop ideas further based on what they have also developed. There are many things I do not know that is not concrete. It makes me learn something more concrete, such as teaching and learning management and teaching</p>

	<p>พัฒนาเทคนิคการสอนที่ได้เรียนรู้จากในกลุ่มนี้ ครูในกลุ่มก็พยายามปรับปรุงและหาแนวทางอื่นเพิ่มเติมในการสอน ซึ่งความคิดพวกนี้ก็เป็นสิ่งใหม่สำหรับพวกเขาเช่นกัน ดังนั้นพวกเขาก็สามารถเรียนรู้สิ่งใหม่ๆ ได้เช่นเดียวกัน เหมือนกับที่เราสามารถเรียนรู้จากสิ่งที่เป็นจริง ได้เรียนรู้จากคนที่นำไปสอนแล้วจริงๆ ได้เห็นการสอนที่เป็นรูปธรรม ซึ่งผ่านการทดลองใช้และพัฒนาขึ้นเองโดยตัวอาจารย์หรือจากประสบการณ์หรือโดยความคิดที่มาจากกลุ่ม การได้เห็นอะไรที่เป็นรูปธรรมและการเรียนรู้จากสิ่งที่คนอื่น ๆ ได้ทำมาโดยตรงที่เราสามารถนำไปใช้ประโยชน์ได้ทันทีด้วยความมั่นใจว่าเทคนิคพวกนั้นจะต้องดี ในทางเดียวกันเพื่อนร่วมงานก็สามารถมั่นใจและใช้วิธีสอนของเราได้เหมือนกันเพราะว่าได้ลองและทดสอบด้วยวิธีนี้มาแล้ว สิ่งนี้ทำให้เกิดการให้และการรับ ประเด็นที่สองคือช่วยให้เรียนรู้เทคนิคการสอนแบบอื่นๆ และรู้ว่าจะนำไปปรับปรุงการสอนยังงัย เทคนิคเหล่านี้ได้ถูกนำมาใช้มาอย่างดีแล้ว ดังนั้นจึงรู้ว่าจะนำไปปรับใช้ในชั้นเรียนและปรับปรุงให้ดีขึ้นในอนาคตได้อย่างไร</p>	<p>techniques. These have been practiced by others, such as using pictures which were really used in class. I learned teaching techniques from others such as T4 and T5 who emphasized the context and collocations. This is something I cannot learn from books but it is new and had been employed by teachers who had shared and developed their techniques from the group. The teachers in the group tried to improve and find additional ways to teach. The ideas should be new to them too, so they can learn something new as well. It is like as if I can learn from something real, learn from people who already tried practicing it, see something concrete which means it has been tried out and developed by themselves or by their experience or by ideas coming from the group. Seeing something concrete and learning from what others have done is good in a way that I can just use them immediately with the certainty that they must be good. Similarly, my colleagues can be certain to use mine too because I have already tried and tested that</p>
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		way. That leads to giving and taking. Secondly, it helped me to know about other teaching techniques and how to improve my teaching. These techniques have been used successfully, so I know how to apply them in my class and how to improve in the future.
OK. What about the disadvantages of DR?	หากเป็นไปได้อยากให้ขยายเวลาให้นานกว่านี้ ตอนนี้ มันเหมือนกับเราดูแค่เทคนิคการสอนเท่านั้น มันน่าจะดีกว่าถ้านักวิจัยเองก็สามารถบอกได้ว่าเทคนิคไหนให้ผลลัพธ์ที่ดีกว่าและดีกว่าอย่างไร เทคนิคไหนนำไปสู่การปรับปรุงการเรียนการสอน	If possible, I want to extend the length of time. Right now it is showing only teaching techniques. It would be better if you can say which techniques lead to better results and how it is better. Which technique leads to an improvement in teaching?
So do you think that you want to know which techniques of vocabulary instruction can yield better results?	ตอนนี้ผลลัพธ์ที่ได้มาจากการสังเกตเท่านั้น มันบอกได้ว่าดีกว่ามั้ยจากปฏิกิริยาของนักศึกษา จะเห็นได้ชัดเจนว่านักเรียนให้ความสนใจมากขึ้นและพยายามหาคำตอบมากยิ่งขึ้น	Now the results obtained were based on observation only. It tells whether it is better. Based on the students' reactions, it is obvious that they paid more attention and tried harder to find answers.
If you ask me which technique is better than others, I cannot say now because there may need to be another experimental	ตอนที่ทบทวนคำศัพท์กับนักเรียน พวกเขาสามารถตอบเสียงได้ดังฟังชัด สิ่งนี้ไม่เคยเกิดขึ้นในชั้นเรียนของเรา ปกติเราแค่สอนคำศัพท์ใหม่ ไม่เคยทบทวนศัพท์ที่พวกเขาเคยเรียน แต่พอมีสื่อการสอน	When I reviewed vocabulary with my students, they could answer loudly. This never happens in my class. Normally I just teach new vocabulary. I never review what they have learned. But when I have visual and audio instructional materials

<p>study to prove the effectiveness of each technique but I think what you can informally assess now is from your students' reactions and their participation.</p>	<p>พร้อมอยู่ในมือ เราสามารถใช้สื่อภาพและเสียงทบทวนทบทวนได้นักเรียนทันที ดูจากความสามารถที่นักเรียนตอบก็สามารพพูดได้ว่าเป็นเทคนิคที่ดี แต่สามารถวัดได้แค่ระดับหนึ่งเท่านั้น ฉันไม่แน่ใจว่าถ้าฉันเปลี่ยนรูปแบบหรือเปลี่ยนบริบทของคำที่ปรากฏอยู่ ผลลัพธ์อาจจะเปลี่ยนไป</p>	<p>at hand I can just use it to review it to the students immediately. Based on the students' ability to respond, it can be said that it was good but it can assess only to a certain level. I am not certain that if I change the format or how the context of words appears that the results may change.</p>
<p>All right now let's move onto the changes in beliefs and practices. Did you notice any changes in your beliefs or practices after attending DR?</p>	<p>เราเปลี่ยนวิธีการเรียนการจัดการในห้องเรียน ทำให้ช่วยประหยัดเวลาได้มากขึ้น การเข้าร่วมใน DR ช่วยให้เราเห็นวิธีการจัดการได้จริงๆ ดังนั้นเราสามารถนำไปปรับใช้เรียนที่ต่อไปได้</p>	<p>I have changed the way I managed a class, it helped to save a lot of time. Participating in DRs really shows me how to manage, so I can apply it in my subsequent classes.</p>
<p>Anything else? What about negative comments shared during DR?</p>	<p>การเปรียบเทียบด้วยรูปภาพที่พวกเราสอนเป็นการให้คำติชมในเห็นเชิงลบ ถึงแม้ว่านักวิจัยไม่ได้กล่าวออกมาอย่างชัดเจน แต่ก็ทำให้เรารู้สึกเสียหน้าเพราะการแสดงวิธีการสอนของแต่ละคนทำให้เกิดการเปรียบเทียบ เป็นการแสดงความ</p>	<p>Comparing with pictures how we taught is a way of showing negative comments. Even though the researcher did not explicitly state it, it made me lose face because showing how each teacher practices is a way of comparing us and showing negative comments without making a clear statement.</p>

	<p>คิดเห็นในเชิงลบโดยไม่ต้องมีคำอธิบาย อย่างชัดเจน</p>	
<p>I see.</p>	<p>การเข้าร่วมใน DR ทำให้เกิดการแชร์และ การเผยจุดอ่อนของผู้สอนที่ ก่อนเข้าร่วม เรารู้สึกว่าเราสามารถแบ่งปันความ คิดเห็นกับคนอื่นได้ เราไม่ได้คิดว่าเรา ดีกว่าคนอื่น นี่ก็จากมุมมองจากผู้ให้ ในทางตรงกันข้ามใน ในฐานะผู้รับ การ เห็นสิ่งที่คนอื่นทำการเปรียบเทียบซึ่ง ทำให้เราเสียหน้า ครูแต่ละคนก็มีเทคนิค การสอนที่แตกต่างกันไป เมื่อนำเทคนิค เหล่านี้มาแสดงให้เห็นมันทำให้เราเห็น ได้ชัดว่าเราขาดอะไร ทำให้เรารู้สึกเสีย หน้าแบบเงิบๆ การคุยกันในกลุ่มนี้บอก ถึงทักษะที่มีไม่มี ทำให้รู้สึกผิดที่ไม่ สมบูรณ์แบบ เช่นไม่ใช้กระดาน ทำให้ ต้องพิจารณาความสามารถในการสอน ของตัวเอง อะไรที่สามารถปรับปรุงได้ก็ จะทำ แต่บางครั้งเราก็ไม่มีเวลาถึงแม้ว่า จะอยากปรับปรุงการสอน จุดนี้ทำให้เกิด ความกดดันและการพูดคุยในกลุ่มทำให้ เกิดการตระหนักรู้ว่าสิ่งที่ทำไปนั้นดี</p>	<p>Participating in DR results in sharing and revealing some weak points. Before attending this session, I had felt that I could share with others. I don't think I am superior to others. This is from the perspective of a sharer. In contrast, as a receiver, seeing what others did is a way of comparing which made me lose face. Each teacher has different techniques. When these techniques were shown, it obviously told me what I am lacking. This causes losing face in silence. This group talk tells what (skills) I have or what (skills) I do not have. It makes me feel guilty for not being perfect, for example not using the board. It makes me consider my teaching ability. What I can improve I will do but sometimes I don't have time even though I really want to improve my teaching. At this point, it causes some pressure and the group talk raises awareness. If what I did is good or if it is OK but if not, I have to try to improve. It pushes me to do a better job.</p>

	<p>หรือไม่ดี แต่ถ้าไม่ดีก็ต้องพยายามปรับปรุง มันกระตุ้นให้ทำให้ดีขึ้น</p>	
<p>Now let's move on to the impacts of DR on changes in beliefs and practices. Do you notice any changes in your beliefs or practices after attending DR?</p>	<p>จริงๆแล้ว เคยคิดว่าจะทำอะไร แต่ไม่เคยทำให้เป็นจริง ตอนที่มาสัมภาษณ์เราเกี่ยวกับว่าเราได้ทำอะไรเพื่อนเน้นการเรียนรู้คำศัพท์ให้กับนักเรียน เรานึกถึงการอ่านแบบมีภาพขึ้นมาในใจ เราเคยใช้แนวคิดนี้ในวิชาอื่น ๆ แต่ไม่เคยลองใช้ในวิชานี้ ตอนแรกเราให้นักเรียนวาดภาพสิ่งที่พวกเขาเข้าใจเกี่ยวกับเนื้อเรื่องที่อ่าน แต่ยังไม่เคยใช้ในการสอนคำศัพท์ คำตอบที่เราตอบไปว่าให้นักเรียนใช้พจนานุกรมทำให้เราคิดว่ามันเป็นการช่วยเรียนคำศัพท์ แต่มันเหมือนกับว่าเราให้พวกเขารับผิดชอบในการเรียนรู้คำศัพท์ด้วยตัวเอง ถ้าหากไม่ได้ถามเกี่ยวกับเรื่องนี้ เราคงจะไม่ได้ทำอะไรกับการสอนคำศัพท์ เราคงแค่ดูที่ระดับบทอ่าน ให้นักเรียนเข้าใจภาพรวมสิ่งที่พวกเขาอ่าน</p>	<p>Actually, I have thought about what to do but I have never made it real. When you interviewed me about what I did to emphasize vocabulary learning to students, I thought about visual literacy. I have used the concept of visual literacy in other courses, but I have never tried it in this course. At the beginning, I asked students to draw pictures of what they understand from a reading paragraph or passage, but I have never applied it at a vocabulary level. My response to you about assigning students to use a dictionary makes me question if this is not enough to promote vocabulary learning. Asking students to use a dictionary is a way to help them learn vocabulary for me but it is like I just assign them to be in charge of themselves. If you had not asked about this, I would have not done anything with vocabulary. I just look at the paragraph level, to have students understand the whole picture of what they read.</p>

<p>What do you think about your practices?</p>	<p>เราปรับเปลี่ยนวิธีสอนตามความเชื่อของตัวเองเรื่องการอ่านให้เกิดภาพในใจ เราเปลี่ยนวิธีการสอน เช่น การใช้กระดานเพื่อเป็นสื่อให้นักเรียนเห็น ก็เปลี่ยนนะ แต่ไม่ได้เปลี่ยนวิธีการสอน เพราะว่าได้เรียนรู้มาจากคนอื่นในกลุ่ม แต่เรารู้ว่าเราไม่ได้เข้ากลุ่มบ่อย ดังนั้นก็เลยไม่รู้ว่าจะทำอะไรไปบ้าง ปกติก็ดูแลระดับบทความ/เนื้อเรื่องที่อ่าน (ระดับความเข้าใจ และรูปภาพสำหรับระดับเนื้อเรื่อง ไม่ใช่ระดับคำศัพท์) ซึ่งเป็นความสนใจส่วนตัวของตัวเอง</p>	<p>Well, I change my practice on teaching vocabulary based on my beliefs on visual literacy. I change some of my practices such as the use of the board for visualisation, I changed it. I didn't change the way I teach because I learnt teaching techniques from others in the group. However, I know that I hardly attended the group, so I didn't know about what others did. Normally I look at a paragraph level (understanding and picturing only at a paragraph level not word level) which is my personal interest.</p>
<p>What about your beliefs?</p>	<p>เราปรับเปลี่ยนวิธีสอนตามความเชื่อของตัวเองเรื่องการอ่านให้เกิดภาพในใจ ถึงแม้ว่าเราจะรู้ว่าวิธีสอนที่ดีคืออะไร แต่ถ้าไม่มีเวลาทำ มันก็ไม่มีผลสำคัญสำหรับครูที่จะเตรียมสอน วางแผนว่าจะสอนยังไงจะต้องใช้เวลามากขึ้น แม้ว่าจะมีกลุ่มนี้ แต่ถ้าครูไม่มีเวลาหรือไม่พร้อมที่จะทำ มันก็จะไม่มีการเปลี่ยนแปลง เราก็ยังคงจะใช้การแปลไทย เพราะว่าเราไม่ต้องวางแผนหรือใช้เวลามากในการวางแผนอย่างการใช้เทคนิคอื่น ๆ</p>	<p>I have improved the way I teach based on my beliefs on visual literacy. Even though I know what good practice is, if I don't have time to do it, it does not matter. For a teacher to prepare a lesson, plan about how to teach, it takes much more time. Even though there is a group reflection, if a teacher does not have time or is not ready to do it, nothing will change. I will just end up using only L1 translation because I do not need to plan or it doesn't take much time in planning like using other techniques.</p>

Appendix Y: Samples of codes, subthemes, themes of POI data

Responses (English)	Subthemes	Themes
<p>T3: It makes me know what I did because my practice was reflected with the help of others. I learned my strengths and what I should improve. It allowed me to know what I lacked or made me realize of what I taught or how I taught. There are two parts. From other teachers, I can learn something that I can apply. From my part, when the others said using pictures to teach vocabulary was good, it confirmed my idea that what I did was good because others were interested. Even though they did not say it, I could see it from their reactions at the time. So, initially, I can see for myself whether my ideas are acceptable which they may develop and I can then also develop ideas further based on what they have also developed. There are many things I do not know that is not concrete. It makes me learn something more concrete, such as teaching and learning management and teaching techniques. These have been practiced by others, such as using pictures which were really used in class. I learned teaching techniques from others such as T4 and T5 who emphasized the context and collocations. It is something I cannot learn from books but it is new and had</p>	<p>Raise awareness of current practice</p> <p>Sharing of teaching experience, teaching techniques, ideas and opinions</p> <p>The increase of confidence in teaching practices</p> <p>Provided concrete concepts of teaching</p>	<p>Advantages of DR</p>

<p>been employed by teachers who had shared and developed their techniques from the group. The teachers in the group tried to improve and find additional ways to teach. The ideas should be new to them too, so they can learn something new as well. It is like as if I can learn from something real, learn from people who already tried practicing it, see something concrete which means it has been tried out and developed by themselves or by their experience or by ideas coming from the group. Seeing something concrete and learning from what others have done is good in a way that I can just use them immediately with the certainty that they must be good. Similarly, my colleagues can be certain to use mine too because I have already tried and tested that way. That leads to giving and taking. Secondly, it helped me to know about other teaching techniques and how to improve my teaching. These techniques have been used successfully, so I know how to apply them in my class and how to improve in the future.</p>		
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Appendix Z: Themes, subthemes and definitions of themes of post-observational semi-structured interview data

No	Theme	Definitions of themes	Sub-themes
1	Advantages of DR	Teachers' opinions regarding advantages of DR	1.1 sharing of teaching experience, teaching techniques, ideas and opinions
			1.2 the increase of confidence in teaching practices
			1.3 raising the awareness of teachers' practices
			1.4 providing concrete concepts of teaching
			1.5 professional improvement
2	Disadvantages of DR	Teachers' perspectives towards disadvantages of DR	2.1 lowered teachers' self-esteem (losing face and losing confidence)
3	How belief changed	Teachers' perspectives towards belief change	3.1 awareness of current beliefs
			3.2 awareness of current practice
			3.3 increasing of confident/confirmation
			3.4 adoption of new beliefs
4	How practice changed	Teachers' perspectives towards practice change	4.1 the implementation of other teaching techniques instead of the only employment of L1 translation
			4.2 the implementation of other colleagues' teaching techniques
			4.3 improvement of classroom management and time management

5	Reasons for belief change	Teachers' perspectives towards reasons for belief change	5.1 willingness to learn
			5.2 provoking questions
			5.3 need of contribution making
6	Reasons for changes in teachers' practices	Teachers' perspectives towards reasons for changes in teachers' practices: whether	6.1 the proof of a successful teaching technique that had already been implemented by other teachers.
			6.2 losing face
			6.3 willingness to change
			6.4 students' active participation