THE EXPERIENCES OF NATIVE SPEAKING TEACHERS (NSTS) WHEN TEACHING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE TO STUDENTS (ESLS) IN THAILAND

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Abstract

English is ‘the medium of instruction’ for most universities when learners go to pursue their degrees (Phothongsunan, 2006) and, in addition, the English language has played a crucial role in communications between countries for sharing information, technology and education (Khamkhien, 2012). The trend of English language teaching today is in the terms of ESL (English as a Second Language) or EFL (English as a Foreign Language) settings (Warford & Reeves, 2003). NSTs are being hired worldwide in great numbers because of their command of the native language (Sahin, 2005; Mckay, 2003). The reason for employing NSTs is because institutions demand a high level of fluency in language competence from such teachers (Sahin, 2005). The purpose of this interpretive phenomenological analysis research (IPA) was to explore the phenomenon of ‘Native Speaking Teachers’ (NSTs) teaching English to ‘English as a Second Language’ students (ESLs). This qualitative study aimed to gain insight into the experiences of NSTs teaching English to ESLs at language institutions in Thailand. Specifically, it focused upon NSTs experiences, motivation and cultural adaptations needed to teach English in Thailand. The research questions in this study are 1) What are the experiences of native speaker teachers (NSTs) when teaching English to second language students (ESLs) in Thailand? 2) What are the motivations for native speaking teachers (NSTs) to teach English to second language students (ESLs) in Thailand? And 3) How does the Thai culture of second language students (ESLs) impact upon the pedagogy used by native speaking teachers (NST), as perceived by NSTs themselves?

Keywords: Native Speaker Teachers, Thai education system, ESL, NST
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I dedicate this work to the memory of my loving father, Choochat Choklap.

I miss you DAD!
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Chapter I: Introduction

The purpose of this interpretive phenomenological analysis research (IPA) was to explore the phenomenon of ‘Native Speaking Teachers’ (NSTs) teaching English to ‘English as a Second Language’ students (ESLs). This qualitative study aimed to gain insight into the experiences of NSTs teaching English to ESLs at language institutions in Thailand. Specifically, it focused upon NSTs experiences, motivation and cultural adaptations needed to teach English in Thailand.

Statement of the Problem

The English language is the major language of choice for communication; both domestically and globally (Khamkhien, 2010). Greatly increased global contact has brought about newly networked societies, through international tourism, business and scientific exchange and, additionally, media places a premium on the ability to communicate in English (Warschauer, 2000). Emphasis is placed upon the communicative approach involving functional interaction, rather than on the achievement of near perfect language correspondence, to meet the imperatives of new societies where the English language is shared amongst many groups of non-native speakers, and is not dominated by British or Americans (Crystal, 1997). This multi-nationally integrated downward trend, in which English is used as an additional language, has developed the most rapidly in ESL speaking countries (Warschauer, 2000). The ever increasing number of English speakers means that many will be using English alongside one or more other languages spoken, and hence the use of English may be more specific and limited than that of monolingual speakers of English (Mckay, 2003). English is ‘the medium of instruction’ for most universities when learners go to pursue their degrees (Phothongsunan, 2006) and, in addition, the English language has played a crucial role in communications between countries for sharing information, technology and education (Khamkhien, 2012).
With new world changes brought about by globalization and technological development, professional English teaching needs to understand current socioeconomic factors and their influences upon English language learning (Warschauer, 2000). Educational institutions prefer NSTs to teach English to ESLs because of their language ability (Sahin, 2005; Mckay, 2003). Native speaking teachers have traditionally enjoyed the benefits of being considered ‘default language teachers’, or those who are rightfully entitled to carry out the task of teaching the new language to speakers of other languages (Luk, 2001). In the academic world, it is believed that student aspirations to become a native-speaker involve social good, endowed with certain values in certain contexts or markets (Luk, 2001). The same language is spoken with different accents by different social classes of people, and thus is perceived differently by the listener (Luk, 2001). Each year, thousands of native speakers of English find positions teaching English in foreign countries (Barratt & Kontra, 2000), and quite often, once these teachers arrive in their host countries, they are overwhelmed by panic, asking themselves, What happens next? How can I serve my students’ needs, and earn my colleagues’ respect? (Barratt & Kontra, 2000). Mousavi (2007) found that NSTs experience difficulties when teaching English to ESLs, including: lack of knowledge about local cultural practices, lack of familiarity with the ESLs curriculum and generating work motivation.

Given these findings, as well as this researcher’s familiarity with such issues concerning NSTs teaching of English, in Thailand in particular, this research was driven by a desire to gain an understanding of NSTs specific experiences in Thailand.

**Justification for the Research Problem**

The trend of English language teaching today is in the terms of ESL (English as a Second Language) or EFL (English as a Foreign Language) settings (Warford & Reeves, 2003). NSTs
are being hired worldwide in great numbers because of their command of the native language (Sahin, 2005; Mckay, 2003). The reason for employing NSTs is because institutions demand a high level of fluency in language competence from such teachers (Sahin, 2005). In private institutions in particular, administrators often believe that hiring native English speakers as teachers makes their programs more desirable (Mckay, 2003; Lui, 1999). Native speaking teachers (NSTs) present an ongoing reality in the recruitment practices of many educational institutions, because they give a pervasive kudos of this language in particular (Pennycook, 2007). There is evidence to support that some educational institutions show a clear preference for native speaking teachers (NSTs) over non-native speaking teachers (NNSTs), because of the social perceptions of potential students in their social context (Todd & Pojanapunyal, 2009). Furthermore, the directors of many private institutions prefer to hire NSTs because they believe that NSTs make the institutions more prestigious, in that they have teachers who teach pronunciation correctly and, being private, it is more attractive to their clients (Liu, 1999; Mckay, 2003). Not surprisingly, students and teachers in foreign countries value what NSTs bring with them: natural-authenticity (Barratt & Kontra, 2000). The belief held by most students is that NSTs speak ‘more standard’ English, and that they will learn ‘more’ English from interacting with NSTs, which is reflected in their judgment about the differences in quality and value of English products (Luk, 2001). Authentic pronunciation, wide-range knowledge of vocabulary and critical information about usage all make NSTs a valuable resource (Barratt & Kontra, 2000). The greatest strengths of NSTs refer to native speakers’ accurate pronunciation and fluency of the language (Mckay 2003). When viewed on the surface, NSTs are in possession of English as a socially valued linguistic ‘product’ or ‘capital’ (Luk, 2001).
Deficiencies in the Evidence

According to Luk (2001), more recent discussions from an international perspective have explored the role of NSTs in a socio-cultural perspective. The arguments mainly hinged on the premise that the global nature of English has made it difficult for English-speaking countries, like the United Kingdom and the U.S.A., to maintain their control over their authority of English as a second language setting. Several authors have decried the mismatch between the Western way of teaching (NSTs) and non-Western contexts (NNSTs) (Arva & Medgyes 2000; Kim, 2009; Liu, 1999). As previous research indicated, the overall challenges of NSTs include cultural understanding (Carless & Walker, 2006), lack of familiarity with lessons or materials (Mousavi, 2007), or lack of motivation for teaching English to ESLs (Mousavi, 2007). There is also a lack of research regarding NSTs perspectives about teaching English to ESLs in an ESLs cultural setting (Kim, 2009; Liu, 1999).

Relating the Discussion to Audiences

This study provided insights into the ways NSTs experience teaching ESLs in a common culture, which are useful for language institutions who want to hire NSTs as their English teachers. Language institutions do not hire NSTs to teach just because they are NSTs, as hiring poor teachers not only causes resentment amongst qualified host teachers and serious students, but also leads to poor learning on the part of the student (Barratt & Kontra, 2000). Furthermore, this study will assist the policy makers in language institutions to define policies impacting upon NSTs experiences of setting and cultural adaptation for better understanding. Language institutions can gain a better understanding from this study and administrators, teachers and students, can all be involved in the findings, which should impact upon: 1) a description of the curriculum and where the NSTs course fits in, 2) the types and times of English examinations
which students take, 3) the role of text books in the curriculum, and 4) the types of methodology students are used to. The policy maker will be able to guide NSTs to see how classes are taught, and for colleagues to invite them to observe their classes.

Moreover, the administration or policy makers in language institutions will be able to teach NSTs about Thai culture and the Thai language, because the more NSTs learn about the host language, the better they will be able to teach, move independently around the country and fit in with the culture (Barratt & Kontra, 2000). Leaders will gain a better understanding of how to support NSTs, in keeping with their perspectives and motivation. This research will hopefully benefit NSTs themselves, and allow them to share their experiences to inspire others. NSTs who are perceived negatively by colleagues in their host setting should be able to avoid creating such kinds of negative impressions from Thai teachers. NSTs should also be able to learn more about the educational context in Thailand from other NST’s experiences. What to teach is a balance between what the teachers, students and administrators at the host school think the students need. Therefore, NSTs will be able to understand their own roles more, and those of Thai teachers, in order to better teach students. NSTs might be able to learn from this study about how to prepare lessons diligently for ESLs, and they will also learn about and respect the Thai language and culture. They can also gain insight into errors students make in English, by networking with bilingual teachers.

Furthermore, even rudimentary efforts will earn NSTs respect and help them navigate day-to-day life in their host culture (Barratt & Kontra, 2000). NSTs will learn to be open and accepting of the general and academic Thai culture, where they cannot assume that: their methodology is better than local teachers, their training is more advanced, or that they are more privileged because they are NSTs. They will learn from this study that teachers in other countries
have often had rigorous preparation and training as teachers and work hard to keep abreast of current methodologies. This study will be able to address the need to understand and adjust for potentially problematic preconceptions of NSTs which may undermine their effectiveness.

This research will also benefit non-native speaking teachers (NNSTs). NNSTs will understand NSTs qualifications, be able to make recommendations to students who want to go overseas to study the English language, and they will be able to prepare teaching material which incorporates a world of English. They will be able to learn about cultural diversity and how to accept the different cultures of the Western world. They will be able to study, from NSTs experiences, how they should teach ESLs, how to interact in the classroom, and how NSTs prepare their materials and methodologies, and how to cope with a diversity of students. The study will address the need to understand, and adjust, potentially problematic preconceptions of NSTs which may undermine their effectiveness.

**Significance of the Research Problem**

As has been identified, a great number of NSTs are hired worldwide (Sahin, 2005; Pennycook, 2007; Todd & Pojanapunyal, 2009). However, previous studies have been controversial about the significance of differences between the NSTs and NNSTs (Kim, 2009; Arva & Medgyes, 2000; Mousavi, 2007). Luk (2001) showed that there was positive evidence showing the effectiveness of NSTs, but a large body of opinion questioned the effectiveness of, and the rationale for, the use of NSTs for teaching English in an ESL setting. Almost all of these views were from students and non-native speaking teachers, not from native speaking teachers - one of the major stakeholders (Luk, 2001). This significance of the research problem indicated that there was a very specific gap in existing literature, which this research hoped to address (Butin, 2010). Since NSTs are the main participators in English language teaching, their views
deserve investigation. In particular, no research has captured the NSTs experience when teaching English to ESLs in Thailand. Therefore, this study will pursue NSTs experiences of teaching ESL as NSTs in Thailand.

**Positionality Statement**

Similar to other countries, the greater majority of the Thai population communicate in their native language, in this case Thai. However, as with other global communities, proficiency in the English language is sought by many in order to advance their studies or professional careers. This researcher has developed and improved her English language skills though several English Language institutions, where native speakers were the teachers. While the researcher took several English language classes with NSTs, it was her experience that learning English from NSTs was not easy. As in Thai culture, the researcher remained somewhat distant from her teachers because of respectfulness, which may have limited her chances to explore English and her competencies even further. Teachers in Thailand are considered a repository of knowledge, to whom people pay great respect, although it is not expected that a teacher who hands down knowledge has great diagnostic insight in matters about which he is consulted. Teachers are not accustomed to seeding advice or discussion, because their positions guarantee that they already know. To question such knowledge is perceived as not to question the ideas but to question or doubt the person themselves. In the classroom, the researcher found that NSTs were more conducive to second language acquisition. For example, NSTs asked more questions, gave more comments about student responses, and offered greater simplification to input and interaction. All the time, there was interaction between the NSTs and the students during classes, and this made the students take more responsibility for participating in and initiating classroom interactions.
According to this researcher’s experience, NSTs provided a more favorable classroom environment for second language acquisition than their local counterparts, and the researcher thus preferred to be taught by NSTs. Contact with the NSTs was something the researcher highly valued, and something she had positive expectations from. The researcher believed that her English proficiency would improve as a result of being taught by the NSTs, because: 1) the presence of the NSTs increased the opportunities for her to speak English, and 2) the NSTs English was of a much higher standard. The researcher felt as if she received greater motivation and achieved better results when learning the English language, and that the availability of NSTs was a positive asset to ESLs learning English. That was the inspiration for this research, to gain a better understanding of the native speaking English teacher experience when teaching English to ESLs. However having to have such strong positive perspective from the researcher by being taught by NST, the ESLs will have a better improvement, inspiration, and motivation than being taught by NNST. The researcher has experienced both classroom situations, as a student which generated a multitude of biases, reflected in the professional, cultural, and personal filters through which each setting was approached.

The technicalities of the research process became detached from the motives, feelings, and experiences of the researcher, and these needed to be declared and explained in a ‘reflexive’ manner (Troyna, 1994). Adopting a reflexive approach can mean evaluating research procedures and practices critically from one or more perspectives, including any combination of epistemological and methodological, theoretical and practical as well as ethical considerations. The notion of reflexivity is concerned with the mechanisms involved in social interaction, including the analysis of assumptions, conventions, and practices of participants. According to
this view, the researcher has made assumptions based on personal reflexive, which might indicate a positive engagement with the NSTs’ perspective.

Based upon these experiences, as well as commentary by several other English language learners taking ESL, this study was undertaken; ‘to better understand the native speaking English teacher experience when teaching English to ESLs’.

**Research Questions**

Three research questions guided the activities and analysis of this study:

1. What are the experiences of native speaker teachers (NSTs) when teaching English to second language students (ESLs) in Thailand?

2. What are the motivations for native speaking teachers (NSTs) to teach English to second language students (ESLs) in Thailand?

3. How does the Thai culture of second language students (ESLs) impact the pedagogy employed by native speaking teachers (NST) as perceived by NSTs themselves?

**Theoretical Framework**

The theoretical framework used to build the study was developed from the Social Constructivism Theory and the Social Cognitive Theory. This research applied to the social constructivism theory because it emphasized the importance of culture and context in the understanding of what occurs in society and constructed knowledge based on this understanding (Darry, 1999; McMahon, 1997). In addition, this perspective is closely associated with the native speaker teachers who develop their reality, knowledge, and learning to understand and apply the culture rooted in the perspective of the social constructivism of their students (ESLs). The social cognitive theory emphasized the social behaviors which the participants (NSTs in this research) learnt through the different culture, their career choice, motivation, achievement, and
environmental factors (Schunk and Zimmerman, 1998). These two theories were used as the framework to answer the research questions in this study.

**Social constructivism theory.** Lincoln and Guba (2000) suggested that individual and cultural expectations and perspectives develop through interactions involving individual interactions with cultural norms in which the individual lives. In this constructivist research, the researcher recognized her own personal, cultural and historical experiences, which offered an interpretation shaped by such experience and backgrounds (Creswell, 2013). In this way, social constructivism framed the study, to seek a better understanding of the NSTs experiences, based within the culture that they live and work. The theory developed the subjective meaning of NSTs experiences, with regard to how they experienced teaching English to ESLs as NSTs in Thailand (Creswell, 2013).

Social constructivism is a theory based upon the idea of learning development through an understanding of the meaning to be found within the context of social interactions or interactions with the learner’s environment. The learner takes existing knowledge and then builds upon this foundation by adding the knowledge and experience they gain through social contacts (Resnick, 1989). For NSTs working in Thailand, the theory of social constructivism can account for the manner in which they adapt to their new surroundings and develop their opinions and teaching ideas in accordance with the environment they witness as they work. In pedagogical circles, constructivism is generally seen and presented as a theory of learning, yet in this particular case it might better be described as a theory or model of knowledge, since NSTs arrive with their own cultural perspective and subsequently acquire the new ideas and knowledge from their Thai cultural interactions.
A number of factors have been included in the development of the theory of knowledge for this particular field, such as ideologies, status and its maintenance, values, politics, power and its exercise, the need to pursue economic interests, and religious or cultural beliefs (Phillips, 2000). The main focus lies upon the manner in which a person’s social environment can influence the understanding that person develops about the world. In this context regarding NSTs in Thailand, the theory may inform the extent to which those NSTs are able to learn from Thai culture and adapt this within their own pedagogical approaches in the classroom. This will vary among different teachers since the theory holds that each learner will construct meaning in different ways according to the level and type of knowledge they bring to the learning process at the outset. The meaning to be created is typically developed in social contexts where group members are allowed to share ideas and perceptions in building a shared meaning. When group members agree upon any particular aspect of their environment, the meaning they attribute may then be cemented among them as formal knowledge. This would imply that it is possible for NSTs and ESLs to reach agreement in the teaching and learning environment, within and beyond the classroom, that would result in the creation of meaning and knowledge.

The concept of building a pedagogical process around the constructivist social focus requires the acceptance of the nature of social knowledge creation within groups of experts, and thus allows that this might indeed occur within the social groups that operate within a classroom environment. The approach relies for its efficacy on the idea that the negotiated sum of the knowledge contributions from each group member will represent a superior outcome in the shared understandings that are generated via rational dialogue. This concept can therefore be applied by the researcher in developing interview questions and protocols: the knowledge of the study participants has been accrued over a long period of time, and these participants are willing
to share this knowledge in a constructive process with the researcher in order to meet a common objective.

This framework led the researcher to look for complexities in the views, and relied upon participant views of the situation (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008), with particular focus on how cultural norms and expectations impacted upon the individual views of each study participant. In interpretivism, the individual seeks to understand the world in which they live and work. NSTs develop subjective meanings of their experiences - meanings and understandings of their lives and works, which in this study also pertain to their experiences in certain situations when teaching English to ESLs in Thailand. Such meanings are varied and multiple, and led the researcher to look for complex viewpoints. The goal of this research was to rely as much as possible upon the participant views of situations. These are not simply imprinted on individuals, but formed through interactions with others, and through historical and cultural norms which operate in individual lives. Thus, the research generated or inductively developed a theory or pattern of meaning (Lincoln & Guba, 2000). Interpretivism is a direct counter-response to such a positivist perspective of the world. An interpretivist perspective assumes that the world is not simply ‘out there’ to be discovered, but is an ongoing story told and refashioned by the particular individuals (NSTs) and cultures involved (Butin, 2010). This research objective was to simply go and figure out the ‘truth.’

This interpretivist researcher was, for better or worse, already a part of the story engaged in discovering the truth of experiences of such native speaking teachers, teaching English to ESL in Thailand, because of involvement in the examination and description. Moreover, in this research there was no single or authoritative privilege regarding the truth of participants’ particular viewpoints, because the truth came from the different perspectives of NSTs exploring
their experiences (Butin, 2010). Thus, an interpretivist perspective did not attempt to adjudicate between competing truth claims to determine the one best answer, but rather, interpretivism suggested that all one can do is accurately and thoroughly review transcripts from the respective viewpoints being investigated (Butin, 2010). In interpretivism, this researcher positioned herself within the research to acknowledge how the interpretation flowed from her own personal, cultural and historical experiences. Thus, the researcher made an interpretation of the results; an interpretation shaped by her own experiences and these results were also found by Creswell (2013).

**Social cognitive theory.** Social cognitive theory of Bandura (1986) posited that learning occurs in a social context, with a dynamic and reciprocal interaction of the person, environment and behavior. Social cognitive theory has been used in mainstream educational research for the last 20 years, especially within the scope of teacher cognition in language teaching (Borg, 2003). It is suitable to apply such to this study, since the research questions attempted to discover what the teachers were thinking. The unique feature of this theory was its emphasis upon social influences, and both external and internal social reinforcement. The theory considered the unique ways in which individuals acquired and maintained behavior, whilst also considering the social environment in which the individuals performed such behavior. The theory also took into account a person’s past experiences, and factored these into whether behavioral action occurred (Bandura, 1986).

The researcher observed in this study that NSTs spend their time living within social environments, which have differing cultural practices, traditions, values, institutional or organizational limitations, and opportunities for advancement or development. Different types of cultural groups, if categorized as individualist or collectivist, may show dramatic differences, yet
even within cultural groupings of the same type, a high degree of diversity may still exist. Categorizing NSTs requires certain assumptions to be made, which might not be entirely reliable; however, it can be argued that western NSTs from the United States, the United Kingdom or Australia might share similar social values and customs (Kim et al., 1994). Since cultures are not necessarily rigid or unchanging, it is likely that once in Thailand, these NSTs will be exposed to greater cultural diversity which will influence them significantly and in different ways, given that even within similar social groups individuals can exhibit considerable differences. Within collectivist cultures there will exist differences between the generations or at the different economic levels of society, as the younger or wealthier members of the group show a tendency towards individualism. This may be reflected in the interactions between ESLs and NSTs in Thailand (Matsumoto, Kudoh and Takeuchi, 1996). It can be argued that NSTs are able to reduce the extent to which communality is prevalent in collectivist societies as the global presence of English gives them wider influence. However, one contrary view is that as the drawbacks of individualism become apparent, a collectivist response results in greater attempts to preserve communal values and social traditions.

The theory also implies that larger differences would be observed in terms of communality where western and Asian cultures are compared. In this study, the participants were NSTs and ESLs, so varieties in the style of communal activity observed would be expected on account of the different cultures involved. It is therefore helpful within this study to take the ideas from this theoretical perspective in analyzing the extent to which participants act both communally and individually in different aspects of their lives. Furthermore, this study also takes into consideration the notion that the cultural preferences of respondents might be revealed or concealed in differing circumstances in response to the incentives or restrictions in place that
might influence open cultural expression (Yamagishi, 1988). In theory, it can be argued that the
individualistic or collectivistic tendencies of people will depend upon the nature of the reference
group, with different responses triggered in the presence of family or peers when compared to
more formal or inter-cultural settings. It is inadvisable to assess cultural factors in the absence of
any meaningful consideration of the social context, the activity under study or the incentives
influencing the participants, since people adapt to these circumstances and their behaviour is
influenced strongly by these factors (Freeman and Bordia, 2001).

In this study, the participants are principally involved in their daily working environment,
which involves teaching English to ESLs. This activity cannot be considered merely as a means
of earning a living, since the structure of people’s working lives provides their identity and self-
perception. People’s working circumstances therefore have a strong influence upon their social
standing, while Bandura (1997) notes that people’s beliefs about their own efficacy are highly
influential in terms of their professional or vocational development. It has been observed that
when people perceive their abilities to be generally high, they consider a wider range of career
possibilities and have a greater motivation and perseverance in pursuing the academic credentials
or necessary training required. Occupations which people consider beyond their capabilities are
dismissed, no matter how appealing. These views should be taken into account in applying the
social cognitive theory when discussing the career options and motivations of NSTs who wish to
remain and work in Thailand.

According to an overview of social cognitive theory, this study was able to capture: 1) past experiences which influenced reinforcements, expectations and expectancies, of all shapes
and sizes, 2) whether the participants (NSTs) had engaged in specific recognitions, represented
by their experiences, and 3) why the participants thought in the way that they did. The social
cognitive theory of Bandura (2001) was primarily applied to this research because it was the most recent study. The social and cognitive belief is that human behavior and cognition are shaped and controlled automatically and mechanically by environmental stimuli. In this model, environmental input activated a multifaceted dynamic throughput which produced the output (Bandura, 2001). These dynamic models included multilevel neural networks with intentional functions lodged in a sub-personal executive network, operating without any consciousness via lower subsystems (Bandura, 2001). Consciousness in humans is very important for mental stimulation, which serves to make life personally manageable and worth living (Bandura, 1986).

The concept of this study was to explore the experiences of native speaking teachers and develop a social and cognitive theory to capture their functional consciousness. This involved the purposive accessing and deliberative processing of information for selection, construction, regulation and evaluation. Carlson (1997) indicated that the central role in a person, in which consciousness plays a part, is the cognitive regulation of actions, hence the role of NSTs could also be transformed through their actions and the flow of mental events.

![Bandura’s Triadic Reciprocal Determinism: Social Cognitive Theory](image)

Figure 1  Bandura’s Triadic Reciprocal Determinism: Social Cognitive Theory

Figure 1 shows the foundation of Bandura’s (1986) concept of reciprocal determinism, which is a view of: a) personal factors, in the form of cognition, affect and biological events, b)
behavior and cognition, and c) environmental influences created by interactions, which result in a triadic relationship (Bandura, 1986). Furthermore, it explains that people do not act upon beliefs, goals, aspirations and expectations, but rather they act according to their network structure at a sub-personal level, which makes them do things (Green, 1996). Resnick (1991) also stated, in a similar perspective, that educators recognize the roles of others, and encourage individuals to construct relevant knowledge. Cognitive factors are able to predict human mentality and guide with effective intervention (Greenwood, 1992). Greenwood also suggested that in order to make their way successfully through a complex world, full of challenges and hazards, teachers or educators have to: make good judgments about their capabilities, anticipate the probable effects of different events and courses of action, size up social structural opportunities and constraints, and regulate their own behavior accordingly. These belief systems are a working model of a world which enables people to achieve desired outcomes, and accomplish goals which give meaning, direction and satisfaction to their lives (Bandura, 2001).

**Social cognitive theory in teaching.** Teacher thinking research focuses on teacher behavior and student performance (Furman, 1993). Furman started with the theme of ‘teacher thinking research’, and then transformed this idea to the ‘teacher perspective’. Gee (1990) integrated socio- and psychological theory into a teacher thinking research methodology. The syntagmatic view of teacher thinking in social cognitive theory is that ‘the voice is social, not individual’, which means that researchers of teacher thinking are most likely to deposit a social cognitive theory into their research (Freeman, 1993; Bakhtin, 1993). In a recent study, Denzin and Lincoln (2008) described social and cognitive theory as interpretivism, or social constructivism (Creswell, 2013). In social constructivism, individuals seek an understanding of the world in which they live and work. They developed subjective meanings of their experiences
meanings directed towards certain objects or things. Here, the researcher is seeking the NSTs experiences, – the meanings and understandings of their lives and works. These meanings are varied and multiple, leading the researcher to look for the complexities of views and rely upon the participants’ views of situations (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008).

Lincoln and Guba (2000) suggested that participant views are not simply imprinted on individuals, but formed through interactions with others, because of social constrictions and through historical and cultural norms which operate in individual lives. In constructivist research, the researcher recognizes that her own personal, cultural and historical experiences can develop an interpretation of what they find; an interpretation shaped by her own experience and background (Creswell, 2013). However, the intention was to make sense of the data and the meanings others have about such phenomena. In terms of practice the questions were broad and general, so that the participants could construct meaning to situations - meaning typically forged in discussions or interactions with others. The more open-ended the questioning the better, as the researcher listened carefully to what people said or did in their life-setting (Creswell, 2013).

Social cognitive theory was applied to this research in many ways. First, it was applied to the research instrument, as suggested by Creswell (2013), in that the open-ended questions better captured the participants’ experiences in everyday life. The research methodology followed an IPA qualitative research, which focused upon the essence of a social group of people, as suggested in the theory that teachers think according to their network structure and cultural environment (Bandura, 1986). This concept desired to capture the culture of NSTs impact upon the pedagogy used by them. The theory was further applied to the data analysis as a tool to understand the NSTs motivation of cognition, which is transparent in personal behavior (Bandura, 1986).
The intention was to make sense of data and the ideas that others had about the teaching of English to ESLs by NSTs in Thailand. In terms of practice, the questions were broad and general so that participants could construct meanings of situations. Open-ended questions allowed the researcher to interpret how the participants perceived and made sense of their experiences (Creswell, 2013). Interpretive Phenomenological Analysis (IPA) allowed the determination of the essence of the social group, as suggested in the theory that teachers act according to their contextual norms and individual perspectives and beliefs (Bandura, 1986).
Chapter II: Literature Review

The literature review covered seven areas pertinent to this study: (1) the importance of learning English in the world today; (2) the Thai education system and Thai learners; (3) native speaking teachers (NST’s) and non-Native speaking teachers (NNSTs); (4) the effective practices of teaching English to ESLs; (5) the challenges of teaching English by NNSTs vs. NSTs; (6) the experiences of NSTs when teaching English to ESLs in another culture; and (7) NST and NNST learner attitudes, beliefs, and expectations.

The Importance of Learning English in the World Today

English language plays many roles in the modern era of globalization (D’Souza, 2001, Hall and Cook, 2012; Horwitz, 2010). Regardless of how one views English as second language, globally many people are interested in acquiring English proficiency. Despite the apparent widespread perception that English is a global language, relatively little systematic information has been gathered about its impact upon educational policies and practices in educational systems around the world (Nunan, 2003; Dornyei, 1998; Ellis, 2010). Crystal (1997) indicated that English as a ‘Global Language’ achieves a genuinely global status when it develops a special role that is recognized in every country. The definition hinges on ‘special role’, which Crystal described as serving as the native language of the majority (such as English does in the United States or Australia), or serving as the official language or achieving the status of the priority foreign language (i.e. the foreign language of choice for children in schools). The English language currently plays the role of official language in businesses, technology, science, the Internet, popular entertainment and even sports (Nunan, 2003; Hall and Cook, 2012; Borg, 2003; Dornyei, 1998).
Beyond the criteria of native language, official language and priority foreign language, it is difficult to quantify the proportional use of English versus other languages in everyday life (Block & Cameron, 2002; Ellis, 2010; Tomlinson, 2012). Nevertheless, applied linguists have provided some data. In academic contexts, it is estimated that more than 50% of the millions of academic papers published each year are written in English, and the percentage is growing year by year (Nunan, 2003; Bolton, 2004; Goodson, 1994; Hayes, 2005). English is currently the undisputed language of science and technology and scientific journals, and many countries are now switching from the vernacular to English (Crystal, 1997). In specific disciplines, English appears to be the universal language of communications (Block & Cameron, 2002; Crystal, 1997; Nunan, 2003). For example, 98% of German physicists now claim English as their working language. They are closely followed by: chemists (83%), biologists (81%) and psychologists (81%) (Block & Cameron, 2002; Crystal, 1997; Graddol, 1997).

The phenomenon of global English is that educational policies cannot deny seeing the day-to-day results (Nunan, 2003; Tafa, 2004; Widdershoven, 1993). Historical evidence suggests that governments around the world are introducing English as a compulsory subject at younger and younger ages, often without adequate funding, teacher education for elementary school teachers, or the development of curriculum and materials for young learners. In business, and industry and government, workers are increasingly expected to develop proficiency in English (Block & Cameron, 2002; Crystal, 1997; Hall and Cook, 2012; Tudor, 2001). An initial challenge is to simply document the nature of the educational policy responses to the growing need for English, in countries where English is not a native language for the majority. Such countries need to understand the impacts of English, as a global language, upon educational
practices and mediums of instruction in educational systems around the world (Crystal, 1997; Tudor, 2001; Tsui, 2003; Goodson, 1994).

Thai Education System and Thai Learners

In Thailand, the consequences of learning English throughout the twelve years of basic education have enabled Thai students to learn English without any interruption between primary and secondary school (Wongsothorn, 2000; Khamhhien, 2010; Fry and Bi, 2013). Furthermore, university level admission requires 12 credits in learning English, six credits in general English and six credits for academic or specific purposes (Foley, 2005; Fry and Bi, 2013; Sunprasert, 2010; Watson, 2005). The purpose of teaching the English language throughout Thai student education is to increase their English language proficiency, in order to fulfil a number of purposes: communication, acquisition of knowledge, use of English in tertiary level studies and career advancement (Foley, 2005; Watson, 2008; Keyuravong, 2010; Masavisut, Sukwiwat, and Wongmontha, 1986).

According to Foley (2005), the Thai education system currently comprises: Pratomsuksa 1-3 (grades 1-3, and Preparatory level), Pratomsuksa 4-6 (grades 4-6, and Beginning level), Matayomsuksa 1-3 (grades 7-9, Expanding level), and Matayomsuksa 4-6 (grades 10-12, Progressive Level), where each level has English as a standard course, and is considered just as important as Mathematics or Science. Unfortunately, Thai learners have an unsatisfactory level of English competence, which shows in several tests, such as: the Ordinary National Education Test (ONET), General Aptitude Test (GAT), TOEFL and TOEIC (Bolton, 2008; Wiriyachitra, 2001; Rappa and Wee, 2006; Smalley, 1994), where Thai students obtain below average scores compared to other Southeast Asian students. Thai applicants who apply for jobs in international organizations in Thailand, require English language skills and they should have passed an
English test, such as TOEFL or TOEIC, with a certain minimum level score (Wirayachitra, 2001; Darasawang 2007; Khamhien, 2010). English teachers are encouraged to foster a learner-centred environment in the Thai education system with a hands-on approach, drawn from the need of the global community (Nonkukhetkhong, 2006; Watson, 2005).

English is rarely spoken amongst members of the Thai community, no matter their social status or where they are in the world (Phothongsunan, 2006; Masavisut and Wongmontha, 1986; Keyuravong, 2010); the Thai language is always used. Unfortunately, this is very unlike most other Asian cultures, for example Hong Kong, Singapore and Malaysia, where young people speak English almost daily along with their local language (Baker, 2009; Fry and Bi 2013; Canagarajah, 2006; K).

The majority of people in Thailand are Buddhist (95%), and it is this culture that English teachers need to understand (Foley, 2005; Bovonsiri, Uampuang, and Fry 1996; Komin, 1990). In Thai culture, more is expected from teachers than in Western societies. Not only is teaching learners important, but all teachers are expected to teach with loving kindness, be reliable and represent goodness and morality (Wiriyachitra, 2001; Komin, 1990; Haayes, 2005). According to the expectations of the Thai education system, and the complexity of the culture in Thailand, teaching English in Thailand definitely requires the expertise of both language competency and cultural understanding.

However, although the National Education Curriculum of Thailand (1997) has aimed at improving student linguistic and communicative competency, the majority have failed to achieve the standards required (Wongsothorn, 2000; Foley, 2005; Todd, 2005). Most Thai students cannot master English language communications, even after graduation (Foley, 2005; Fry, 2013; Darasawang, 2007). The teaching and learning of English in Thailand involves an understanding
of Thai culture (Foley, 2005; Komin, 1990; Bovonsiri, Uampuang, and Fry 1996). Thai students need more opportunities to apply their English practices to real-life situations, through active learning strategies which can be provided by NSTs (Khuvasonond et al., 2010; Alptekin, 2002; Butzkamm, 1997). They need NSTs to educate them in communication skills (Senawong, 2004; Foley, 2005; Wongsothorn, 2000; Butzkamm, 1997).

**Native Speaking Teachers (NSTs) and Non-Native Speaking Teachers (NNSTs)**

English has official status and/or is widely used in over 75 territories in the world and it is a matter of debate which of the world’s Englishness are native varieties (Crystal, 2003; Hall and Cook, 2012; Goodson, 1994). Singaporean English, for example, is both a home language and a second language and thus Singaporeans could be seen by some as NS and by others as NNS (Foley, 2005; Keyuravong, 2010). Within the past two decades the growing body of literature has examined issues pertaining to native and non-native English speaking teachers (Llurda, 2004; Keyuravong, 2010; Smalley, 1994; Todd, 2005). In response to this debate, some scholars have argued that ‘native speaker’ and ‘non-native speaker’ teachers are simplistic or even misleading labels that should be replaced by more precise definitions (Rampton, 1990; Fairclough, 1992; Gibbons, 1992). Attempts have been made to characterize native and non-native speakers, including investigating their attitudes, and examining their collaboration (Arva and Medgyes, 2000; Medgyes, 1994; Saminy and Brutt-Griffler, 1999). Despite the considerable debate and controversy over the terms native English speaker (NS) and non-native English speaker (NNS) teachers in the field, no satisfactory definition of the term exists (Faez, 2011; Forman, 2007; Turnbull, and Arnett, 2002).

In one study, Faez (2011) identified native and non-native speakers according to the following six categories:
(1) Bilingual: an individual who is equally proficient in two languages and does not have a dominant language,

(2) English as a first language speaker: an individual for whom English is the first and dominant language and for whom the knowledge of an additional language, if any, is gained after a full grasp in English has been gained,

(3) Second-generation English speaker: an individual who is born and raised in an English-speaking country to non-English-speaking parents and who has learned a mother tongue prior to/in addition to learning English,

(4) English-dominant: an individual who has acquired a first language in a non-English speaking country but after a long length of residence in an English-medium country, English is their dominant language and the one they are most comfortable with,

(5) K1-dominant: an individual for whom English is not the dominant language and/or the language they are most comfortable in, and

(6) English-variety speaker: an individual who speaks a variety of English used in countries previously colonized by Great Britain such as India, Kenya, Malaysia, Nigeria, and Singapore (Faez, 2011).

Rampton (1990) argued that the term native speaker should be avoided and proposed the use of more inclusive terminology, such as expert speaker or language expert. Being a native speaker is an ‘unalterable historic fact’ and languages learnt later can never be native language (Cook, 1999; Tafa, 2004; Tsui, 2003). The term multicompetency is used to refer to the individual’s knowledge of more than one language (Cook, 1999; Widdershoven, 1993; Tudor, 2001). Davies (2003) argued that the native and non-native identity is a sociolinguistic construct and listed three criteria for a native identity: proficiency, self-affiliation, and approval by others.
Another salient argument centres on the legitimacy of indigenized varieties of English and world English’s that exist around the world (Higgins, 2003; Borg, 2003; Tomlinson, 2012). There is often considered to be native English as a variety used in inner-circle White English speaking countries such as Great Britain, the United States, Canada, and Australia (Kachru and Nelson, 1996). This perspective promotes the dominance of Standard English. The varieties used in countries previously colonized by Great Britain such as India, Kenya, Malaysia, Nigeria and Singapore, labelled as outer-circle countries are not considered native (Higgins, 2003; Alptekin, 2002; Tafa, 2004; Dewey, 2007). Drawing concept of ownership (Higgins, 2003; Dewey, 2007; Kirkpatrick, 2006) demonstrated that outer-circle speakers do not project the same ownership of English because social factors such as class, race and access to education act as a gate keeping device.

Modiano (1999) strongly indicated that proficiency in speaking English is no longer determined by birth but by the capacity to use the language properly; the definition of NSTs. Holliday (2005) had a different perspective on the definition of a native-speaker, and he defined Native-Speaker teachers as representatives of the ‘Western Culture’ from which English and English teachings originate. Holliday’s definition is similar to Medgyes’ (1994) study, which defined native-speaker teachers as people who are able to understand correct English and can produce fluent, spontaneous discourse in English.

**Effective Practices of Teaching English to ESLs**

English language teaching practices are no easy task; they require training and much thinking about in everyday practice (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2002; Todd, 2008; Canagarajah, 2006). Most countries and commercial companies prefer to employ NSTs, especially language educational institutions where English language programs are offered, because they like to
promote themselves by employing NSTs as one of their marketing campaigns (Todd & Pojanapunyal, 2009; Lui, 1999). Most job descriptions for such teaching positions require only that the applicants must be native speakers from Western countries (Todd & Pojanapunyal, 2009; Lui, 1999; Rappa and Wee, 2006; Khamkhien, 2010). Many researchers, such as Arva and Medgyes (2000) and Todd and Pojanapunyal (2009), have indicated that the primary advantage attributes of NSTs is their superiority at English language competence, which can better help students get through communicative situations. Furthermore, Phillipson (1992) showed that the tenets of NSTs are their superior English language competencies, which have been widely accepted, as well as having a wide-ranging impact upon language education policies. There is some evidence to support that many educational institutions show a clear preference for NSTs over NNSTs because of social perceptions (Todd & Pojanapunyal, 2009; Khamkhien, 2010; Fry and Bi, 2013; Sanprasert, 2010).

Several scholars have indicated that the best advantage of NNSTs is in teaching strategies and understanding ESLs culture (Todd & Pojanapunyal, 2009; Cook, 1999; Llurda, 2004). In order to teach English proficiently, NNSTs must have the dedication and willingness to develop the educational model, which is more important than NSTs being determined as effective teachers (Braine, 2005; Leuiravpmg. 2010; Rappa and Wee, 2006). NNSTs are also able to incorporate instructional materials and activities rooted in local culture, as well as international contexts that are familiar and relevant to language learners (Alptekin, 2002; Smally, 1994; Kirkpatrick, 2006). NNSTs are able to teach learners to express themselves in a multilingual world that uses English as a means of expression, and as an instrument for interacting amongst people from disparate cultures (Llurda, 2004; Hayes, 2005; Braine, 1999). ESLs may have to use English in order to explain their culture to foreigners, and they therefore need to be trained to do
so by NNSTs (McKay, 2000; Bolton, 2004; Goodson, 1994; Widdershoven, 1993). Several studies have shown that NNSTs have several advantages over native speakers, especially over those who are monolingual speakers of English. They are able to adequately perform their tasks at various levels of language proficiency (Llurda, 2004; Fry and Bi, 2013; Akbari, 2008). Generally, they are accredited with more conscious knowledge of grammar and language learning experience which they can share with learners, thereby serving as good models in having the ability to empathize with language learners (Shin, 2008; Hall and Cook, 2012; Simon, 2003; Tomlinson, 2012). They are proud of their grammar skills, because they can teach ESLs based upon their learning experience (Arva & Medgyes, 2000; Hayes, 2005). Many NNSTs have learnt grammar thoroughly, and are able to convey this to ESLs very clearly and with no wastage (Arva & Medgyes, 2000; Heyes, 2005; Braine, 1999). Additionally, they can be positive role models for learners, often having richer resources for explaining grammatical points (Carless & Walker, 2006; Rappa and Wee, 2005; Todd, 2008).

Carless and Walker (2006) showed that NNSTs introduced lessons aimed at: local languages for weaker ESLs, checking that ESLs understood new words, delivering complex instructions in their mother tongue regarding the criteria for choosing suitable learners for role plays, and working with weaker or less confident students with their mother tongue exploitation; something that most NSTs are unable to deliver. The mother tongue plays a role in reducing anxiety and creating a comfortable classroom atmosphere for learners (Carless & Walker, 2006; Hall and Cook, 2012; Darder, 1991; Akbari, 2008). NNSTs possess distinct advantages over NSTs, including a deeper understanding of the learners’ first language, and the ability to explain the second language features in ways which learners can understand (Shin, 2008; Akbari, 2008 Horwitz, 2010; Dornyei, 1998). Textbooks and dictionaries provide very difficult definitions and
explanations, which lead to students guessing meanings and misunderstanding without teacher instruction (Khuvasanond et al., 2010; Dornyei, 1998; Ellis, 2010; Hall and Cook, 2012). NNSTs also have a language advantage in that they are able to explain the material to learners in their local language. Shin (2008) supported that for improving academic English, teachers need to base teaching material upon such items as: requiring learners to write comparisons/contrasts, problem/solution essays, requiring learners to read textbooks, take notes, and give oral presentations using technical vocabulary. All these tasks are necessary requirements in any academic language proficiency.

In language evaluation, Kim (2009) found that NSTs and NNSTs were equally strong in assessing students’ oral English performance. Both groups behaved similarly in terms of severity and rarely differed in assessment. However, the NSTs were able to provide more detail and elaborate on comments about words, phrases and pronunciation. The NSTs also tended to be more sensitive and strict, in terms of phonological accuracy. Overall, NSTs gave more detail and feedback about specific aspects, such as grammar used, than NNSTs. It can therefore be interpreted that NNSTs lack evaluative comments (Kim, 2009; Taylor, 2006; Hayes, 2005; Bolton, 2004). To teach ESLs to speak English well, Carless and Walker (2006) indicated that NSTs should teach English by acting as an English language resource person, to help foster an enabling environment for learners to practice their oral English skills. NSTs have an innovative, flexible and casual teaching style (Arva & Medgyes, 2000; Lui, 1999; Braine, 1999). Most English curriculums follow a native speaker dominated framework, in which British, Canadian or American norms must be followed, thus NSTs are considered the ideal teachers (Llurda, 2004; Tafa 2004; Alptekin, 2002). NSTs could easily create attractive materials and better teaching techniques for learners, which agreed with Carless and Walker (2006), who found
that NSTs prefer to use presentations, make more accessible visuals and offer richer content and vocabulary than the textbook, therefore bringing the topic alive to learners, and building their motivation. In the classroom, one NSTs technique is to allow learners to exchanges opinions and conversations in two-way communication. Moreover, they permit learners to crack jokes, and also tease them as well (Arva & Medgyes, 2000; Todd & Pojanapunyal, 2009). They can therefore perform better in terms of: using active vocabulary and appropriate idioms, providing insider cultural knowledge, engaging in authentic English use and bringing different perspectives to materials for learners (Barratt & Kontra, 2000; Llurda, 2004; Bovonsiri, Uampuang, and Fry 1996). They do not have to force learners; instead they become friends with them and make the students feel like they are having fun in the class, having a good time with the NSTs (Arva & Medgyes, 2000; Llurda, 2004).

The greatest strength of NSTs is in the area of teaching pronunciation (Llurda, 2004; Butzkamm, 1997; Cortazzi and Jin, 1996). This is the reason most ESLs give as their strong preference in support of NST teaching (Todd & Pojanapunyal, 2009; Forman, 2007; Gower, Phillips, and Walters, 1995). To be successful at teaching English to ESLs, teachers need to master an understanding of both ESLs culture and the local educational system (Todd & Pojanapunyal, 2009; Komin, 1990; Turnbull and Arnett, 2002; Darder, 1991). Teachers are also responsible for presenting a multifaceted reality, in which they must ensure that the new language is actually used and that they help learners to express their own identity through this newly acquired knowledge (Llurda, 2004; Tsui, 2003; Tudor, 2001). Hence, many NSTs believe that foreign languages should be taught by native speakers of the language (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2002; Horwitz, 2010; Ellis, 2010). Lee (2004) found that English language teachers must demonstrate a high level of written and oral proficiency in English, and have an excellent
command of the target language, which is one of the most important characteristics for being an outstanding foreign language teacher (Lee, 2004; Ellis, 2010; Borg, 2003). This allows NSTs to perform better, in terms of: using active vocabulary and appropriate idioms, providing insider cultural knowledge, engaging in authentic English use and bringing together different perspective of materials to learners (Barratt & Kontra, 2000; Darasawang, 2007).

**The Challenges of Teaching English by NNSTs vs. NSTs**

Mousavi (2007) found four interesting challenges for NNSTs when teaching English, namely: 1) lack of confidence: sometimes NNSTs think their English speaking is not good enough to talk to foreign teachers who teach in the same classroom, this may reduce NNSTs confidence to talk to learners. 2) Material, time and learners correcting the teachers: if the material is not familiar to NNSTs, such as a new text, something difficult to explain, not enough time to prepare, or if learners do not understand what the NNSTs is talking about, or even correct teacher mistakes, then all of these things can make NNSTs feel uncomfortable. Moreover, learners’ understanding and questioning of teachers can also make NNSTs feel insecure or stressed about their own language ability. 3) Studying for the purposes of exams: NNSTs have more responsibility than some NSTs because they are not only teaching ESLs to speak English, but they also have to take care of grading and exams, which is another challenge for them. 4) Work-load: NNSTs are responsible for doing administrative work and extra activities in schools, which gives them less time to focus on teaching English in the classroom.

Commonly that NNSTs do not have the opportunity to develop high levels of written and oral proficiency, and this can also be an obstacle in the way they teach English (Shin, 2008; Mousavi, 2007; Hayes, 2005; Keyuravong, 2010). Being an NNST can sometime raise questions about deficiencies in teaching English and language proficiency, from both parents and students
(Mousavi, 2007; Lee, 2004; Braine, 1999; Borg, 2003; Tomlinson, 2012). The public can also question NNSTs, when their low proficiency in English is largely blamed for the poor English performance of students (Lee, 2004). Arva and Medgyes (2000), found that NNSTs admitted to having problems with basically every aspect of competence, especially with pronunciation, vocabulary and colloquial expressions. Sometimes NNSTs mix the two languages indiscriminately while teaching ESLs English Language (Borg, 2003; Tomlinson, 2012). However, in order to speak English, the ESLs must know when it sounds right and when it sounds wrong, and NNSTs are not able to provide that (Turnbull and Arnett, 2002; Bolton, 2004; Hayes, 2005). Moreover, NNSTs might pass their mistakes or pronunciation on to students (Hayes, 2005; Komin, 1990; Lin, 1999).

Generally, NNSTs are found to be stricter teachers, because they feel responsibility as well as the awareness of being more restrained by school regulations and administrative tasks, such as giving marks (Arva & Medgyes, 2000; Leung, 2005; Smalley, 1994). Hence, this might also affect learners’ attitudes, preferring to study with NSTs, because they can have more fun with those teachers (Tafa, 2004; Turnbull and Arnett, 2002). Mousavi (2007) stated that teachers are expected to empathize with learners to try to motivate them and encourage them to participate in classroom activities and, generally speaking, help facilitate learning (Mousavi, 2007; Mollin, 2007; Hall and Cook, 2012; Akbari, 2008). The distance that exists between students and teachers is another challenge for NNSTs to motivate and encourage learners. Lack of confidence in English competency is definitely one of the most difficult challenges that NNSTs have to face. Kim (2004) pointed out that sometimes, even when NNSTs have enough language knowledge they still might lack self-confidence, which can ‘inhibit a teacher’s ability to effectively present the target language, interact with learners and serve as a positive role
model for language learners’ (Kim, 2004; Darder, 1991; Butzkamm, 2000). Ultimately, NNSTs command of English affects their self-image as professionals, which in turn influences the way they teach (Medgyes, 1999; Kamin, 1990; Lin, 1999). NNSTs may often be viewed as inadequate English language teachers, because they lack native speaker competence in the target language and its culture (Shin, 2008; Ellis, 2010). NNSTs are likely to lack a fluent command of English and this is a source of constant stress, since they do less well in every aspect of language performance when compared to NSTs with otherwise comparable backgrounds (Todd, 2005 Khamkhien, 2010; Bovonsiri, Uampuang, and Fry, 1996)

Mousavi (2007) also indicated challenges for NSTs when teaching, which included: 1) Disciplinary issues and time management: sometime students are late, or do not work hard in order to learn English. 2) Lack of familiarity with the lesson or materials: sometimes the lesson and curriculum are not prepared by NSTs, and therefore the ideas involved do not suit their teaching styles, or the NSTs feel as if such materials are not motivating ESLs and are boring. 3) ESLs are not familiar with NSTs teaching styles, which can create problems with student motivation when learning English.

NSTs may not understand that Asian students have tremendous respect for their teachers, and there are no differences in the feelings of ESLs. Therefore it could be considered that NSTs create a language barrier when teaching ESLs (Grubbs et al., 2010; Butzkarmm, 1997; Cortazzi, 1996). Storey et al. (2001) found this unlikely to be significant without a culture shift involving an orientation towards more open collaboration between teachers, and less emphasis placed upon the culture of textbooks and exam preparation. Teachers are no longer looked at as the mere transferors of knowledge, but as individuals who need to communicate and engage with students more than before and care for their inner language, which is maybe very difficult for NSTs
Language barriers are one of the challenges that many NSTs have to face, for example most NSTs do not understand the local language, and if ESLs have a problem with learning then the ESLs cannot explain to their teacher and the teacher will not be able to understand until somebody explains to them. In being NSTs it is largely difficult to appreciate what the ESLs are going through when they are learning English (Arva & Medgyes, 2000; Gobbpms. 2002; Keyuravong, 2010).

Many NSTs admitted that one of the problems about teaching grammar was that even though they knew which sentences were right and which sentences were wrong, they did not know how to explain this to the learners, because most NSTs had never come across such grammar until they actually started teaching (Tafa, 2004; Komin, 1990). Shin (2008) suggested that to teach content-based language, teachers need to know that, within a single classroom, English learners come from many different socioeconomic, educational and linguistic backgrounds. Some learners read and write above grade level, whilst others have virtually no understanding. Some are learning English with great motivation, whilst others have had negative experiences when learning English previously (Shin, 2008). In this case, NNSTs are able to teach learners better than NSTs (Shin, 2008; Arva & Medgyes, 2000; Leung, 2005; Lin, 1999).

Experiences of NSTs when Teaching English to ESLs in a Different Culture

Most NSTs meet natural cultural barriers when teaching ESLs, as they do not understand the teacher/student relationship of the local culture. Storey et al. (2001) found that NSTs are unlikely to have a significant impact upon ESLs without a culture shift, involving an orientation towards more open collaboration between teachers and students, and less emphasis placed upon the culture of the textbook or exam preparation. Teachers are no longer looked at as the mere transferors of knowledge, but as individuals who need to communicate and engage with learners,
as well as care for their inner language, which is difficult for most NSTs (Bovonsiri, Uampuang, and Fry, 1996; Dewey, 2007; Mollin, 2007). The language barrier is one of the largest challenges NSTs are faced with, because most NSTs do not understand the local language, and if learners have a problem with learning then they cannot explain this properly to the NST. In being an NST, it is difficult to appreciate what the learners are going through when they are learning English (Mollin, 2007; Darasawang, 2007; Hayes, 2005). In addition, if learners are being difficult, funny or show lack of respect in the classroom, the NST will not be able to understand this, unless they are experienced and have been teaching for some time in the country and learnt the language (Goodson, 1994; Bolton, 2004; Tudor, 2001)

Grubbs et al. (2010) indicated that in order to teach ESLs, English teachers must be able to understand the student culture. For example, in Asian culture ESL students remain distant from their teachers due to the respect they hold for them. This could limit any chances to further explore their English competencies (Kerdchoochuen, 2011; Gortazzi, 1999; Widdershoven, 1993). Mak (2001) found that Chinese students require longer waiting time to speak up and respond than their European counterparts, primarily because ‘group unity’ and ‘face’ are important elements of their culture. Carless and Walker (2006) stated that in order to advance NSTs professional competency, they must develop a deeper understanding of the learners’ culture and the difficulties they face when studying English. Teachers must also become increasingly familiar with the nature of the local educational contexts, as well as their particular educational institutions’ culture (Carless & Walker, 2006; Kerdchoochuen, 2011; Grubbs et al., 2010). Cultural awareness is an important issue with regards to classroom performance in ESL language teaching (Grubbs, 2010; Chintana et al., 2002), and teachers should become culturally aware quickly, in order to teach English to students. Some NSTs indicated that being aware of
their student’s culture may not necessarily mean adaptation to it (Chintana et al., 2002; Tsui, 2003; Howe, 2005), and many NSTs would rather try to make their students learn and understand Western culture (Chintana et al., 2002; Goodson, 1994; Gower, Phillips, and Walters, 1995).

In a study of teachers’ professional backgrounds, Hadden (1991) investigated how native English speaking teachers perceived the competency of Chinese students in spoken English. He found that NSTs tended to be more flexible than NNSTs as far as linguistic ability was concerned, but that there were no significant differences in such areas as: comprehension, social acceptance, personality and body language. A similar study by Conran (2011), involved interviewing volunteer English teachers in Thailand. He found that the volunteer English teachers were impressed with ESLs English competencies. They enjoyed being teachers to children in rural areas, had a better understanding of Thai culture, and had begun to feel ‘at home’ in Thailand. Two additional studies (Hadden, 1991; Conran, 2011; Forman, 2007) indicated similar results, in that English teachers must have a positive attitude towards ESLs in order to communicate and teach effectively. McAllister, Irvine and Chair (2000) looked at the role of empathy in teaching culturally diverse students, which involved participants from a multi-cultural professional development seminar called ‘CULTURES’ (Centre for urban Learning/Teaching and Urban Research in Education and Schools). All of the participants had cross-cultural experience gained either through traveling or living in diverse communities, and had 5 to 10 or more years experience in cross-cultural diversities. All participants expressed beliefs regarding the role of empathy being effective with their students. All 34 of the teachers in this study believed that empathy was an important factor in working effectively with diverse students.
They believed that empathy was an implicit part of being a caring, supportive and responsive teacher for their culturally diverse students. The results from this study highlight some of the implications of empathy involved in teacher practice, and the value of creating contexts in which teachers must use and nurture empathetic dispositions and behavior. McAllister, Irvine and Chair (2000) and Schonleber (2007) both had the same idea about cultural congruence. Additionally, 40 teachers in Hawaii believed in the use of culturally congruent teaching methods as a way to change society, and take ownership of their culture and their language.

The study also suggested that teachers should increase the self-efficacy of students in order to create a positive attitude in learning environments (Schonleber, 2007; Hadden, 1991; Conran, 2011; Gibbons, 1999). It is not only teaching attitudes that NSTs must compromise in the ESLs cultural setting, but also the classroom sizes of local institutions. Christ and Makarani (2009) studied teacher attitudes about teaching English in India. There were 37 English teachers in both NST and NNST positions in 32 schools located in Gujarat, India, where they were using communicative language teaching (CLT) tools to teach English. The study found that the participants agreed that the availability of time, class room size and limited resources were all major impediments for improving the students’ command of the English language. Overall, the participants held positive attitudes towards CLT strategies, and wanted to use them in their classrooms. However, in a developing country such as India, where a classroom can have more than 45 students, it was difficult for English teachers to focus upon improvement in overall English competence. The NSTs had only one hour per week to teach students and improve their speaking and listening skills, which was an almost impossible task (Christ & Makarani, 2009; Forman, 2005; Turnbull and Arnett, 2002).
Learner Attitudes, Beliefs and Expectations from NSTs and NNSTs

Srikrai (2008) showed that ESLs who had the opportunity to learn from native NSTs gained more motivation and confidence in using English, especially with regards to listening and speaking skills (Srikrai, 2008; Todd, 2005; Darasawang, 2007). Research by Phothongsunan (2006) found that Thai learners believed talking to NSTs was useful to improve their English ability. ESLs had a positive attitude when they had the chance to study with NSTs (Cheung & Braine, 2007; Khamkhien, 2010; Rappa and Wee, 2006), because not only could they learn the language but NSTs taught them about the English speaking world cultures (Bae, 2006).

Similarly, Mullock (2003) indicated that learners believed NSTs were the criteria for effective teachers, but they believed NNSTs performed better when teaching grammar (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2002; Bae, 2006). Kerdchoochuen (2011) found that Thai learners enjoyed an inter-cultural classroom because the classes of NSTs were well organized, and the teacher showed a clear outline of the course. Thai learners were also afforded more flexibility and creativity from NSTs in the classroom than from the traditional Thai teachers (Kerdchoochuen, 2011; Borg, 2003; Hall and Cook, 2012). Additionally, ESLs found that NSTs were very direct when indicating what they must improve upon in their studies (Kerdchoochuen, 2011). Also ESLs expected more from NSTs in cultural adaptation and proficiency in the primary language taught at the school (English Language) (Kerdchoochuen, 2011; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2002; Hayes, 2005). Learning English was not the only reason that the learners preferred NSTs. They also expected NSTs to be ambassadors of ‘English Culture’ in the classroom. They wanted to learn the language as well as be introduced to the social conventions, ideologies and cultural expectations of the English-speaking community (Llurda, 2004; Bovonsiri and Uampuang, 1996; Turnbull and Arnett, 2002). Student attitudes towards their
language classes in Hong Kong contributed to their overall levels of second/foreign language anxiety (Llurda, 2004; Mak, 2011; Hall and Cook, 2012). If they had a positive attitude about their learning environment, practices and their teachers, they would perform very effectively.

Summary

This literature review has shown that English language learning enhances professional learning, communications and employment (Llurda, 2004; Brutt-Griffler, 2002; Fry and Bi, 2013; Keyuravong, 2010; Rappa and Wee, 2006). Most language institutions in Thailand show a clear preference to hiring native speaking English teachers to improve the language competencies of ESLs (Todd & Pojanapunyal, 2009; Senawong, 2004; Darasawang, 2007; Fry and Bi, 2013). Research has also indicated that ESL teachers feel that they should be able to understand ESLs culture, in order to apply the appropriate materials to teaching English (Grubbs et al, 2010; Carless & Walker, 2006; Akbari, 2008). However, little research has focused specifically upon native speaking teacher perspectives, and no work has been conducted to date regarding NSTs thoughts about teaching the English language to ESLs in Thailand. This paper therefore studied the NSTs teaching experiences, motivations and cultural adaptations in Thailand.
Chapter III: Research Design

Overview

This study employed a qualitative interpretive phenomenological analysis (IPA) to explore the primary research question: What are the experiences of native speaking teachers (NSTs) when teaching English to second language students (ESLs) at language institutions in Thailand? (Creswell, 2013; Smith et al., 2010). IPA research is about words and stories, or the ‘how’ and ‘why’ questions (Butin, 2010; Creswell, 2013). IPA research methods, by their very nature of attention to nuance and detail, allow for data gathering which can be extremely in-depth, and take into consideration opinions and perspectives that may not initially be visible or obvious (Butin, 2010; Smith et al., 2010). A descriptive study is by its nature phenomenological. That is, it is interested in the ‘what’ question that allows full and complete description. IPA research begins with assumptions and the use of interpretive/theoretical frameworks which inform the study about research problems pertaining to the meanings individuals or groups ascribe to the research questions (Smith et al., 2010). To study these research questions, an emerging IPA approach to inquiry was used. The collection of data was from a natural setting, sensitive to the participants and places under study; it used data analysis employing both inductive and established patterns or themes (Creswell, 2013; Saldana, 2013). The final written report or presentation included the voices of participants, the reflexivity of the researcher, a complex description and interpretation of the research questions, and its contribution to literature which calls for change (Saldana, 2013). The purpose of this study was to explore the experiences of NSTs when teaching English to ESLs in institutions in Thailand, using the following three research questions:
1. What are the experiences of native speaker teachers (NSTs) when teaching English to second language students (ESLs) in Thailand?

2. What are the motivations for native speaking teachers (NSTs) to teach English to second language students (ESLs) in Thailand?

3. How does the Thai culture of second language students (ESLs) impact upon the pedagogy used by native speaking teachers (NST), as perceived by NSTs themselves?

The detail was collected by interviewing and talking directly to native speaking teachers, allowing them to tell their stories unencumbered, and informing them of what the study expected to find or what the study indicated to existing literature. An IPA study empowered individuals to share their stories, allowed their voices to be heard and minimized the power relationship between the researcher and the participants. (Butin, 2010; Creswell, 2013; Smith et al., 2010).

The study expected to find the processes involved in NSTs experiences, motivations and cultural adaptations, when teaching the English language to ESLs, why they responded as they did, the context in which they responded, and the deeper thoughts and behavior that governed their responses (Butin, 2010; Creswell, 2013; Smith et al., 2010). This study did not aim to capture the statistical analyzes in the same way as quantitative research. Quantitative methods involve difficulty in capturing interactions amongst people. For example, it is difficult to capture interactions using existing measures, and such measures may not be sensitive to issues such as gender difference, race, economic status and individual differences (Creswell, 2013). To level all individuals to a statistical mean would have overlooked the uniqueness of the individuals in this study. Thus, the IPA approach was clearly better suited to this type of research problem.

The purpose of this chapter is to give an overview of the complete study, including the research design, research tradition and research procedures used.
**Methodology: Interpretive Phenomenological Analysis**

This study aimed to understand the experiences of NSTs when teaching ESL students. The IPA approach is highly appropriate because it can address the central research questions of this research through inductive analysis (Thomas, 2006; Patton, 2002; Saldana, 2013), which is normally practiced in qualitative research, allowing the researcher to draw conclusions from the data collection process, in order to understand the participant experiences (Moustakas, 1994). IPA focuses upon individuals, which makes a group-oriented ethnography study irrelevant. It focuses on the meanings of individual life experiences, rather than a specific event or activity, hence a case study cannot apply. This study aimed to describe and interpret NSTs perspectives, so grounded theory was also not applicable, and this study focused upon deriving meaning from narratives, not particular stories of participants, hence the narrative approach did not fit this purpose. IPA is descriptive and interpretive, the aim of which is to understand the structure and feature of individual experiences, which is in greater alignment with the research questions.

An IPA research studies things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of them, and/or interpret phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Smith et al. 2010). According to Smith et al. (2010) IPA researches have special characteristics, as follows: first, is the natural setting. The researcher often collects data in the field, at the site where participants (NSTs) experience the issues or problems (teaching English to ESLs in Thailand) under study. The researcher gathers up-close information by actually talking directly to people, and seeing them behave and act within the context of their function and, in the natural setting, the researcher has face-to-face interaction over time. The following characteristic is the ‘researcher as a key instrument’, whereby the researcher collects data by interviewing the participants.
The research instrument (open-ended questions) is previously designed by the researcher. Complex reasoning, through inductive logic, is the next characteristic. The IPA researcher reviews all of the data and makes sense of it, organizing it into categories or themes (Saldana, 2013) which cut across all of the data sources. The researcher builds patterns, categories and themes from the ‘bottom up’, by organizing the data inductively and thus into increasingly more abstract units of information (Creswell, 2013; Saldana, 2013). This inductive process involves the researcher working back and forth between the themes and the database, until a comprehensive set of themes is established (Creswell, 2013; Saldana, 2013). It also involves collaborating with the participants interactively, so that the researcher has a chance to shape the themes or abstractions which emerge from the process. The researcher also uses deductive thinking to build themes which are constantly being checked against the data (Creswell, 2013; Saldana, 2013).

The inductive-deductive logic process means that the IPA researcher uses complex reasoning skills throughout the process of research. In the entire research process, the researcher keeps a focus on learning the meanings that the participants hold about their problems. The participants’ further meaning is suggested by multiple perspectives and diverse views about certain topics. In this way, a theme is developed within the IPA report which should reflect the multiple perspectives of the participants in the study (Creswell, 2013; Saldana, 2013; Smith et al., 2010). Emergent design is another characteristic of qualitative research. The research process for the qualitative researcher is emergent. This means that the initial plan for research cannot rightly be prescribed, and that all phases of the process may change or shift after the researcher enters the field and begins to collect the data. The next characteristic is reflexivity. The researcher ‘positions herself’ in the midst of the IPA research.
This means that the researcher conveys the background, such as work experience, cultural experiences or history, and how this all forms an interpretation of the information in the study, and what the researcher has to gain from such a study (Moustakas, 1994).

**Phenomenology**

As this study followed a qualitative interpretive phenomenological analysis (IPA) approach, the researcher was the primary instrument for data collection and analysis of the voices of participants (Creswell, 2013; Smith, et al., 2010). This study adopted semi-structured, face-to-face interviews (Smith & Osborn, 2008; Smith et al., 2010), and as the instrument, the researcher followed Smith and Osborn’s (2008) and Smith et al.’s (2010) recommendations regarding conducting an IPA, as follows: a) develop an interview protocol to guide the interview process in light of the research questions, b) establish rapport with the participants at the beginning of the interview, c) ask sensitive questions only after the interviewees become comfortable with speaking, d) engage with interviewees in flexible, interactive dialogue, e) listen attentively and probe spontaneously to find out more important and interesting things, f) avoid asking leading questions, and g) resist the urge to interpret what is heard during the interview.

Smith et al. (2010) indicated that the IPA researcher underscored the importance of not only understanding the beliefs and theories that inform the research, but also actively writing about them in the reports and studies. Therefore, the framework of the research was extremely important, for which this research applied ‘The social constructivism theory under the interpretive framework’, because it drew the line for writing the reports and studying the results. Its unit of analysis comprised several individuals who had all shared the same experiences. This research also applied the concept of ‘epoche’ or ‘bracketing,’ in which personal experiences
were set aside, in order to take a fresh approach to the phenomenon under examination (Moustakas, 1994: Miles & Huberman, 1994), based upon four philosophical assumptions. The first assumption was the ontological assumption as it relates to the nature of reality and its characteristics. It embraces the idea of multiple realities and uses of multiple forms of evidence in themes, using the actual words of differently compiled phenomenology (Saldana, 2013). The study showed how individuals participating in the study viewed their experiences differently (Moustakas, 1994, Saldana, 2013).

The second assumption was the epistemological assumption whereby the researchers try to get as close as possible to the participants being studied. This is how knowledge is gathered - through the subjective experiences of people. It becomes important to know what they know and what they say about their lives and work experience. The third assumption was the axiological assumption, whereby the IPA research brings the value known to a study. The inquirers admit the value-laden nature of the study and actively report their values and biases, as well as the value-laden nature of information gathered from the field. The researchers have to position themselves in the study. Finally, the fourth assumption was methodological as it pertains to IPA research as a research methodology. This is characterized as inductive, emerging and shaped by the researcher’s experience in collecting and analyzing the data.

The logic that this IPA research followed was inductive, from the ground up (Creswell, 2013). In response, the data collection strategy planned before the study had to be modified to accompany the new questions (Saldana, 2013). During the data analysis, the researcher followed a path to develop increasingly detailed knowledge of the topic being studied (Saldana, 2013). The four philosophical assumptions were embedded within the interpretive framework that this qualitative research used to conduct the study, because the philosophical assumption was key to
premises that were folded into the interpretive frameworks used in IPA research (Creswell, 2013; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011).

**Hermeneutics.** Smith et al. (2010) indicated that a phenomenological method which purports to be ‘hermeneutic’ needs to be able to account explicitly for the researcher’s approach and how interpretations are managed. It needs to address how the relationship between researcher and researched - the interface between subject and object - is negotiated. This study was required, as a hermeneutic phenomenologist, to bring out the ways in which meanings occur in a context. First, any description of lived experience by participants needs to be seen in context of that individual’s life situation. Second, interpretation is implicated as the researcher makes sense of data by drawing on their own subjective understanding and life experiences. Third, interpretations are filtered through a specific historical lens and arise in a particular social-cultural field, including that which relates to the researcher and the participants. The hermeneutics of meaning recollection aims to achieve greater understanding of the event to be analyzed on its own terms, where meanings are brought out along with the hermeneutics of suspicion, which involves deeper interpretations needed to challenge surface accounts.

The phenomenologist’s hermeneutics is inevitable and necessary because phenomenology is concerned with meanings, which tend to be implied and/or hidden. Interpretation is thus centrally involved in unveiling hidden meanings (rather than being a process whereby external frames of reference are brought in and imposed). That it makes a transition from actual experience to a second-hand explanation indicates that a level of translation and interpretation is involved.

**Ideography.** This is concerned in particular with making claims at group level, and with establishing general laws of human behavior (Smith et al., 2010). This case is central to the
inquiry: the researcher attempts to understand about one NST before moving onto the next. Findings from the first experiences of NST are set aside (as far as is possible), through dynamic bracketing, in order to maintain sensitivity to each person’s unique story (Smith et al., 2010). Finally, a cross-case analysis is conducted. At this final stage, however, the analysis attempts to remain faithful to the individual through illustrating the particular life world of native speaking teachers (participants) who have recounted their experiences, whilst also illustrating more general themes (Smith et al., 2010). In this way, a picture is built up of the general as well as the particular experiences of individuals, because each participant experienced this phenomenon (teaching English to ESLs in Thailand) in a different way.

**Research Procedures**

**Participants.** There were two types of sampling strategies, which could be applied for use in this study: purposive and purposeful sampling. The purposeful sampling method was recommended for the phenomenology approach, so that the researcher could examine in detail the psychological variability within the group, by analyzing the patterns of convergence and divergence which arise (Smith & Osborn, 2008: Patton, 201). Hence, this research applied in-depth interviews in the data collection process. Purposeful sampling is useful for specifying that certain groups of individuals are carefully identified and are fairly invited to be participants who articulate common life experiences of the phenomenon in the phenomenological study, or those who are from a multi culture-sharing group, thus meeting the research criteria of the study (Creswell, 2012). This uniformity of participant shared experiences of a certain phenomenon facilitated the data analysis of this phenomenological study. In this sampling strategy, it was expected to find a reflection of different perspectives about the same phenomenon from NST.
The population in this study was NSTs who had taught English to ESLs for more than one year in Thailand. This was to ensure that the population had had enough teaching experience in order to provide relevant information, in relationship to each research question (Arva & Medgyes, 2000; Creswell, 2012; Saldana, 2013). The population sampling frame in this study was native speaking teachers who were born and came from countries where English was their native language, including: the United States, the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, Ireland or New Zealand (Crystal, 1997; Holliday, 2005; Medgyes, 1994; Senawong, 2004). These countries (Table 1) have more than 85% of their population speaking English.

Table 1 The countries of NST for this research (Crystal, 2003)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Percentage of Native English Speakers (NSTs)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The United States</td>
<td>95.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The United Kingdom</td>
<td>97.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>85.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>97.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>98.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>97.82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All the participants had a native tongue, which means they spoke English as their first language (Medgyes, 1994). To maintain a reasonable sampling strategy, research participants were only included if they met the following criteria: a) the participants must be native speaking teachers, b) they must come from the United States, the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, Ireland or New Zealand, c) they must have taught English for more than one year to ESL students in language institutions in Thailand, and d) they were willing to describe their
reflections about their experiences when teaching ESL students. In addition, participants of both genders were included, as suggested by Reid et al. (2005).

McCraken’s (1988) expectation for a minimum number of interviewees in qualitative research was eight. This number was sufficient to paint a substantial portrait of native speaking teacher experiences. Regarding sample size, Creswell (2013) addressed the flexibility in sampling, and the importance of quality, not quantity as the explanation of the goal of phenomenological research to describe participant experiences in specific context and understand the phenomenon. Hence, the sample size can range from 1 up to 325. However, the number of participants was recommended to be between 3 and 10, similar to Smith and Osborn (2008), and Smith et al. (2010), who recommended a number from 4 to 10 interviews. For this research 4 interviews were conducted, which was appropriate for a professional doctoral study (Smith & Osborn, 2008). The key is to allow a detailed examination of the similarity/difference and convergence/divergence in each case, and avoid the danger of becoming overwhelmed by the vast amount of data generated by a qualitative study, and therefore not produce a sufficiently penetrating analysis (Smith & Osborn, 2008; Saldana, 2013).

**Recruitment and access:** All participants (NSTs) were gathered from language institutions through the researcher’s professional contacts. Participants in this study were voluntary and could end their participation in the study at any time, without risk or harm. There was no compensation paid for participating in this study. Demographics were not identified nor recorded, to protect the anonymity of the participants.

**Informed consent:** The respondents received a complete overview of the research endeavor so that they could be as objective as possible, though no certain method existed to control objectivity. The informed consent documents communicated the prospective research
subject purpose, the procedures including time commitment of the subjects, risks and benefits of the study, and the confidentiality of responses. After the informed consent was signed, the participants had the right to participate in the research and the freedom to decline at any time. The participants were informed by email about the interview data. Data collection was conducted during the interview via an audio recording device (iPhone), and the data was reviewed after each interview, analyzed and then interpreted into themes and meanings to lay the foundations for codification. The participants were given the opportunity to obtain further information and answer questions related to the study before, during and even after the study. The researcher provided her phone number and email address to all participants. The participants could contact the researcher with any concerns about the study.

The present IPA study involved intensive interaction between the researcher and the research participants for the collection of personal experiences, views and personal data. In view of the critical relationship between the investigator and the human subjects, such a relationship was governed by the general principles of honesty, trust and respect, as stipulated by the National Institute of Health (NIH) Office of Extramural Research. In addition, the research process followed three principles, which were 1) respect for all persons, 2) beneficence, and 3) justice. To ensure compliance with ethical principles and requirements, the researcher had completed the required education ‘Protection of Human Research Participants’ and obtained a ‘Certificate of Completion’ from the NIH Office of Extramural Research. Moreover, approval from the Northeastern University Institutional Review Board (IRB) was sought and granted before the research commenced.

The study was approved by the IRB of Northeastern University before collection of data from the four participants. The IRB process ensured that this research ‘did no harm’ to
participants (Butin, 2010; Creswell, 2012; Saldana, 2013). The research had to be approved by the IRB committee to ensure that it met ethical guidelines, and in no way impinged upon the rights of the individuals being studied, or harmed them in any way (Butin, 2010). The distinction between an expedited and full review was determined by the committee’s balance of the potential risks to participants, including physical, psychological, legal, social and economic against the perceived benefits from the research (Creswell, 2012). The IRB reviewed all the specific anticipated risks to participants and how the researcher planned to minimize them, how confidentiality was ensured, and that there was a clear and useful informed consent form that spelled out the study (Creswell, 2012). Research participants were doing the researcher a favor by being a part of this study, and the last thing the researcher wanted was to harm them in any way (Butin, 2010; Creswell, 2012; Saldana, 2013).

Data Collection

According to Creswell (2013), the researcher utilized purposeful sampling to ensure participation of the subjects and that they could directly answer the research questions. Purposeful sampling is useful for specifying that certain groups of individuals are carefully identified and are fairly invited to be participants, and that they are in keeping with common life experiences of the phenomenon under study, in accordance with the phenomenological study (Creswell, 2012). The uniformity of participant shared experiences of a certain phenomenon facilitated the data collection and analysis expectations of the phenomenological study (Smith et al., 2010). For this sampling strategy, is researcher expected to find reflections of different perspectives about the same phenomenon.

The interview approach was employed in this study, as it was appropriate and matched with the concept of studying real people in a natural setting (Creswell, 2013). In the first step of
the interview approach, the researcher decided the research questions to be used (Rubin & Rubin, 2012). These questions were open-ended and focused upon the central area of the research phenomenon (Rubin & Rubin, 2012). One-on-one interviews were used in this research, as the research questions needed to encourage participants to share their ideas, challenges and experiences. In-depth interviews offered flexibility and opportunities for respondents to discuss other factors that were not mentioned in the interview protocol (Axinn & Pearce, 2006).

The researcher conducted interviews that captured the perspectives of the four participants. All four participants were interviewed for two sessions. Part I Introductory session, Objectives (10-20 minutes) and Part II. Main Questions (70-80 minutes). After the interviews were transcribed, the researcher arranged member checking by each participant for 45 minutes. The researcher wanted to ensure that the interview transcriptions were accreted. The primary researcher conducted individual interviews in convenient places according to each participant. Interviews were conducted during the daytime, after classes, or evening as convenient for participants who were working as classroom teachers. Audio recordings of the interviews were stored on the researcher’s personal computer and then destroyed following transcription.

The researcher took down notes, listened and asked questions in order to achieve a better understanding of the situations and participant’s thoughts about their experiences. According to Cozby (2009), debriefing occurred after the completion of the study. This was an opportunity for the researcher to deal with issues of withholding information, deception and potential harmful effects upon participants. The intent of the debriefing was to ensure that the research did not alter the participants’ physical or psychological status in any way. The researcher made sure that the participants were comfortable about having participated (Cozby, 2009). At this time, the
researcher informed the participants of the purpose of the study and availed them of the practical implications of the research (Rubin & Rubin, 2012).

The interview method is a seemingly concrete and simple means for collecting key data from relevant individuals in an effective and controlled manner (Butin, 2010). Interviewing is a complex undertaking that requires practice, thoroughness and strict adherence to scholarly protocols (Creswell, 2012). Interviews, though, do have the ‘wild card’ variable of being completed face-to-face, which is helpful because it permits the researcher to note participants’ body language and expressions, ask follow-up questions and generally feel more personable about the entire process (Butin, 2010).

The interview questions are modified to talk about participant experiences, feelings and intuitions surrounding the issues of NSTs when teaching English to ESLs (Rubin & Rubin, 2012). In terms of practice, the questions were broad and general so that the participants could construct the meanings of situations - meanings typically forged in discussions or interactions with other people. The more open-ended the questioning the better, as the researcher listened carefully to what was said or done in their life settings, and the interpretivist framework allowed the processes of interaction amongst individuals (Creswell, 2013). The research also focused upon the specific contents in which people live and work, in order to understand the historical and cultural settings of the participants (Creswell, 2013).

**Data Storage**

The participants were required to sign an informed consent form prior to the interviews, which gave full assurance of the confidentiality of their responses. To ensure that ethical standards were maintained during the course of the study, the participants were informed about the purposes of the study and their informed consent was obtained before pursuing the study. The
privacy and confidentiality of the participants was ensured by not requiring them to reveal their names or institutions, in order to ensure anonymity of responses, and to protect them from any retributive action. The researcher also ensured that any data collected was not disclosed to unauthorized persons or third parties.

To reduce any negative impacts upon participants, care was taken to minimize any harm caused to the respondents. In this scenario, the participants were willing to provide their views and insights about the topic of this study. The signed informed consent forms were retained for a minimum of three years, and the collected information was stored as MS-Word documents, and maintained on a password protected flash memory data storage device. Hard copies of the transcripts, including the signed consent forms and instrument papers, which included the participant feedback, were kept in sealed envelopes and stored in a locked cabinet, which only the researcher had access to. After three years have elapsed, these hard copies will be shredded using a shredding machine, and thrown away to protect the participants’ identity information.

**Data Analysis**

Data analysis in a qualitative study, including IPA, is a personal interpretive process. Indeed, the focus of IPA data analysis is the content and complexity of meaning. Smith and his colleagues (Smith et al., 2010; Smith & Osborn, 2008) explicitly stress that it is inappropriate to designate a prescriptive data analysis approach in order to make room for more experimentations. Taking reference from Smith et al. (2010) and Saldana (2013), qualitative data analysis engages in the following seven steps: 1) verbatim transcription by the researcher, 2) reading the transcripts several times to become familiar with the details of each interview, 3) open coding through identifying and highlighting significant statements into initial notes, then transforming initial notes into themes, 4) clustering and connecting themes, to capture most
strongly the respondents’ concerns about this particular topic, into a table of themes, 5) discussion of the themes from a theoretical lens, 6) interpreter consistency check by asking a peer to conduct coding, and 7) triangulation via participant reviews, and verification of coding and interpretation.

Once the data had been collected, the next step was to categorize the information. The objective was to identify any patterns representing concepts the participants presented during the data collection phase (Saldana, 2013). Data was then organized into logical categories that summarized and brought meaning to the manuscripts or notes (Saldana, 2013). Specific codes were developed allowing the researcher to categorize the responses into the above-mentioned constructs, which identified emergent themes. During this data aggregation phase, subcategories were identified which were not apparent during the initial development of the research project. These subcategories were identified and coded, such that this new information could be assimilated into the research findings (Creswell, 2013; Saldana, 2013). Although pre-set categories were defined at the initial phase of the research, in the resetting of the initial direction of study emergent categories were identified. The projected process was to begin the study with pre-set categories, and add emergent categories as they became defined. The inclusion of these additional categories offered greater identification of the issue being investigated (Saldana, 2013).

Confidentiality

Interviews were conducted with the four selected participants. The first point of contact with the participants was through telephone calls to confirm their attendance at the interview discussions. The researcher informed the participants that records of the subjects would be kept in a secure location for at least 3 years after the completion of the research, and then shredded.
Each participant was aware that all participants in this study were voluntary, all data was confidential, and that the identity of the participants remained confidential and was never directly associated with any other data.

**Trustworthiness**

Lincoln and Guba (1985) provided a number of trustworthiness criteria, which are in naturalistic paradigm: a) credibility of findings in an inquiry is demonstrated by the adequate representation of multiple realities that are credible to their constructors (i.e. research participants), b) transferability is a judgment call of the reader, discerning the contextual similarity between the research site and the reader’s own circumstance, c) dependability in an emergent study is affected by variability in research-participant interaction, contexts and research design, and d) confirmability is achieved when the research findings reflect the participants’ perspectives about the social phenomenon, through an unobtrusive process and controlling of the researcher’s bias.

To ensure the quality of the research, researchers adopted appropriate strategies to ensure the quality of data collection and analysis. According to Fraenkel and Wellen (2003), validity refers to the appropriateness, meaningfulness, correctness, and usefulness of the inferences researchers make based on the data they collect. Validity is often considered as three aspects, especially in quantitative studies: instrument validity, external validity and internal validity. Instrument validity refers to accuracy of measurement, and includes criterion, content and construct validity. External validity refers to the generalizability of the findings to other settings. Finally, internal validity refers to the confidence that the researcher’s interpretations of the study outcomes are not subject to alternative explanations (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003; Merriam and Simpson, 2000). It is evident that Fraenkel and Wallen’s concept has a strong orientation towards
a post-positivist quantitative research paradigm. For a qualitative study, Rubin and Rubin (2012) contended that quality means that the results of the research are fresh and real. The conclusions are balanced, thoroughly credible and accurate, and the final reports are rich with ideas (emphasis on original).

Creswell (2003) reviewed many perspectives of validation in qualitative research, and argued that validation in qualitative research can essentially be conceived to be an attempt to assess the ‘accuracy’ of the findings, as best described by the researcher and the participants. Guba and Lincoln (1994) developed a set of widely adopted criteria for constructivist studies following a naturalistic paradigm, namely trustworthiness criteria of credibility (paralleling internal validity), transferability (paralleling external validity), dependability (paralleling reliability), and confirmability (paralleling objectivity). Guba and Lincoln (1994) contended that in naturalistic paradigm: a) credibility of findings in an inquiry is demonstrated by the adequate representation of multiple realities that are credible to their constructors (i.e. research participants), b) transferability is a judgment call of the reader discerning the contextual similarity between the research site and the reader’s own circumstance, c) dependability in emergent study is affected by variability in research-participant interaction, contexts and research design, and d) confirmability is achieved when the research findings reflect the participants’ perspectives about the social phenomenon through an unobtrusive process and controlling of the researcher’s bias. To safeguard trustworthiness, the following strategies are commonly adopted (Creswell, 2013; Lincoln & Guba, 1985).
Table 2 Trustworthiness Lincoln and Guba (1985)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Strategy</th>
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<tr>
<td>Credibility</td>
<td>• Prolonged engagement and persistent observation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Triangulation of multiple sources, methods, investigations and theories to provide corroborating evidence</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Peer debriefing to provide an external check of the research process</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Negative case analysis to refine working hypotheses as the inquiry advances in light of negative or disconfirming evidence</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Member checking to solicit participants’ views of the credibility of the findings and interpretations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transferability</td>
<td>• Rich, thick description of participants profiles, their work context and study findings, and interpretation to allow readers to make decisions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependability</td>
<td>• Triangulation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Stepwise reproduction (Lincoln &amp; Guba, 1985) that the researcher and a peer coder independently coded data to achieve consensual validation</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• External audits by a third party to examine the process and the product of the account, assessing their accuracy</td>
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<tr>
<td>Confirmability</td>
<td>• Triangulation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Clarifying research bias from the outset of the study to allow the reader understand the researcher’s position and any biases or assumptions that impact the inquiry</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Use of a reflective journal to allow the researcher to reflect and review the process of deriving findings and interpretations</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Audit trail to document the raw data, audio tapes, research notes, reflective journals, correspondences with participants, peer coders and external auditor, and iterations of coding and data analysis</td>
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Merriam and Simpson (2000) recommended using multiple techniques to provide internal validity, including triangulation, member checking, submersion within the research setting (similar to prolonged engagement and persistent observation) and statements of researcher bias. Creswell (2013) recommended using ‘at least two’ strategies. In particular, triangulation of data sources, thick description and member checking are the most popular and cost-effective procedures to conduct, whilst peer audits and external audits are more costly and time-
consuming. In view of the above, for the purposes of this dissertation study, the following strategies were adopted: clarification of research bias from the outset of the study, prolonged engagement and persistent observation, triangulation, peer debriefing, negative cases analysis, thick description, member checking, and an external audit and audit trail.

**Clarifying researcher bias and assumption.** In conducting research, it is vital for the researchers to maintain reflexivity about the positionality of the researchers, the researched and the relations between the two (Parsons, 2008), in order to control potential biases and become open-minded about research data in their representation of the other (the researched) (Briscoe, 2005; Machi and McEvoy, 2009). To enhance the credibility of an IPA study, Smith and Osborn (2008) recommended following Yardley’s (2008) principle of ‘Sensitivity to Context’, by paying attention to the social-cultural contexts of the study site, the power imbalance during the interviewer-interviewee interaction, and paying extra care in giving participants voice in the data analysis and interpretation. The researcher disclosed her positionality in the dissertation to keep herself vigilant about this issue, and also to help readers evaluate the extent of any bias presence in the data interpretation (Creswell, 2013; Merriam and Simpson, 2009).

Prolonged engagement and persistent observation. In this IPA study, prolonged engagement was mainly achieved by semi-structured interviews, and engaging participants in member checking throughout the data analysis and interpretation process (Smith & Osborn, 2008). For the interview with NSTs participants, a duration of 45 minutes to ask six to ten open questions was recommended (Smith & Osborn, 2008), and this was followed in this study. Additionally, it was unfeasible nor time-effective to observe multiple participants. Therefore, persistent observation was mainly reflected in data coding and analysis where the researcher maintained sensitivity to raw data by reading and reviewing the interview transcriptions.
repeatedly. The purpose was to give immersive and disciplined attention to the unfolding account of the participant and what can be gleaned from it (Smith & Osborn, 2008).

**Member checking.** Member checking is considered to be the most critical technique for establishing credibility (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Merriam and Simpson, 2000; Patton, 2002). Moreover, member checking also provides strong analytical triangulation. Patton (2002) argued, having those who were studied review the findings offers another approach to analytical triangulation. Through member checking, researchers and evaluators can learn a great deal about the accuracy, completeness, fairness, and perceived validity of their data analysis (Patton, 2002). After the interviews had been transcribed, the researcher arranged the member checking for each participant for 45 minutes. As such, all participants were invited to verify and comment on the transcripts, draft interpretations and draft finding reports to ensure accuracy.

**Peer debriefing.** To allow for an external check of the research process and interpretations, peer debriefing was conducted by both an Ed.D student, who had completed all research coursework, and the researcher’s dissertation supervisor.

**Negative research analysis.** As an interpretive qualitative study seeks to delineate a holistic account of phenomenon from perspectives of a small sample of research participants (Creswell, 2013), Rubin and Rubin (2012) suggested choosing research participants who were knowledgeable, had complementary first-hand experience and represented different perspectives. Furthermore, in view of Yardley’s (2008) principle of ‘Sensitivity to Context’ and the recommendations of Smith & Osborn (2008), data collection in this study paid particular attention to the social-cultural contexts of the study site, and careful selection of research participants such that the informants were informed by the literature. In data analysis, one key issue to be addressed is: Are ambiguities or contradictions dealt with clearly? (Smith & Osborn,
The researcher followed Yardley’s (2008) principle of commitment, and refined working interpretations as the inquiry advanced in light of disconfirming evidence. Specifically, the researcher will look for gaps and fill in missing information, seek contrary data and explore alternative explanations (Rubin & Rubin, 2012).

**Thick description.** In reporting the study findings, as recommended by Smith and Osborn (2008), a sufficient amount of verbatim extracts from the participants’ material were made in support of the argument. The purpose was to provide the experiences, when teaching English to ESLs, of each participant’s perspectives in their own voice, concerning their life experiences (Mile and Huberman, 1994). To achieve these aims, the researcher examined a variety of examples and themes, and explored alternative interpretations and perspectives as advised by Rubin and Rubin (2012).

**External audit.** As Smith and Osborn (2008) put it, independent audit is a really powerful way of thinking about validity in qualitative research. In this study, the researcher’s dissertation supervisor and dissertation supervisory committee conducted an independent audit.

**Audit trail.** To allow self and external audits, Yin (2009) suggested that the documents and data should be filed in order to provide a chain of evidence from initial documentation to the final report. Such an approach is recommended in IPA studies, and was adopted in this study (Smith and Osborn, 2008). Specifically, the audit trail consisted of the following: initial notes about the research questions, the research proposal, an interview schedule, audio tapes, annotated transcripts, tables of themes and other device draft reports, plus the final report (Smith & Osborn, 2008).

**Threats to internal validity.** According to Fraenkel and Wallen (2003), there are ten major threats to internal validity: participant characteristics, mortality, participant attitude,
location, instrumentation (instrument decay, researcher characteristics, and researcher bias), implementation, testing, history, maturation and regression. The last four (testing, history, maturation and regression) are relevant to quantitative study only. This IPA study involved prolonged interaction between the researcher and the research participants, making the threats listed above relevant. The threat of researcher characteristics was irrelevant to this study because there is only one researcher conducting the interviews. Researcher bias has been discussed earlier.

**Implementation.** In qualitative study, the researcher is the primary instrument (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Good data is obtained by skilful handling of the interview (Smith & Osborn, 2008). To encourage participants to provide a rich and holistic account of their experiences, the researcher made use of the following techniques suggested by Smith and Osborn (2008): a) develop an interview protocol to guide the interview process in light of research questions, b) establish rapport with the participants at the beginning of the interview, c) ask sensitive questions only after the interviewee becomes comfortable with speaking, d) engage with an interviewee in flexible, interactive dialogue, e) listen attentively and probe spontaneously to find out more important and interesting things, f) avoid asking leading questions, and g) resist the urge to interpret what is heard during the interview itself.

**Protection of Human Subjects**

**Guiding ethical principles.** The present qualitative study involved intensive interaction between the researcher and the research participants, to collect personal experiences, views and personal data about native speaking teachers in language institutions in Thailand. In view of the critical relationship between the investigator and the human subjects, such a relationship was governed by the general principles of honesty, trust and respect, as stipulated by the National
Institute of Health (NIH) Office of Extramural Research (2008). In addition, the research process followed the three principles stated in the ‘The Belmont Report’ (1979): 1) respect for all persons, 2) beneficence, and 3) justice. To ensure compliance with ethical principles and requirements, the researcher had completed the required education in the ‘Protection of Human Research Participants’, and obtained a ‘Certificate of Completion’, from the NIH Office of Extramural Research. Moreover, approval from the Northeastern University Institutional Review Board (IRB) was sought before the research commenced.

For this study, the research participants were NSTs, who were considered as autonomous persons and not a vulnerable population as defined by the NIH Office of Extramural Research (2008). The research process primarily involved in-depth semi-structured interviews, and there was no physical, emotional, mental harm or discomfort imposed upon research participants. However, participants might have been subject to risks of jeopardising their personal self-image, social and professional relationship, or even professional career, due to leakage of information about their personal weaknesses, worries or negative views about colleagues and organizations. The following measures were taken to protect the human subjects from negative consequences jeopardizing their personal well-being and professional career:

1. Research participants were invited for voluntary participation using a written explanation of the purpose, benefits and risks, rights to withdraw from the research at anytime, and protection of confidentiality. Participants signed an ‘Informed Consent’ form before participating in the study.

2. They were selected through purposeful sampling, as described in the Participants and Sampling Strategy section. Both male and female native speaking teachers were included in this study.
3. Confidentiality of participant data was strictly protected. Participant responses were collected in personal interviews in a private and secure place that the participants chose, and gender-neutral pseudonyms were used to protect the identity of participants. Their responses, when quoted, were reported in anonymity or with pseudonyms. Data records and matching tables of pseudonyms were stored in the researcher’s personal computer, and password protected. Hard copy data was stored in a locked cabinet, and all data and documents will be destroyed after three years.
Chapter IV: Research Findings

This Chapter presents the findings of the research conducted, exploring Native Speaking Teachers’ (NSTs) experience teaching English to ‘English as a Second Language’ students (ESLs) in Thailand. The three research questions guiding this study were as follows:

1. What are the experiences of native speaking teachers (NSTs) when teaching English to second language students (ESLs) in Thailand?
2. What are the motivations for native speaking teachers (NSTs) to teach English to second language students (ESLs) in Thailand?
3. How does the Thai culture of second language students (ESLs) impact upon the pedagogy employed by native speaking teachers (NST), as perceived by NSTs themselves?

This chapter begins with an overview of the interviews conducted with the four NSTs participating in this study, followed by an analysis of those interviews. The analysis used is that of Smith et al. (2009), which described ‘contextualization’ or ‘how to obtain the complexity of meaning’. The method of data analysis was in keeping with Smith et al. (2009) and Saldana (2013), in that:

a) The interview data was transcript by the researcher,
b) The transcript was double-checked by the researcher and proofread by the all four participants for accuracy and validity,
c) the transcript was coded by identifying and highlighting significant statement notes, with the initial notes are transformed into categories, and subsequently combined into themes,
d) Themes were subsequently clustered and connected in order to capture the strongest participant experiences directly relevant to the research questions.

e) Themes were then reviewed in relations to the theoretical lens employed by the study,

f) Interpreter consistency was checked by peer reviews, and

g) Triangulation of participant reviews, along with verification of coding and interpretation were all completed.

Participant Profiles and General Perspectives

Joe. Joe is American and comes from Indiana. Joe has been living in Thailand for over 12 years. He almost knew nothing about Thailand or Southeast Asia upon his arrival, and he had no friends, as he’d never been here before. He didn’t know about the reputation of Thailand when he arrived, in that the people were mostly friendly. It was very exciting, Joe said. He came to Thailand to work on research concerning human rights democracy. He said that when he was at the university in US He had obtained his Bachelor’s degree, and he always wanted to travel more. Thus, he decided that he would travel and work, because he didn’t have much money, and teaching English seemed to be a good job to match his situation at that time. He is currently teaching 24 classroom hours per week with 15 minute sections, so 24/15 minute sections per week. He is also a private teacher, usually for 2 hours per week. In addition, he also teaches extra hours after school, which depends upon the students’ schedules. Furthermore, he is also responsible as a program coordinator at his school.

Joe used to teach in different institutions, such as a well-known private school which has different branches. One class had around 40-45 students and, as a result, he was not able to teach much because the over number of students and limitation of time. He said that a good classroom size should be less than 20 students.
Language classes are about understanding, being interested and learning. The activities for learning English really work for small groups of ESL students. If there are more than 20 students in one class, the teacher can’t keep effective peer team-work or a working atmosphere in the classroom.

He received his Bachelor’s degree in Anthropology, a subject related to human studies, which is also a part of linguistics. He claimed that he has an English teaching background from this degree. Joe said that he had learned how to teach English while he was studying, and that he had learned such from his and other teacher’s friend’s experiences. Joe loves to travel, so he acknowledged that there are a lot of countries which hire foreign language teachers. He figured out that he could travel while making money as a teacher as well. He explained that:

When I was at University I didn’t study to be a teacher, but I studied about how to teach, and so I volunteered at a community center that taught foreigners how to speak English. I learned from professionals there, and then I volunteered at a bigger place that did the same and learned to teach on the job. I did plan to become a teacher, but not of English, so that was okay as it was just a change of subject. Thus, I learned to teach on the job while volunteering, and then once I got the chance to come to Thailand I then always knew that I could switch to this job anytime.

Joe claimed that he doesn’t have any teaching qualifications, but he has experience in teaching and talking in front of other people. He acknowledged that Thailand has never been colonized by any countries, so the English standard is not up to the same standard as neighboring countries, such as: Myanmar, Malaysia, Laos, etc.
He has been teaching in a range of many age groups, including a Japanese housewife who wanted to learn English because her husband works in a full time job. He said that these women are almost at the intermediate level. They had enough knowledge about English, but they couldn’t speak the language. Next, Joe had a group of 6 year old students at an International School. He discovered that Thai students are better at reading and writing than they are at listening and speaking. He found that he enjoyed teaching younger students more-so than adults. Younger students are willing to have fun, but teaching adults can’t go too slowly, and he had to speed up lessons to ensure that the adults felt that they were getting what they had paid for. Kids are innocent; they’re interesting, fun, cute, and a teacher can’t really get mad at them, or can’t really get frustrated with them. Thus, teachers love to teach younger aged students, because they have a good time. The adult students, however, want to be intellectually challenged, but this takes time to prepare and time for them to develop to such a standard. They are serious, and very engaged. Joe also said that if he had to teach adult students with a Basic English then he would not like it, because they learn very slowly. He would like it more if he has to teach adult students with advance level because then he would be able to have a conversation and correct them. Joe feels that the best practice is to have smaller classrooms, and have more support for the teachers. Teachers would need more materials or items pertaining to creativity, and more training in professional development. Thus, teachers can know how to deal with the Thai educational system, Thai culture and Thai students and, in that case, teachers can teach students based upon their specialized skills, rather than trying to complete listening, speaking, reading and writing all with the same teacher.

**Mike.** Mike is American who first came to Thailand in 2001, and returned for a second time in 2003. He decided to move to Thailand permanently in 2004, so he has been living in
Thailand for over 10 years. He lived in Los Angeles for 9 years, and got bored and wanted a change. However he didn’t have a degree at that time, so he decided to go to college and earn his degree in English creative writing, although he hadn’t really previously used such. Before he became an English teacher, he had never taught before, and he thought that the possibility of teaching would be an interesting job for him. When he first moved to Thailand, the only job that he could think about was to become an English teacher. He said that he was already qualified for a teaching job at that time, because he had an English creative writing degree. Mike had never taught before, and he didn’t know how to teach at all. However, he did have public speaking skills, which relate to teaching. He was once a tour guide at a Zoo when he was 15 years old, and he was also a salesman selling newspaper subscriptions. He thinks he knows how to teach, and Mike’s favorite students are aged between 17 and 20 years old.

He got his job through a friend and, in order to learn how to teach English, he learned by completing a TOEFL course of around 6 weeks duration. However, he did think that with or without the TOEFL course, he would get hired as an English teacher anyway: It is harder to get a teaching job at good schools now. Rick commented that the Ministry of Education should look at who can be a good teacher, not at those who have degrees. Mike further indicated that some good teachers don’t have degrees, yet he knows of some people with degrees who are awful teachers.

Mike acknowledged that in the past most schools didn’t worry much about the teacher having a degree. He explained that he has had experience teaching in a private university for a few years, and that currently he is teaching at a public university language center.

Mike provided very strong ideas about the GED Program in Thailand (General Educational Development), which is a test in 5 subjects (Language Arts; Reading, Language Arts; Writing,
Mathematics, Science, and Social Studies). The maximum points for each subject are 800. To pass the GED test, the candidates must score 410 or more in every subject, and the total score must be equal to or exceed 2,250. Anyone who can pass the GED test will be granted a diploma equal to a high-school diploma. The GED test taker must be at least 17 years old on the test date. In Thailand, a GED Diploma is accepted by the Ministry of Education as a high-school equivalent (Mathayom 6), which can be used for college/university admission in any institution. Mike further explained,

Seventeen year old students are not ready to go to university yet. It’s something which in the US is considered a kind of a joke. It’s for students who, for example let’s say a girl gets pregnant when she’s in high-school and she has to leave or drop out, and later she gets back and gets her GED - well then she’s considered as a high-school graduate. It’s not the same as actually learning in high school.

Most of Mike’s experiences involved teaching teenagers, aged between 17 and 20 years old. In the language centre where he is currently teaching, he is teaching many nationalities of ESL student, such as: Koreans, Japanese, Chinese, and Myanmar students. However, around 90% of his students are Thai, and he currently teaches in classrooms of circa 20-25 students, which is a very good size for learning English language, Mike said. English learning is not lecturing; the teacher needs to interact with all students for the whole of the time. Students are supposed to practice, discuss, and make conversation based upon the topic. These kinds of activity can’t be fitted into the larger classroom sizes of students.

Jan. Jan is British and comes from United Kingdom. He arrived in Thailand 14 years ago and decided to stay in Thailand on his first trip. He had absolutely no idea what to expect in Thailand. His friends simply invited him to their homes, and he said; Yes, sure, I am coming. Jan
said that at first he was a little bit nervous, yet very excited. He came to Thailand on holiday for a few months, and he thought he would travel around. It was then that he fell in love with the country. When he found out that he could work and live here, he did just that. After his first visit, he also bought a ticket to travel to Australia. He changed his ticket 3 times, but finally went to Australia. After that trip, he decided that he had 3 choices: a) stay in Australia and get a poorly paid job, b) go back to England and maybe get another poor job, but with better pay, c) come back to Thailand to be a teacher. Therefore, choice number 3 seemed to be the best idea at that time.

He is currently a primary school English teacher at a private school with an ‘International Program’. This school has both Thai and an international program. He said that he got his degree in ‘Leisure Studies’, which is similar to a management degree based upon the leisure industry. In Jan’s perspective, a teaching degree is not necessary to teach the English language in Thailand. He thinks that teachers should just have enough experience of teaching English to students, and that schools should look at teachers’ teaching ability instead of their teaching license. He added, When I went on the first day, I realized I had no idea how to be a teacher. Fortunately, there was a Filipino teacher who was working alongside me.

Jan indicated that he loves Thailand, and that he first wanted to live in Thailand from the very first moment he arrived here. He didn’t know what to do to get money, even though he acknowledged that there was no career path for an English teaching job in Thailand. The most an NST can rise to is to become part of the management team at a language center, yet he still fell in love with this country, and this is one of the motivations that encouraged him to stay here as a teacher.
Jan got the most of his learning skills from his colleague. He obtained different teaching ideas, different classroom strategies, and ways to do individual work and group work with children from his teacher friends. He said that teachers need to keep different children involved, because quite often the teacher just picks the good kids because it’s easy.

Jan gained various experiences from different levels of student. He used to teach kindergarten students in the morning, and in the afternoon he taught primary students at grades 7 to 12 (teenagers). He was moving around, and didn’t really know which student group he liked most to teach. He said that he also used to teach at a Thai public school in Bangkok, which had more than 60 students in one class. Obviously, there were too many students, Jan said. He had managed them into 5 small groups and then let them work together as a team, and this made the classroom more manageable. Jan thinks that 20 students per classroom would be perfect for English Language learning. The teacher can manage the whole class, and students can have a strong feeling of involvement. However, it is very rare in Thailand to find such a classroom size.

Jan also has his own opinions about the classification of students. He explained that students who are not good at English should stay away from the English program. They should study the Thai program instead. The schools need to take responsibility, and say to parents that I’m sorry your child isn’t good enough. We have to place them in the Thai program, Jan said. Thai people can’t speak English after graduating from university because of the Thai educational system. The system is letting the Thai people down and the Thai children down, in not classifying by not having good enough children in classes where children don’t understand anything. They then mess around and the good children can’t learn. Time is being wasted. The classification system can start from secondary education, because then the children can be pushed and then don’t worry so much about other skills.
Rick. Rick is American who has stayed in Thailand for over 13 years. The first time, Rick simply wanted to visit his girlfriend, who was a teacher at the time. He wasn’t thinking about how long he would like to stay in Thailand at all. He likes Thai culture, which he thinks suits him better in many ways; he has become fit and healthy, is always busy with new things, and he very much enjoys the Thai way of life. He like the fact that Thai people in general are really nice. They do not aggressive. The food are fresh and healthy. The housing and daily allowance is effort able for NSTs. It was his first time in Thailand, and the first time that he had ever been outside of the U.S.A. It was a great experience, and Rick said it was the best decision of his life. Rick used to teach in a Thai school, with teaching hours Monday to Friday, 9 to 5 pm. He did that for 7 years, before becoming a private teacher. Rick currently has his own private teaching school, and teaches for 30 hours per week. He did teach around 60 students in one class before for one period of an hour or so per week as a NST, and he said that was too big. There were only 10 students who were learning. He prefers teaching in small groups, because the students can quickly learn to speak when they are in a native speaking environment. A small group of students can learn from different types of activities, keeping them interested, and they can learn rapidly from such. This is one of the reasons he opened his own private English teaching school, to teach students in small groups in order to really understand the content of English.

Rick also didn’t have an English Language teaching job for the first two years. He visited Thailand for the first time because of his girlfriend, and he was also taking a TOEFL course at the same time. He was interested in learning, and so he took the course with his girlfriend and tried to teach English at a small language school.
As he said: that The students liked me very much, so that gave me the incentive to complete my own TOEFL course. Thus, I studied a TOEFL course at TOEFL international, and then studied about teaching.

Rick only learned how to teach through his TOEFL course, and then through essentially trial and error and observing other teachers. He was learning while doing his job, and he recognized other teachers’ teaching styles and adapted some to be his own. So every place that I worked, I always made a point of asking the teachers and learned about what they were doing or what worked for them, and had really learned on the job, essentially, he said.

He indicated that his strongest skill is Grammar Teaching. He said that not many people like to teach Grammar, but he actually does. He thinks that this specification suits him, in terms of his teaching style. Rick thus learned how to teach from experience. He said that he is interested in the English teaching job, and that he really has grown in learning from it. He said that his desire is to do a good job and that learning from other teachers allows him to be innovative in certain ways. He has continued teaching for over 13 years, and he maintains that he still learns from the people around him and develops his professional teaching skills from them.

Rick also indicated that Thai people love to have fun in everything. To be able to teach English, teachers must understand the Thai peoples’ attitudes towards life in general. They want to do everything in a fun way, which includes language learning. They can’t speak English because it is not fun to practice, and they are also afraid that they might be wrong and would thus lose face. Thai students are a lot better at reading and writing than listening and speaking.

He has had different groups of students, starting from a small school in Bangkok with young students to a group of 60 year old women who only wanted to practice English, 7 year olds, and finally a group of teenage students who just wanted to chat. He said that he most likely
focused upon trying to teach them grammar. However, for speaking lessons, students just wanted to talk and let him correct them. He said that the hardest part is trying to get Thai students to speak. It’s very difficult when you have someone who can’t really speak English but simply wants to learn conversation, Rick said. He also said the he likes all different age groups of students for different reasons. 3.5 – 4 year old students are so cute, and interested in their stories. 7-8 year old students are really competitive and fun to play competitive games with, which easily keeps them focused upon the classroom. Teenage students are probably the most challenging concerning the development of classroom materials. However, they do have a lot of creativity and imagination. The teacher must get them to use such creativity and imagination. Adult students are learning English for their own benefit, and they tend to be more interested and focused whenever a teacher teaches. They do not waste their time. As Rick said,

I had a group of adults who sold things at Jatuchak market. They said they wanted to learn English because their customers were tourists, which involved speaking English to them. They wanted to know how to communicate with their customers, as that was good for their business.

Rick said that if a teacher feels appreciated for what they are doing, such as having new classroom activities or creating teaching materials, then they will have the motivation to do it, even without extra pay. In contrast, if the institution simply evaluates the teacher based upon simple production of useless paper work, or counting productive paper work, then the English language teaching system will never improve. Everybody, including NSTs, would like to feel appreciated by students, institutions, and parents, in order to keep them moving and continuing to be a good teacher.

**Emergent Themes**
As discussed in the earlier review of the methodology, this research study was built upon studies that explore the phenomenon of Native Speaker Teachers (NSTs) teaching English to ‘English as a Second Language’ students (ESLs) in Thailand. Smith et al. (2009) indicated that while an IPA’s study’s aim is to find the phenomenon of the participants, the generalization of the study lies in the hands of the researcher, who has the ability to assess the evidence found from such data. Lincoln and Guba (1985) also cautioned the transferability and generalization of research, stating that; at best the investigator can supply only that information about the studied site that may make possible a judgment of transferability. With this understanding of generalizations pertaining to other settings, a number of themes emerged.

Through ‘Interpretative Phenomenology Analysis’ of the interview transcripts, and the descriptions of participant experiences about their phenomena, different topics and themes were identified. These themes clarify how the study participants understood and explained their experience concerning teaching English to ESL students. In addition, they explained their motivation for teaching English, as well as their teaching pedagogy. The topics and emergent themes are as follows:

**Topic #1: NST’s Teaching Experiences**

a) Sub-Topic #1: The Thai Education System from the NST’s Perspective

b) Sub-Topic #2: Teaching Experiences of ESLs

**Topic #2: NST’s Teaching Motivation**

a) Sub-Topic #1: Teacher Motivations

b) Sub-Topic #2: Career Path

**Topic #3: Cultural Differences and Impacts upon Pedagogy**

a) Sub-Topic #1: Thai Culture & Cultural Differences
b) Sub-Topic #2: Teaching Pedagogy in Thai Culture

**Topic #1: NST’s Teaching Experiences**

The first topic emanates out of the first research question. That question is: What are the experiences of native speaking teachers (NSTs) when teaching English to second language students (ESLs) in Thailand?

During their interviews, NSTs described their experiences of teaching English to ESLs in Thailand, and presented their perspectives of the Thai educational system. Based upon their individual stories, two themes were identified:

**Sub-Topic #1 The Thai Education System from the NST’s Perspective.**

*Theme 1: NSTs have a significant amount of paper work associated with their teaching, which in the participant’s opinions, are not necessary.* Rick identified a major problem for English Language Teachers as ‘the paper work issue’ He indicated that schools should start encouraging students and teachers to do more activities, or create more activities, and share those activities with other people, and then rate teaching performances based upon the values of the activities. The problem is that teachers have too much paper work to do, and they do not have time to come up with good activities for the students or create new ways of teaching and entertaining. For example, the schools were expecting the NSTs to test students the conversation class by paper test. Rick said how the paper test, can test the students weather they can speak English or not? In his perspective, it doesn’t make sense. Moreover the schools were assigned the NSTs to plan the classes for coming school year. This assignment would allow NSTs to use their creativities, and plan the class ahead. However the schools would just look at it and then in the next year, NSTs were teaching the same as schools’ plan not NSTs plan anyway. These are an example of wasting time to complete the paper work as requesting from schools.
Jan also agreed with this issue. In her interview he stated that, teachers can create teaching activities only if they have time. If they don’t have time to do so then they would just simply write it on the board and have students copy it into the book, and then mark all the books, fill in the blanks, fill in the tick boxes for each kid, write details, and report about whether or not they can do A, B, C and D etc. Teachers are basically just swimming with paper work.

Mike commented that Thai schools emphasize that paper work and other items must be checked with a red pen, especially when marking scores. Whether or not students can speak English is not an issue for the school. They only care about whether the student can fill in the blanks and complete the sentences, and tell you about the speech or verb tenses, Mike said.

**Theme 2: Thai Educational System Management team needs to increase the educational budget and understand the need of the schools and students.** Joe and Mike have similar ideas about how to improve the educational system through improving education management. Joe explained that the government should spend a bigger budget on the education system. Schools should hire more foreign teachers to teach the students to speak English. Does Thailand really need to buy more tanks? Joe asked, under emotional frustration. Mike emphasized the same idea as Joe, that the Thai government should spend more money on the Thai education system. He said that he thought that English teachers should get paid more, and that the Thai government should not spend so much money on the military, along with all the other spending involved as well. Jan said that the Educational Ministry should really look at what the students needed. They need good material, good teachers, good curriculum, and change.

**Theme 3: Thai educational system do not improve much in the last 10 years because the organizational hierarchy in the educational system is from top down.** Joe said that he has seen some changes in the past 12 years. There are now more and more people talking about
improving the Thai education system than 12 years ago, and there are more International schools, so there is something to compare it too. The third thing is the AEC (Association of South East Asian Nations: ASEAN) coming. There is going be more competition, and Thailand has not done well on English tests compared to its neighbors. Mike compared the Thai education system with the US and European systems. Thais should open their minds a bit more and learn from other countries’ education systems, in order to improve their own education system. Rick thinks that English teachers should be allowed to join school management teams, and that changes to the working system should be implemented, such as cutting the amount of paper work. Over 13 years, I have been in Thailand, and unfortunately I haven’t seen many changes to the Thai educational system, Rick said. Jan also has a similar idea to Rick’s, in that schools should let foreign teachers be a part of the school management team.

Jan further commented,

The management team is not listening to what we have said. It’s a shame as well, because I have lived here for more than 15-25 years and could probably offer help to the management of education, he said. The school management doesn’t have the experience in teaching, and teachers never have a chance to speak up.

Theme 4: Thai educational system allows the students to pass and move on to the next level by the end of the year. Therefore the students are losing motivation to study. Three participants agreed that Thailand must eliminate the passing system. The passing system means at the end of the year all the students will pass and go to the next level, or the next grade. Joe said, This passing system is a part of Thai culture; the fact that the education system is passing everyone. The education system isn’t really failing people, so people don’t really have any accountability. Joe also said that in the previous Thai private school he was teaching at, he found
that he couldn’t really fail students. He remarked, he completed the scores for the end of the semester, and then I went to have lunch. When he came back from my break, all my failed grades had been changed. All students were passed.

Mike agreed that every student passing is not the way to do it. Schools focus upon the business side, and they have to make money. Thus, they have to let anyone in, and everyone is supposed to graduate when it graduation time arrives. The students should not think that they are going to pass anyway, no matter what, but because they know they will pass they don’t have to follow what the teacher’s say. Jan supported this idea by saying, Apparently some universities already know that the International programs in schools are causing problems in Universities. The students don’t have enough knowledge to go to study at University, because the schools wouldn’t fail them. They are growing up in a no fail culture in Thailand, which is ridiculous.

*Theme 5: Thai culture do not accept the creativities from NSTs in order to improve the curriculums or any change in educational system.* Thai schools are very conservative, and not allowed to be open to new ideas about teaching. Rick said. The students need to be interested, and then they can learn English better. However, the Thai culture permits only the management team or the principal of design to modify the curriculum. Rick further added, This is one problem with the Thai educational system, because it doesn’t support creativity. They act with resistance, but I think if they could encourage creativity it would be better, Rick said.

Mike supports Rick’s idea that Thai culture is not allowing creativity. Thai people are too concerned about losing face situations. For example, at his previous university, he knew that the students were not up to the level of the American textbook. He thus tried to convince the president to change it, but it didn’t work. Students basically didn’t get anything from that textbook because the university didn’t accept that its students were not up to standard. He said, I
think Thai culture in general, Thai people, must face the truth that the losing face concept is holding Thailand’s educational system back.

Jan commented on Thai culture, in that Thai people must forget the concept of losing face. Parents need to know the truth about their children, and schools must accept that their curriculums are not good enough. He said, We can’t keep everybody happy.

**Sub-Topic #2 Teaching Experience of ESLs.**

*Theme 1: The institutions are expecting NSTs to do well in both teaching ESLs and serving institutions management team.* Mike said that he was previously teaching English at a Business School in Bangkok. The administration, presidents and team of this institution were really nice to him. However, the school was managed as a ‘moneymaking’ institution. It seemed like running a business organization and not an educational institution. It was a vocational school, so the students were not serious at all. Vocational schools in Thailand have this kind of reputation, so the students he taught really behaved like that. After he resigned from that vocational school, he started teaching at a private university in Bangkok, where there was an English Language Centre. The NSTs had to teach alongside Thai teachers, and Mike thinks that the Thai teachers were not good enough to teach students English conversation. However, the university still wanted students to learn with both Thai teachers and NSTs. The current teaching institution Mike is working at is the public school language centre of one of the top 5 universities in Thailand. He said that this university allows the language centre to be independent and managed completely by NSTs. He believes that this is a very good practice in terms of the expectations he can deliver to the institution.
Rick said that The schools expected you to get all the paper work done. They do not care whether you are not creative in your class. At the end of the schools year, I have submit a lot of documentations to the management team. I have so little time to work on my teaching material.

Jan said, The school was creating different tasks, which were not really related to the teaching of NSTs, and it demanded things got done when not even considering the NSTs’ teaching schedules.

**Theme 2: Thai schools do not have a classroom environment, which expected from NSTs. In Thailand, the students need the air conditioning as a must in the classroom according to the temperature.** According to Joe’s experience, he had computer classes for students, and the classrooms had not been installed with any useful programs for studying English. In the classroom setting all students were facing the computer, and when the teacher walked behind students he could merely see students playing games. Joe said that the language centre that he is currently teaching in provides air conditioning, which is of great benefit. In his previous job the school didn’t provide air conditioning. He also suggested that the classrooms should be set up for students to work in groups, because English language learning needs the students to participate with each other.

Jan indicated that in his school the students have to study in a room temperature of around 35 degrees every day. The teacher has to open the window to obtain wind flow, but there are loud noises coming from every direction. Thus, it is distracting and difficult to concentrate, and to get students to focus upon language learning; especially when there are more than 30 students in the classroom.

Rick has experience in teaching at one of the top 3 universities of Thailand, and he felt like the institution was well prepared to welcome NSTs. This university had a resource room for
teachers to create their own materials, and it also had class observations once per month, in order to evaluate the classroom. He also taught at a public school before this, and said that the classroom environment was not good for the students. There was no air conditioning (the average temperature is 35 degrees in Thailand). There was a dog that could actually enter the classroom on the 3rd floor, to study with the students, Rick said. He then went to teach at several schools before he found out that the Thai schooling system wasn’t an environment he wanted to be in. Thus, he opened his own private teaching school.

**Theme 3: NSTs had indicated their teaching experience to ESLs in different countries.**

*ESLs from other countries were tended to be more serious in learning English more than Thai students.* Joe had previous experience of teaching English to Japanese, Koreans, Burmese, Indonesians and Mexican students. In his opinion, all ESL students are very much alike. He said that South East Asian students are really nice and polite in the classroom, although the teacher has to encourage Asian students to speak up.

Mike did comment that he did teach a special course in which all the students were Japanese, a total of 15 students per week. He found that the Japanese students really concentrated and were very serious. He assigned a 5 minute presentation about their experience in Thailand, and said all the students were amazingly good. He was really impressed with them, and he didn’t think that Thai students could do the same. He also taught Korean students, and he believes that other nationalities, or non-Thai students, can learn English faster when they learn in Thailand. ESLs will not speak the local language; they will only speak English with Thai students, and therefore the students can practice every day. However, he prefers teaching Thai students because they are more fun to teach.
Rick had previous experience of teaching Japanese and Chinese students, and believes they are much more focused than Thai students. There are some similarities in culture, such as they must all meet the expectations of their families. However, his opinion was that Japanese and Chinese students take education more seriously, and value education more.

Jan had previously taught half-Thai/half-Western students, and he found that most of these students had already learned English from their parents, and thus they were able to pick up knowledge faster than Thai students. They tended to have more freedom and were able to be more creative. In his opinion, these two different kinds of student should be separated into two classrooms. He said that in his schools there were two different programs. He taught English in the Thai program and taught a separate English program. In the Thai program, the students would learn all subjects in Thai, and in the English program students would learn all subjects in English, except for Thai of course. He could clearly see that students in the English program were able to show their ability and were not afraid to express their opinions. They showed no fear about throwing out answers and were not afraid to ask questions of their teachers. However, this was not happening in the Thai program. He thinks that an English program can teach Thai students more than simple subjects, because it provides Western culture to the students. The students learn to think for themselves and freely ask questions.

Theme 4: Thai students in general are very polite. NSTs have to encourage them to participate and having fun in the classroom. Joe said that Thai students are generally polite and well mannered, but not very engaged. They are less likely to challenge teachers when compared against Western students. Teachers really have to encourage Thai students to challenge them.
Jan said it’s difficult to define Thai students in general terms. There are some students (not many) that are excellent; they are intensive and want to join in, try hard, participate, and have fun during the class. Unfortunately, most Thai students are not like that.

Mike’s opinion was that Thai students generally like to have fun, and don’t take things too seriously. In Thai schools, the students don’t try very hard to learn English. However, in Thai international schools the students very much want to be able to communicate in English. In Thai schools or Thai universities, where English has only 3 credits per semester, Thai students have no interest in English at all. NSTs are not able to give them the homework because they don’t care, and they don’t follow instructions very well. They also don’t read the instructions, and Thai students do not pay attention to detail. He tried so hard to write very clear instructions; however, Thai students would say, Oh! I didn’t know that or I didn’t see it. In contrast, in his current program the students have really good motivation, because they want to finish the language center course and move up to ‘International University’ level.

**Theme 5: Students in different ages, different group number, and different level are required different teaching materials and different teaching technic.** Rick said that, as a private English teacher, he had been teaching different groups of students, such as little kids who wanted to have fun, teenagers who wanted challenges, and 60 year old women who just wanted to speak English. When teaching conversation classes he was very upset with the topic, and would try to communicate with students by correcting them when they were wrong. It was very difficult for him, as the students couldn’t really speak English at all, yet wanted to learn conversation.

Joe said he had taught a housewife, businessmen, kids and teenagers, and he said when teaching kids he could have fun with them, but not so with adult students.
He commented,

It’s better with kids because they’re having fun. It’s natural to use toys or similar items with kids, but when I need to use such with adults it’s kind of like they hold up a plastic banana in classroom at 30 years old - so it’s kind of a joke, right? But with kids it’s kind of ‘Ahh!’ You know it’s natural.

For adult students the teacher has to prepare more materials, in order to fill in periods of time in the classroom. The teenagers are in a good group for studying English, although they are very busy and have a lot of hormones. They want to adjust and adapt, and they do not have time to focus upon learning. In contrast, the kids are innocent, interesting, cute, and make for fun in the classroom. This is the favorite group of Thai students that he likes.

Jan also had previous experience of teaching 60 students in one class, who were around 14-15 years old. He said that he never had fun teaching a class this large. The schools’ system made him only see his students once a week, so he didn’t really get to know the students. He resigned from that school after one year, because he prefers 5-6 years old students. He feels it is more rewarding to teach them because the younger aged students are full of surprises and happiness. Most Thai students are not international, so their language skills are not yet up to the level whereby they can have a conversation with others. There are some students who really pay attention in the classroom because they know that they are really good in English, and there are some who do not really care about English because they know that they are not going to get anything other than a ‘grade C’. Jan believes that schools should separate students into categories. Being mixed up in groups, they will lose confidence in him, and simply give up in the class. Many students might not be good at English, yet they might have other abilities which they are really good at, such as math, so just put them in the same math group. When the math group
comes to learn English the students are most likely at the same level, so then the teacher can go slowly and have fun with them. Alternatively, put the good kids in one class of the same ability, and then have a second class. They’re still good, but not quite as good as the top class. If this were to be done more then the good kids and the teachers could push them further and beyond where they would have been, and another group of kids can just go slower at their own level. In this way, the second group can still enjoy the class rather than think that they will never have a chance to be good and so why bother.

Rick doesn’t have a favorite age group of students. He likes teaching 3.5-4 year olds because they are excited and interested in everything, and 7-8 year olds because they are becoming really competitive and all games catch their attention. Teenagers are probably the most challenging. They have a lot of creativeness and imagination. If you can get them to use their creativity and imagination then they really enjoy lessons. He also enjoys teaching adults because they want to learn to benefit themselves; they are very focused.

Theme 6: Thai schools organizational culture needs to improve by having two ways communication. The organizational culture of Thai educational system are not allowed NSTs to use their creativities in teaching ESLs: Mike said that each school has a different organizational culture. In his current school he has a Western director who understands NSTs very well. There are more than 20 NSTs who can work as a team. He also has to work as the administrator of his program, but Mike prefers more to be an active English teacher. However, the English program is still under the Thai committee of the university, so NSTs must learn how to do things slowly and not push the Thai administrators in order to gain things. The Thai school organizational culture is really nice and not too serious, according to Mike.
Rick provided an example of when he proposed a ‘special program’ to the management team at his school. His idea was to promote the lunch break as a reading break. Therefore, he coordinated with a few NSTs to provide their free-time for the students. He was able to get a few NSTs and quite a number of students to agree to join this program. It simply needed management team approval. However, they didn’t approve of his idea and he had no idea why. He said that, I took all of my breaks to offer kids meetings and to teach them to read for free, because I enjoy it. However, admin blocked this project. Are you going to fight me on that? You’re going to make it difficult. It’s so clear it’s beneficial for all parties involved. It’s only going to take maybe 15-20 minutes to read a story to them.

He further explained that when NSTs try to provide creative ideas, it’s almost like a battle with the management team. The schools do not like to spend money on teaching materials, and do not like to pay anything extra to NSTs. Therefore, if teachers want to do it then they have to do it providing their own time and money. NSTs must strictly follow the organizational culture. If they do create noises they will not be able to renew their contract the following year. NSTs have to also be nice to Thai teachers, because they will report you as a good teacher and will evaluate you with good scores. It is all about the relationship with the management team and Thai teachers.

Joe said that in his organization, the Thai management office has a different perspective from NSTs, including: decision-making, priorities, and the efficiency of the system. Decisions must come from top to bottom only, and the top is not really open to suggestions. However, if an NST suggests something to the management team which leads to the Thai administration having less work then they would be more than happy about it. If a NST suggests an idea which is obviously good for the students, but will create more work for the administration officers, then
they will never accept that idea and maintain that they are too busy to change anything. The curriculum is one thing that takes a year or a few years to change and the NSTs have very little involvement in that part.

Jan’s opinion concerned feedback from the bottom to the top, especially pertaining to NSTs who never really received much response. However, since he started working as a NST he feels like the schools are more acceptant of NST to work, especially now. However, he doesn’t really like to be a coordinator between NSTs and the Thai management team, although he does actually understand both sides and what they want. Furthermore, he does not want be on both sides. He comments that,

The hierarchy in Thailand is going down, and doesn’t go up. Europeans and Americans think this is like 40 or 50 years ago, not modern day. There is no reason why we can’t use these great ideas and listen to them, and it’s a shame when you see Western teachers and Thai teachers both having great ideas, but certainly not when they are not allowed to use their ideas because of management decisions; even if we see that they would work.

Average working hours of NSTs are less than 5 hours per day or less than 25 hours per week.

Table 3 *Teacher Working Hours*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Working Day</th>
<th>Teaching Hours/ Days</th>
<th>Working Period</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jan</td>
<td>Monday – Friday</td>
<td>4.3 hours</td>
<td>7.30 am – 5.00 pm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joe</td>
<td>Monday – Friday</td>
<td>4.8 hours</td>
<td>7.30 am – 5.00 pm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rick</td>
<td>Monday - Friday</td>
<td>5.8 hours</td>
<td>9.00 am – 5.00 pm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mike</td>
<td>Monday - Friday</td>
<td>4.5 hours</td>
<td>7.30 am – 5.00 pm</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Theme 7: Thai parents blame teachers for their children’s failure.** Rick said that in order to be an English teacher in Thailand the teacher must understand Thai culture to learn how to deal with parents. There are some amounts of marketing to be done, not only teaching. The schools try to sell products to the parents instead of really caring about the students.

Rick said,

The best way of dealing with Thai parents is to point out problems with their kids without saying anything negative about them. You don’t want to be too direct when you are talking about your policy of payment, cancellations, or things which are too important to be direct about. When you are dealing with parents at anytime with regards to teaching their kids, maybe the best way is to ‘errm’ and always smile, be respectful and polite to the kids, and polite when you are talking about their kids. I think that is the style Thai parents expect.

Mike said that it is very common in Thai culture that teachers are the ones who get blamed. It is almost always a teacher’s fault, not the student’s. It needs a good NST who understands Thai culture very well to speak with parents and negotiate with them, especially when their kids have failed at school.

Jan said that times with Thai parents are very difficult. They spend a lot of money for their kids to learn English, so they must ensure that the teachers do a good job, while not look at their kids who are responsible for their level of English.

**Theme 8: NSTs are not commonly associated with Thai English teachers.** Rick said that the English language should not taught by Thai teachers. They only can fill-in blanks and they even spell vocabulary wrong, so how they can teach the students? Thai teachers are not able to speak English well, and so they can’t teach students to speak English. They also never ask for
help. They never bring books to discuss the curriculum or their students, even though both Thai and NSTs are teaching students of the same classes. However, Thai teachers are really nice and always have a positive relationship with NSTs. A lot of foreigners come and bring the attitude I’m from the first world of the developed nations, but Thailand is a developing nation, so I know better because I come from England, or somewhere. When people with such attitudes come to Thai schools, they quickly attempt reorganization, but they get nowhere.

Jan said that he was worried about students who had Thai teachers teaching them English. He commented that,

A lot of Thai people who have graduated overseas and really know how to communicate in English will never become English teachers, because the pay rate is so low. The ones that currently teach English to students don’t even know English that well. Thai students will never improve because they are learning from people who don’t know English.

However as colleagues, Thai teachers are extremely good. They are very friendly and always fun to be around.

Joe said that in his school language centre he does not really associate much with Thai teachers because there are not many of them. However, sometimes there are Thai teachers from the Thai program who may come and ask about teaching materials, or ask about grammar points. Mike had comments to make about Thai teachers who do things differently from NSTs. Whenever Mike had to speak with them he would have to speak more slowly.

**Topic #2: NST’s teaching Motivation**

**Sub-Topic #1 Teacher Motivation.**

*Theme 1: ESLs students are main factor to motivate NSTs.* Joe and Mike agreed that if the students were to pay attention in the classroom it would make him have more fun when
teaching. I dislike unmotivated students, Joe said. He added, That’s never fun. Especially when I have children like we’ve talked about for these two weeks. Why don’t they get it? Why? Maybe because I’m failing as a teacher or I haven’t explained it well enough. Mike admitted that there were some frustrating moments, especially concerning specific grammar details. He doesn’t like to teach things that the students are supposed to know already, such as basic grammar rules.

Rick recalled his first day teaching at a small public school in Nonthaburi. He said, It was the first day for me and a couple of NSTs who arrived at the school at the same time. When we were arrived there were a lot of students surrounding us screaming, Farang Teachers, over and over (‘Farang’ is the word Thai people use to refer to Westerners). They were smiling and looking really happy there. It was the first time I decided that I could live with this English teaching job forever. It would make me happy to live in Thailand and continue teaching.

Theme 2: NSTs’ pay has not changed for over decade although daily living expenses have. Jan said that if you are a teacher at an International school as a NST then you can expect to be paid around 120,000 THB per month, which is considered the salary rate of an upper middle-class Thai citizen. However, such schools have head offices in the UK, Canada or the US, and they will therefore employ teachers from the head office and send NSTs to a branch in Thailand. There is little chance for teachers here to gain employment in such, and so the normal rate of NSTs here is around 25,000 – 70,000 THB. If the teachers are non-native speakers of English, such as Filipino teachers, they will get paid around 16,000 – 18,000 THB. In the business world, employees must earn at least 50,000 THB in order to get a visa and work permit. However, in the education world a teacher can get around 15,000 THB and the government will still issue a work permit to the school for those teachers. The salary of English teachers was set when the Educational Ministry (MOE) set its policies. However, Jan thinks that what he earns
now is not a lot compared to what he could make in the UK, but the money here can buy more
comforts because the living costs here are a lot lower. This is a reason why he remains here.
Furthermore, experiences of teaching in Thailand will never count towards getting a better salary. For example, a NST may have been a teacher in one school for more than 10 years when they decide to change jobs. They will have to start with a new salary from the bottom up again. Two people can work in one school, and one can have 10 years experience and the other may have just landed in Thailand, yet they both will receive the same salary. Maybe the education system should require some teacher testing in order to ensure that the teachers can really teach, before letting schools employ unqualified teachers to teach Thai students.

Joe’s salary started at between 400 and 500 THB an hour. He thinks that he gets paid very well to be English teacher in Thailand. However, he said that in general NSTs are still getting really low pay for teaching classes. Since he arrived in Thailand, he has seen teachers get paid around 30,000 THB per month, and he is still seeing the same rate today; it didn’t go up or down. However, teachers who are teaching at International schools get paid really well compared with teachers who are looking for a job in Thailand themselves. His school pays teachers on a commission system, wherein 75% of the salary comes from teaching hours and 25% comes from a fixed rate. However, teachers do think about money, so they will not only focus upon making money from teaching classes alone. They will have to prepare teaching materials or lesson plans, even though they will not get paid for doing that. He thinks that this system is a mistake. Teachers should get paid a fixed salary, and the system should be able to divide teaching hours between each teacher equally. This would help keep any NST motivated to always want to be a better teacher and not merely a simple worker.
Mike said that when he first started his teaching job the basic salary was 25,000 THB, and that he can’t see any difference nowadays. All NSTs who come to Thailand still get paid around 25,000 -30,000 THB.

Rick said that ten years ago English teachers in Thailand got paid around 35,000 per month, which is considered very good pay if you compare this against Thai teachers, because they get paid only around 15,000 THB per month. Street food used to cost only 20 THB, a movie ticket was 80 THB, and a bus to Koh Samed (a beach in Thailand) was 126 THB. Today, English teachers get paid the same, even though the living costs in Thailand have gone up more than 35%. However, Rick still thinks that NSTs receive good money for living in Thailand. He said, If you are a foreigner in Thailand you will be paid well as a foreign teacher when compared against many Thai jobs, especially that of a Thai teacher. You are not paid well compared to foreign businessmen or lawyers, but you earn enough to be comfortable. He also supports his idea by saying that it is convenient, easy, and comfortable being a NST teacher in Thailand, because your salary affords you enough money to live comfortably.

**Theme 3: NSTs enjoy teaching ESLs in Thailand and state that they love their career.**

Rick declares his secret of success as a private teacher in that he always prepares a lesson whenever he has time. He always thinks about what will be interesting for the students; he thinks about new topics which can ensure that the students have fun. He said that fun topics draw the attention of students from the very beginning of the class and this immediately gets them in to the lesson, such that (even in grammar writing) the students do not get bored. He created different activities and teaching materials because this is his school.

Rick went on to say,
Teaching English to the students is my motivation. Being a teacher is just a great job. Most of the time I can’t believe I get paid for this; I read a story to kids, play games, and you know it’s great, and then sometimes it’s like ‘Oh my God! It’s an hour just over’. However, sometimes the students are naughty, not responsive, or have ‘octopus hands’. He didn’t enjoy much of the time with those classes. Teaching fairness can be quite repressive; there are so many times that he had to teach A, B and C (pronunciation), that he probably did this a thousand times. That can be repetitive, Rick said.

Joe said that his motivation for being a teacher is that he enjoys communicating and interacting with people. So when the students can communicate better they will interact more in a way he likes; The more English they know then the more details they can talk about. I like giving knowledge in general. I always wanted to be a teacher. It’s always been the top of my career list, because it’s great fun and devotional, Joe added.

Jan said that generally he enjoys teaching Thai students. Moreover, he enjoys teaching children and seeing them become successful year after year. Teachers try their best to keep the children moving, and this is a job that at least Jan can do without any help from the Ministry of Education. He believes that as a small English teacher he can make a difference because he loves what he is doing.

Sub-Topic #2 Career Path

Theme 1: There are not many career choices for native speakers in Thailand. Joe said that if he was not an English teacher he would still be a teacher. He is more of the social sciences departments, and thus he more likes liberal, historical, literal and/or sociological subjects. His dream was to be able to travel while maintaining his job, and he never gave up his dream. Now,
being English teacher in Thailand provides him with what he wanted. So this is what his career choice became.

Jan said that when a foreigner comes to Thailand there are not so many career choices to choose from. There’s less choice. I didn’t really think that there would be any option at that time, other than becoming an English teacher. I didn’t know about options and now I don’t even think about it, Jan said. There are a few things that foreigners can do, such as becoming a businessman, although there appear to be only two types of ‘expat’: 1) the ones that come here and make an attempt to teach because they want to stay and enjoy it, and 2) the ones who get sent by a company and earn lots of money. Jan is in the former group, and thinks that he didn’t have other options. Teaching is a way to earn money without investing in a bar or restaurant.

Rick: While Rick is a private teacher he also invests and trades in the stock market. At certain times he can earn more money than teaching English, but teaching is something that he likes. Even if he didn’t really need income from teaching, he would still go to teach. This is something that he enjoys and he really likes doing. He could see himself teaching forever.

**Theme 2: The highest career path of NSTs is the director of English institutional canter in the schools or college.** Mike said that as an English teacher at a university language centre a NST could only become a professor if they had a PhD or a certain number of publications. He was able to join the management team and is the program director at the moment, despite him starting as a ‘mere’ teacher. Therefore, every NST in this organization has a chance, in that other than becoming a program director a NST is also able to become a coordinator. However, no matter how hard any NST tries they will always be English teachers, because it is believe they are not able to teach other subject to students.
Jan said that he only teaches in Thailand, and has no other career. He said that as far as a NST can get into a Thai school as an English coordinator, not even as the Head of an English Department, he can still see himself in the same position in 10 years time.

Jan stated,

Unfortunately, the career path in Thailand as a foreign teacher is not great. You can teach and you might be able to get some school offers. You coordinate, but not many teachers can be a coordinator. Thai teachers are running everything, and they don’t necessarily want NSTs.

Therefore, if a NST wants more money, then they will have to resign from their old school and start from the bottom of the organizational chart in a new school. Thai schools do not pay for or appreciate the experiences that NSTs have. They only look at their salary rates and offers, so in effect they never really look at the candidates.

Rick’s experiences explained that he was a teacher in a Thai school for over 7 years, and in the first 3 to 4 years he grew as a teacher in classroom management, dealing with students. He didn’t like the point of not being able to grow anymore as a teacher, and so he left the school and started offering more work to an ESL language school. He likes it this way more because he could develop his own teaching style, his own curriculum, self-study on phonics, and phonemic teaching techniques for all students. Rick is really happy that he shifted his own career path to become a private English teacher. If he was still teaching at a school he thinks that he would not have developed himself this much, because of the fact that; we will not grow any better in our careers, he said. He is probably still at the sleeping stage in personal development, as are many other NSTs. He also said that he never heard of any foreign teachers gaining any higher position than that of coordinator of English programs. Maybe they have better chances at International
schools where maybe they can become a principal or something similar, but in a Thai school that is something they are simply not going to get.

Joe said that in his current language center he has the best career path because he could become the Head of the Language Center. However, in order to move any further, a NST must be able to communicate in Thai purely because all the management team is Thai. In Joe’s program a NST can make minor changes to the curriculum, and at his language center NSTs are technically a trainee division of the university. They are under the university but they are in a separate trainee division; they are not an academic division. They are somewhat independent, and as far as the curriculum the university gives them; There is a large area of independence, which is very nice, Joe said. Definitely not are NSTs allowed to change the major curriculum. However, all NSTs in his program are happy, in that what they get is a lot more than any other Thai school could provide.

**Theme 3: Participants decided to live in Thailand before becoming English teachers.**
Jan said that before he came to Thailand he was living in England while studying his degree, and he used to work as a chef in pubs or restaurants during term time. After he graduated from university there were a few directions to take concerning what he wanted to do. Therefore, he chose to come to Thailand where there were a few options to work as an expat, such as opening a bar or becoming a chef or an English teacher. Jan never thought about what he really liked, but he knew that he didn’t like the idea of becoming a bar manager; plus, being a chef in Thailand needed certification which he didn’t have. Thus, he found a friend of a friend who knew some Thai friends, and they knew somebody who was teaching. He got in touch with him and in turn that guy put him in touch with an agency. Jan was thus sent for an interview and he got the job and signed a contract with that agency, for a year.
It was Rick’s ex-girlfriend who inspired him. She was completing a TOEFL course and he was interested in staying in Thailand for longer. He went on to say,

First, it was kind of just an opportunity, like; ‘Oh! This is a job that I can do. Let me see if I like it.’ After doing that, I was getting around with all the feedback from people who I had taught and I myself was enjoying it. I had the feeling that a teaching job was the right job for me.

Rick started studying for his TOEFL certificate, and that was the point where he had decided that he would be a teacher in Thailand. He felt like a teaching job would be very good for him. If he were back in the US he might have discovered his love for teaching and might have become a teacher in the United States, if it were possible. Rick got his job through an agency in Thailand however.

Meanwhile, Joe was completing human rights democracy research when he first arrived in Thailand. He was travelling around in Chang Mai, Mae Sord, up and down the border quite a bit, and then the rest of the time in Bangkok. He commented, I met with a lot of academics, journalists, and activists, because of my research job. Joe always had a kind of plan to become a teacher, but to teach the subject that he had more of passion for would mean that he had to stay in his country. In the first place, his friend had taught years ago at a language school, and so he got in contact with her and he got a job at that language centre. He started with just a few classes, and he found that the students really enjoyed his teaching style. Thus, he also fell in love with this job as well and, for him, it was an advantage because he had been in Thailand for a year before getting that teaching job. So within that time he had founded connections with a good language school and thus the career he wanted.
Mike used to live in Los Angeles and worked in the music industry, concerning music management and music artist management. He was the manager of bands and music artists. He was also a waiter or server at a Hard Rock Café and he was a D-Jay. However, he was never able to use his degree because he kindly offered do different things and have fun, but never on a serious note. Then he decided to move to Thailand, and he thought it was time to get a real job. Mike said that before he came to Thailand he already knew what he was going to do. So when he arrived in Thailand, he had a friend who already taught at a Business Administration College. It was not a good school, but it was something he started and he worked there for 3 months, after which he got a new job at a private university. Mike thinks it was more difficult than now to get a job as an English teacher, and for a few of reasons: there weren’t as many candidates, there weren’t many people looking, and also qualifications seemed to be less important at that time, much less not now.

**Topic #3: Cultural Differences and Impacts upon Pedagogy**

**Sub-Topic #1 Thai Culture & Cultural Differences.**

*Theme 1: All participants agreed that Thai culture is very different from Western culture in many ways.* Joe indicates that Western culture focuses upon individual work rather than group work. He thinks that Western culture goes a bit too far with the individual reality thing because there are a lot of people. Thai culture is more oriented and consensus based. Joe likes Thai food, which is a part of Thai culture and full of flavors. There are lots of other things he likes about Thailand, namely in that: he likes the peace, Thai people are really nice, friendly, funny, and have a good sense of humor, and are very helpful people. They are also not willing to disagree with people from higher status, which is a big problem, especially for teachers like Joe.
because the American people always have opinions about things. In this case, to stay in this country, he can’t really display such.

Mike said that one thing which is very different between Thai culture and Western culture is that Thai people have pride, and they don’t want to admit that they are wrong. They don’t want to ‘lose face’, as it is termed. When he lived in Los Angeles there were many Thai people who lived there, and there were also Thai temples near to where he lived in the San Fernando Valley. He would go there at weekends to eat Thai food, and found that he really had an affinity to Thailand and always wanted to live here.

Jan said that there are very different cultural backgrounds, and that British culture tends to be a bit more legitimate. For example, if you say at ten o’clock then it happens dead on ‘ten o’clock’. In Thailand, if you say ten o’clock then maybe by about one o’clock it might happen. Jan felt like the voice from the bottom of the organization would never be received by the management team, which is really common in Thailand but not in his own country. Jan also said that Thai kids are very shy compared to Western kids. They are likely to stick with their parents, despite the fact that Jan said that he has been living here for quite some time. He does understand Thai culture very well and that, in general, Thai people tend to be friendly, open, relaxed, and enjoy their lifestyles. In Thai culture Thai workers do not complain about their work, and they will do whatever their boss asks them to do.

Rick said that Thai culture is really about simply accepting things, and it is better than Western culture. For example, if you are in the line to pay for something; in Thai culture people will just stay quiet and accept that they will be in line for a little bit longer. If this situation happened in the US people would start pounding and say something like, Get some more checkouts open, or, Who’s running this place? or, Who is the manager here? This is an example
of a very clear difference between the social differences between Thailand and the US, and Rick thinks that the Thai culture suits his character better as a result.

**Theme 2: All NSTs can speak at least basic Thai, and they do so for daily living purposes.** Joe said that he could speak Thai because he has been learning the Thai language for 5 years. He didn’t have any classes, but was leaning from his notebooks and from a dictionary. Mike said that he could speak ‘taxi Thai’, and so he can speak well enough to get around in a taxi. He can order food in a restaurant and can speak at ‘Starbuck’s’, and he can have short conversations but can’t really speak with Thai people at a level of reasonable discussion. In his work place there is a Thai class which teachers can join, but he didn’t think it really necessary to learn Thai in order to live in this country.

Jan said he could really speak ‘appropriate’ Thai; he is able to enter in-depth discussions with Thai people. However he can’t read Thai, and sometimes he wishes that he could read and write as well, in order to understand what the students are going through when they learn English. Jan said, The best way to learn Thai is probably just to pick it up from listening to students, especially little students. If they are only 4-5 years old then they say the same things every day. You start to pick it up and then talk to the Thai teachers. In Jan’s opinion the Thai language is very difficult to learn. Thai language has tones, wherein each tone used in similar words have different meanings, and it is difficult for foreigners to learn to change the way they listen.

Rick’s level of Thai is amazing. He lives in Thailand and loves to participate with Thai people. Rick took a one-month course at a school and realized that he would be better off just learning by himself. He has as a passion for learning Thai and using really official and formal language. He would like to be able to read newspapers and write essays in Thai, so much so that he wishes to have a level of Thai equivalent to native Thai speakers.
Theme 3: Thai Culture can be described as a closed culture because the country has never been colonized. Mike said that Thailand has never been colonized, something which Thai people are really proud of. A little too proud of, he said, as they will never ask for help. They can’t lose face by asking for help, but stick with saving face by doing the wrong thing, and they think that they are okay with that. It makes Thai culture quite a closed culture which has affected English language skills. He thinks that Thailand is second to last in Southeast Asia with regards to English usage. Thai culture that the foreigner experiences in their country, experiences while traveling and experiences while living in Thailand are all very different, he noted. He thinks that Thai people do not really care about learning English or have not in the past until now. Mike also thinks that Thai people are very friendly, fun, and smile a lot. Thailand is famous for its smiles and people like to have fun. Foreigners shouldn’t take things too seriously or move too fast with Thai people. They are kind of a bit slow and a little lazy, he thinks.

Rick said that Thai culture suits him better in many ways. It is great to combine comfortable living in Thailand with the convenience, but there are core differences however. Thai people interact and behave in the society. Therefore, Thailand is less aggressive, less hustled, and less open to violence. In addition is the saying Mai Pen Rai (the expression of Thai people when they let thing go, for which the meaning is; It is ok, and never mind). Thai culture is therefore based upon the simple acceptance of things, which Rick believes is better than Western culture. Thai culture can be expressed as a fun culture, Rick said. He added that, I think that they have the expectation of fun. Thai people have expectations of fun in anything that they do. If it’s not fun, they would just not want to do it.

Jan thinks that Thai culture is a closed culture which is blocking the progress of the educational system. He said that in the work environment Thais do not accept new ideas,
especially if those ideas come from foreigners. Sometimes not accepting from the outside helps to hold things back, and this applies to the learning of languages too. Thailand is on the lowest of the list in the world concerning learning English. Some of that has to do especially with the locality of regions. Thailand has never been colonized, which is great, and Thai people are very proud of that; it’s a way that in a sense stops people from developing. Most countries have been colonized before, and so South East Asia tends to accept ideas from the outside world, and denial of this plays a role in the lack of cultural development that has definitely affected Thailand. Thai parents let their grandparents raise their kinds and so they tend to have similar personalities, which is not good for progressive societies. Thai people are not good planners; they could spend hours working to plan things and then nothing happens, because there is only one-way communication in the organizational chart, and this can be very frustrating. Jan also thinks that Thai culture (collectivistic) involves caring very much about what the family thinks. In Western culture (individualistic) children grow up and have their own life-styles, but in Thailand the parents are quite happy for their children to hang around in the same household. Thais tends to be more family oriented people and are very much dependent upon their parents.

**Theme 4: NSTs haved learned to adopt Thai culture in order for them to teach and live in Thailand.** Mike has lived for over 10 years in Thailand, and has learned to adapt to the culture. He loves Thailand, but observes that there are some things that Thai people do without there being any logic behind it. Everything that happens assimilates in that Thai people always say, This is the Thai way, and foreigners always say TIT (this is Thailand), and this is something Mike got frustrated about because he cares about Thailand and he cares about what the world thinks of Thai people. Mike said that in order to live in Thailand the NST must learn how to let things go, and not try to raise so many questions about things. This is because when Thais raise
too many questions they become trebled, and they can even lose their jobs over such. In addition, they can get out of Thailand. Mike said that in a teaching job it is very hard to make money back in the US, unless the teacher gets a good job at a junior college university; and even then the teachers would not earn much. However, being a teacher in Thailand allows Mike to live well, at the level of upper middle-class, and he can live comfortably on his salary. He has not yet decided whether he is going to live here forever, but he feels that he loves the place. He lives a nice comfortable life which he believes would not be like this if he went back to the US. He has a nice condo and a decent car, and he noted that it is a very good place for a NST to start teaching. Mike likes to travel around Thailand because it’s full of life, full of color, and full of energy; I love scuba diving, and there are many places in Thailand that are so beautiful, he said. He has access to go such places at any time.

Rick has a short opinion about cultural adaptations, in that he has already decided to live in Thailand long-term. Therefore, he thinks that he can adapt to Thai culture better than the US, although he didn’t explain in great detail. He said that it is very easy to get around in Thailand, and that he never needed a car until after 10 years here when he developed his family. It is very easy to get a taxi, and it is very cheap. You can go anywhere, Rick said. If he were a single guy he would not need a car. He said that back in the US he had to drive from coast to coast, and that he had to spend a good amount of time living and sleeping in his car when traveling or tenting. Rick added that, It’s kind of nice that I have freedom and don’t have to pay for insurance, fill the gas or break down, or whether I have enough to pay the car installments this month. Rick also said that he really enjoys eating Thai food, and that there are a lot of different types of Thai food, he loves fruit, and Thailand has a lot of delicious fruit. He eats fruit basically at every meal of the day. He also loves Thai traditional massage. It is very expensive to get a massage in the United
States, but it’s very cheap in Thailand. Thailand has everything; such as beautiful beaches and many places to go for a holiday, and all of them are cheap. Rick also likes the weather conditions in Thailand and he said, I don’t like snow, cold weather and freezing, or having freezing hands. Thailand has nice hot weather, which maybe too hot sometimes, but I prefer hot better than cold.

Joe said that he feels different because he has a more international perspective, especially concerning his family back home. He likes the Thai culture in which Thais really love to take care of their family, yet Joe thinks that he still likes living in his home country better, although he really likes the way Thai people think about their families. They will always take care of their family. Westerners or Americans always put their old family members in nursing homes and he thinks this is a terrible idea; It’s better that Thai people take care of them at home. This is really a nice culture, he said. Thus, he feels like he would love to adopt the Western culture into Thai ways of life. Joe also said that he loves Thai food; There are so many full flavors, he said.

Jan said that he also feels like he has adopted the Thai culture, and it feels like home to live here. He said when he goes back home he’s sure that people are going to be looking at him and wondering why he does this and that. I will have a different perspective when I go back and live in England again, he said. He first arrived in Thailand when he simply stayed in Kao-San Road because it was very convenient; Being an English teacher allows you to live well, Jan said, adding, If I go back to my country I might be able to earn more in terms of money, but I might not be able to live this well.

**Sub-Topic #2 Teaching Pedagogy in Thai Culture.**

*Theme 1: NSTs do not normally use Thai language to teach Thai students in the classroom, but will use it sometimes to discipline students or explain teaching materials.* Mike said that most of the time Thai students speak Thai. They are supposed to learn only English.
Unfortunately, students, as soon as they leave the classroom they speak Thai 100%, Mike said; the only time that they don’t speak Thai is inside the English classroom. Unlike other national students who come to learn English in Thailand, they always have to speak English with their friends, so they impart information much better. He also indicated that Thai the culture and the Thai language can’t really be separated. If a NST wants to be a good English teacher then they must at least know what Thai students have to face, in terms of learning English, which means the NST must understand Thai culture and some Thai language. Knowing and understanding Thai language can help teachers a lot because teachers can express their feelings to students. Sometimes students think that the class is too boring or they have already learned this, so the teachers could actually move on faster if they knew that the students already knew such.

Furthermore, if the students know that their English teacher can speak Thai then they will no longer speak Thai in the class because they are not sure how much the teacher can understand; this is also a big help. However, Mike never speaks Thai in the class. Sometimes he may say a couple of words just to make the students laugh, which help them lower their stress levels, but the structure of the curriculum does not allow NSTs to speak Thai with students.

Rick only speaks Thai when he really needs to in class. For example, the students are learning about the story so he might say some words in Thai just to get the key of the story. However, he will speak Thai in the classroom to discipline students. Sometime students are being naughty and so he speaks Thai, such as the Thai teachers would use. If the students think the NST is not friendly then they will not really listen and focus that much. Rick’s level of Thai is outstanding; he can talk about most topics and function very well when discussing politics, life-styles, or business. However, he cannot discuss some specific topics, such as science. He is confident that his Thai language skills help to him to be a good English teacher. He can also help
students in terms of pronunciation because he knows how difficult it is for Thai students to pronounce certain words, and because he speaks Thai thus he can explain to parents about their kids learning situations. As a private teacher, he needs to ensure to make parents understand what they are paying for.

Joe thinks that knowing the Thai language and the Thai culture helps him to teach English to Thai students especially when he teaches kids and he tries to explain more about grammar. If he speaks Thai, the students will be able to understand better. When he teaches adult students he has to move quickly through the curriculum. So, Thai language is of help in teaching English to Thai students, that’s for sure, Joe said. Moreover, it also helps in terms of discipline, in that students may say something in Thai but they don’t know that the teacher knows the Thai words. Thus, they may speak whatever they want to, such as making fun and being disrespectful and undisciplined. If they know the teacher can speak Thai then they will not say anything rude, and they will respect the English teacher more as a professional teacher;

Sometimes, I teach 19 years old, right? The boys are saying bad words in Thai all the time. Sometimes I’m just like, Hey! Come on guys. You wouldn’t say that in English, so don’t say it in Thai in the classroom, and so they stop, Joe said.

Jan said he really does not speak much Thai to the students because if the students knew that he could speak Thai they would try to speak Thai with him all the time. In Jan’s opinion a teacher speaking Thai doesn’t help the students to learn English any better.

**Theme 2: Most of the time NSTs have to provide and create the teaching material themselves without schools support.** Joe said that he likes to use textbooks as a guideline for teaching. However, the textbooks that are used to teach Thai students are used to teach native speaking students and, therefore, the teacher must adapt the textbook in order to teach Thai
students. For example, native students would know how to use traditional idioms, but Thai students think of these idioms as new vocabulary. Thus, a teacher must know how to teach ESL in order to learn how to use such words in different situations. The textbooks are written for native speakers or for Westerners learning English. Most English textbooks are written like that. They’re not written for somebody coming from Spain or France for example, nor Thailand, to learn English. Therefore, they are not related to the Thai perspective, Joe said, and he added that, specifically, in writing grammar the book is designed for natives, and so this book would normally be used in high-schools in America. In Thailand, the schools use them to teach students who have a Primary school level of English. It doesn’t work. Joe believes that a NST should be able to suggest creating a textbook which is funded by schools, in order to adapt and be better matched to the various levels of Thai student. In Joe’s language centre, rather than issue textbooks the school has a resource room in which there are many textbooks and materials available for teaching; English teachers can use anything there. However, most teachers search for teaching material from the Internet because they are free and offer free videos and free worksheets. All of the students are required to have a notebook computer in the classroom so that in every class everyone can access the Internet.

Jan said that in his experience he used to teach at a school in which classrooms had half a whiteboard and half a blackboard. If he had a white board marker he would stand on the blackboard side so the other side of the class didn’t feel like they didn’t get attention, as they should. Sometimes Thai schools don’t really know what they are doing, Jan said. Jan did teach in kindergarten before, and he shared his experiences in that there was never even a single toy in the classroom; the kindergarten hung toys on the ceiling purely for decoration. He thinks that the people who needed them were the students and not the ceiling. He also used to teach in a high
school where there was a lab room. However, the equipment didn’t really work. If the schools are giving something to play with then at least they should ensure that it works. There were more problems as well, because one class had more than 40 students and the equipment had only 26 sets. The students had to switch equipment to learn and so the lessons went two times as slowly. Jan said that he wished that schools had better resources, such as interactive whiteboards or media. Jan also said that in some government schools they didn’t have textbooks for students because they bought them but didn’t have any copies of the teacher books. The teachers had to borrow from the library or use second hand textbooks. Jan said that in his current school there are many teaching materials which suit the students, enabling him to offer better English programs. One thinks he should have learned after 14 years in Thailand, but NSTs do not dare provide any opinion about how schools should spend money on such necessities. If they do offer such an opinion then they are considered troublemakers, and after the next term or semester they will be ‘gone’. Thus, he would create teaching materials for students himself, including: photos, books, flashcards, or videos from the Internet. Thai students love to have fun, and if NSTs can entertain them then they will be able to understand the better contents of English as opposed to simply reading textbooks all the time. Jan likes to create his own textbooks and he doesn’t mind, because at the end of the day those materials belong to him and he paid for them. Thus, every term Jan would go to the study equipment centre shop (‘Suksapan Shop’) and spend around 5,000 THB just for him to create appropriate teaching material for his students. He said that Thai teachers have to do the same as him and they are not earning a lot of money.

Mike said that the textbooks he uses in his school are American textbooks used for basic conversation, and which cover all 4 skills: listening, speaking, writing and reading, yet they are mostly used for listening and speaking. He could remember when he started at this institution in
2007; there were no computers in the classroom. All NSTs had just an old style projector with plastic slides. It was a very interesting experience, but he felt the need to buy a computer himself, in order to ensure that students had a good classroom experience, and that they actually learned something from his classes. Mike thinks that good teaching materials are really important for developing Thai students’ English skills, and he never understands why Thai schools don’t really care about these matters.

Rick got his teaching job though an agency in Thailand. The agency provided him with inflatable bags, balls and additional materials, such as cartoon animals or items with which he could complete exciting activities with his students. This kept the classrooms alive, and the students would surprise him with what they could do to have fun. However, his school only provided a textbook which he had to return the school at the end of the term and, during this process, he made a copy of that exact textbook so he could write things down. Rick said that the textbook didn’t really teach anything much to his students, so he made cards and additional teaching material to encourage his students. He created games with those cards and a lot of different games that students could play. For example, students in the elementary level had two different cards; they would just mix up the words and try to create sentences. These helped with adding to both fun in activities and the creativity of the students. These games could be played at any age level of classroom.

Theme 3: NSTs indirectly teach students about Western culture while teaching English: Mike thinks it is important for the students to know about Western culture in order for them to learn English well. For example, in Thai culture people simply greet without asking anything about the other, but in Western culture people shake hands and say, How are you? If
students learn English comprising Western culture then they would not just remember the wording but they also would be able to understand and adapt sentences to different situations.

Joe: Joe thinks it is not necessary that NSTs should teach Western culture in the classroom to Thai students. However, he also does teach students in an indirect way. For example, when he is correcting a student in their writing or speaking; he would say, Well, you should use that word in this case, because of Western culture. Additionally, there were times he could not teach a particular subject when not teaching about Western culture. He also said that one of the benefits that students get from NSTs teaching English is that they are able to learn about Western culture from people who live such a culture.

Rick thinks that Asian students can relate to the English language in a Western culture automatically. Rick also recognizes the need to learn about Thai culture and the Thai language, in order to teach his students well. After learning the Thai language and getting to know Thai culture, Rick is able to relate to Thai people, Thai students especially. He teaches Western culture to the students in an indirect way, and he promotes Western culture indirectly into every class. Rick thinks that Western culture helps his students in terms of creativity and positive thinking. He commented, I used to teach at a Thai private school, where the students and I simply laughed, joked, and had fun. I taught them not to be scared of their teacher. The students would come up to me with questions, and talk to me or shake my hand. I simply told the students that I’m just another person, you know? And I just speak a different language and come from a different place. I think that’s very useful to teach kids who don’t have a lot of interaction with foreigners.
Jan said that he didn’t really teach much about Western culture to Thai students. Maybe it is because he taught young children, and they didn’t really understand the cultural differences. If he were to teach secondary children or perhaps having a discussion with university students then things would have been different. He doesn’t think that teaching Western culture is important to Thai students in terms of learning the English language. However, if some students would like to study in another country, Jan thinks it necessary to learn about that country’s culture. He thinks the kids of today have much more access to learn about other countries’ cultures than ever before. They just pick it up from watching TV, renting books, watching movies, and listening to music. Through that they should easily gain Western knowledge. He thinks that Thai children should do that more often because it can help them to learn about areas and cultures outside of Thailand. They will be able to understand what the differences are between their own country and other counties.

Theme 4: NSTs do not think that NSTs can teach English better than NNSTs. However, NSTs’ view their authentic English accent as an advantage to teaching English and is important in Thailand. Joe indicated that he could not say whether Thai students can learn English better with NSTs. It depends upon the quality of teacher. Either a NST or NNST can be better. A very good native speaker understands student the age levels, and therefore an understanding of Thai culture would be very difficult to beat; thus, the Thai teacher could be equally as good.

Mike thinks that maybe at the very low level it might be okay to have Thai teachers instead of NSTs to teach English, because they can explain things in Thai. However, when students get to a certain level, he thinks the NST is better to teach English because it involves
more immersion and they can hear a proper accent. He thinks accents are important. Rick actually said it not necessary that a NST could be better than a NNST, and he went on to say,

I don’t think they are. I think the only reason that you would want a native speaker as a teacher is because Thai people feel secure to learn with native speakers, in that they’re getting general English. Because Thai parents don’t know English they are thus skeptical if someone is not from a native speaking country. They are concerned as to whether or not their kids are going to get a correct accent or going to get correct English.

The standard thus acceptable in Thailand is if the NST is British or American.

Jan commented on NNSTs, such as Filipinos or Indians. He said that they are not native speakers but they learn a lot of English. Generally, some of them are really good. For Jan, English language is about pronunciation and communication. English has different dialogues in different countries. Even in England they speak differently with different accents, some very different from Queen’s English. Staff from: Australia, Canada, South Africa and Malaysia, and even some from Bhutan, are working at his school. Bhutan is such a small country, but the teacher’s level of English is amazing. From Jan’s ideas, Thailand should be accepting more NNSTs as long as they can teach the students to communicate in English because this is the key to learning English. Thai teachers teach the grammar well. However, Thai students graduating from university are no longer able to speak English because they have learned English from Thai teachers. Therefore, having NSTs to teach English is definitely more beneficial to any student.

**Theme 5: NSTs use a lot of classroom activities such as game, card, or computer to keep students motivated.** Rick said that Thai students love to have fun or otherwise they will not be able to remember anything. Even grouped adults still apply the same ability. Rick used to teach PhD students, engineers and businessmen. They were focused and they did not demand to
play games, but he could still see that when the class lacked fun activities the students were ready to jump right in and do anything that was fun. There was no pretense that they were having fun. Fun is a key element in Thai society, and so an importantly needed delivery to Thai students. Moreover, fun and visual activities in the classroom make Thai students memorize better and can also help teachers to adjust the levels of the students. For example, if we have a card game and ask the students to make sentences out of the cards, the teacher would know right away from the spoken sentence what level the students are at; For example, someone in the elementary level may have two cards in front of them with one card displaying the American flag and the other a hamburger. The student might just say that Americans love to eat hamburgers, or another student might say hamburgers and french-fries are an American’s favorite food. Somehow, you have a sense of which students are doing better Rick said. He added that, Korean or Japanese students are too serious; unlike Thai students. Rick has an idea about teacher improvement. The students who were in funny and silly classes gained more than the students who were in seriously focused classes. It is just because some people love to do something that they’re are interested in, and find entertaining, he said.

Joe said that he would normally start chit-chatting with students. He said,

I’m kind of getting organized and getting to set-up little things, be they just friendly chat or whatever. So that already sets the tone a little bit. If someone is doing something, which they are not supposed to be doing, like they all have a computer and sometimes kids will play VDO games in the classroom, which they are not supposed to, then sometimes I just need their immediate attention. I just say, ‘everyone type on your document right now,’ and I walk quickly so I can see them close their window game and open the window of documents.
Multimedia can thus help to get students’ attention, in order to understand comparing what the teacher is talking about.

Jan said that as a foreigner teacher he never punishes students. We just play games and have fun, Jan said. He tries to make the students enjoy their classes and be happy to have him as their teacher. Jan also introduced a variation of themes. He had a picture on the white board and then asked the students to draw a picture, which could be associated with the picture on the white board, and then write a story about it.

Jan additionally said,

As English teachers, you have to understand that some children do not want to learn. They just want to enjoy and have fun. The learning process might be a bit slower if you compare it against the serious classes, but teachers can still get all students into groups and, finally, all of them are learning something.

**Summary of Findings**

This research project provided the opportunity for native speaking teachers who teach English to ESL students in Thailand voices’ to be heard. The participants shared their individual and unique journeys and reflections about how to help combine the content of data, from which the researcher could synthesize and report significant findings. By sharing their stories, the study participants helped to connect any ideas that would allow common themes to surface in the data. The findings of this study are authentic and provide insights into the experiences of NSTs, which are considered to be important factors necessary to further develop English language studies, within the scope of the Thai education system.
Chapter V: Discussion of Findings

In the previous chapter, the findings of this study were presented using a thematic approach. Key themes were identified. These key themes included native speaking teacher (NST)’s teaching experiences in the Thai ESL classroom and their motivation for doing so. A further theme was cultural differences between Thai and NST cultures and the impact of these differences on pedagogy used in the classroom. In this chapter, these primary findings are integrated with the previous research into NST teaching experiences, their motivation, and the effect of culture on NST’s teaching of English. The previous research into these topics was presented in Chapter 2 (the Literature Review). This chapter compares the findings of this research to previous studies in order to understand its significance and meaning. This includes reflections on how the findings of this research are similar to the existing study and how they are different, the contribution of this research, and findings of this study compared to what is already known.

The research was based on a specific theoretical framework derived from the literature and theories regarding learning in the classroom. The theoretical framework integrates the theories of social constructivism and social cognitive theory. Social constructivism argues that individual and cultural expectations and perspectives are not fixed, but instead emerge through repeated interactions between individuals and cultures (Lincoln & Guba, 2000). Thus, an individual’s actions and reactions will depend to some extent on the culture in which they live, since it is this experience they draw upon in order to frame and understand social interactions. This leads to the understanding that social interactions are not objective, but are instead subjective and depend on the viewpoint constructed between the interacting individuals. Social constructivism leads to the research philosophy of interpretivism, which holds that knowledge
generation in research results from the culturally defined interpretation of perceptions by both the participant and the researcher (Creswell, 2013). This approach emphasizes the importance of participant views, rather than researcher views, and draws attention to the social formation of views and their complex and potentially contradictory nature (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008). This results in myriad potential views, stemming from different perspectives and experiences (Butin, 2010). Rather than insisting on a single viewpoint, social constructivism and interpretivism enables the researcher to suggest possible viewpoints that may vary with the position of the observer. The social cognitive theory is added to the research because it acknowledges that the experience of learning is itself a social activity, and is influenced by culture, environment, and social interactions (Borg, 2003) Thus, it is ideal for understanding the interaction of teachers and students in a social environment such as a classroom.

This chapter provides a brief review of the basis for the study, including the research questions and background. It then discusses the main themes of the findings from Chapter 4, including NST teaching experiences and motivations and the cultural differences and their impact on pedagogy. The chapter examines the application of the theoretical framework and literature review to the study. Finally, it reviews the limitations of the study and provides recommendations for future research based on the findings.

Context of the Study

The present research focused on the perspectives of NSTs themselves, rather than other perspectives that have been examined in the literature. Using the theoretical basis of social constructivism and social cognition theory, the study examined the perspectives of NSTs on their teaching practices and motivations. It also studied how the teachers viewed the impact of cultural differences between themselves and their Thai students on their pedagogy and teaching practices.
The study interviewed four NSTs currently working in Thailand (Joe, Mike, Jan, and Rick). These teachers were all male, and included three Americans and one Briton. Their levels of experience at English teaching varied, and only one (Rick) has a formal qualification in English language teaching. Most have only taught English in Thailand, with teaching from different levels ranging from primary students to adults. The group includes teachers in public and private schools as well as private tuition and classes. All four are long-time residents of Thailand, although none had a detailed understanding of Thai culture when moving here. In-depth, face-to-face interviews provided the information used for analysis of the research.

This study identified three emergent themes in the interviews. The first theme was NST teaching experiences. This theme included NST perceptions of the Thai educational system, as well as their teaching experiences in the system. The second theme that emerged was NST teaching motivation, including discussion of their motivations and their career path. The third theme that emerged from the findings was the impact of Thai culture on the participants’ teaching practices. This included the NST’s perception of Thai culture and cultural differences from their home culture, as well as teaching pedagogy in Thai culture.

**Review of the Research Questions**

There were three research questions posed for this study (Chapter 1), which were based on the previous research into NST experiences and the researcher’s own observations. Two of these research questions involved the internal cognitions, motivations, and perceptions of the native speaking teacher (NST). The first research question was, What are the experiences of NSTs when teaching English to ESL students in Thailand? The second research question was, What are the motivations for NSTs to teach English? The final research question was slightly different in that it addressed the cultural context. This question was How does the Thai culture of
ESL students impact the pedagogy employed by NSTs, as perceived by NSTs? In keeping with the theoretical framework, these questions were examined using a qualitative, thematic study.

**Discussion of the Key Findings**

The study did show there were some motivational problems among participants, largely related to the lack of career paths for most NSTs. While all participants were positive about their career path, the findings did suggest that in part, becoming an NST was a response to lack of career choice in Thailand. The study also showed that culture had a significant impact on the teaching practices in the classroom. While the participants viewed teaching English as a valuable means of learning and teaching about their respective cultures, they also identified some clear problems with mismatches of cultural expectations and needs.

**NST’s teaching Experiences.** The first topic discussed was NST’s teaching experiences. This included NST’s perceptions of the Thai education system and the NST’s teaching experience to Thai ESL learners.

**The Thai Educational System in NST’s Perspective.** The participants brought up a number of issues and aspects of the Thai educational system. The curriculum was a main focus of these responses.

One of the curriculum issues mentioned was the GED system, which Mike felt did not provide appropriate preparation for university. Even though, it was only Mike had described his personal felling about this issue but the content of GED is very interesting. Thai student who are only 17 years old are not ready to go for university yet. The students need 2 more years to prepare for their undergraduate study. Therefore this system lead the problem of dropout in universities and lack of social skill of students. A related problem was the passing system, where students are promoted from year to year regardless of the quality of their work. This removes the
motivation for students to do the work, since they will be passed anyway. It also means they leave school unprepared for university. There were also administrative problems mentioned. For example, Rick pointed out that teachers have to spend so much time doing paperwork that they do not have time to make up creative or fun exercises or otherwise focus on the curriculum. Schools also care more about physical evidence like marked papers than actual student proficiency.

A main cultural perception was that the Thai schools were conservative and did not allow creativity. Curriculum changes could only be implemented at the top level, and schools were reluctant to adopt new or creative curricula. This can also lead to an inappropriate curriculum being used, such as one that is at too high a level for learners. Mike and Joe attributed this to unwillingness to lose face. The organizational structure of Thai Educational system are the top-below. The Thai institutions are not using two ways communication, which mean they do not listen to the suggestion from NST. Therefore the teaching performances and curriculums are not up to date.

Most participants did not feel the system had improved much. Joe and Mike both felt that the educational system could use better funding. Another potential change was making NSTs part of the school management team. Currently English teachers do not play a role in school management, which impedes improvement of English programs. As the schools do not accept the voices which raise from NST’s perspective. However as Thailand will move to Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN) in year 2015. Thai educational system and Educational ministry are aware of the important of English language teaching and learning. Thai educational system must open mind and learn from other counties for the improvement.
Teaching Experiences of NSTs. The teaching experiences of NSTs varied widely. This is unsurprising given that the participants were teaching in different schools, contexts and levels. Participants reported that although some Thai students were highly motivated and put a lot of effort into learning English, most did not. Since English was not a priority subject and received only three hours a week instruction, it was not considered important by students. Students might be distracted in class, not follow directions, or play video games or other activities on the computer instead of doing their work. While students were very polite, it could be difficult to encourage them to engage and participate in the class. However, students that did become engaged could be highly creative and willing to work. Simply, even though it is a stated curriculum priority, it is clear that teachers have not been provided with enough resources or time to actually promote English proficiency, particularly since as discussed above, students do not use English much outside the classroom.

The respondents also reported difficulties with Thai teachers and administration. Administrators were often reluctant to allow creative activities or curriculum changes, and added unrelated duties to teachers’ workloads. Decisions are made top-down, and usually only implemented if they reduce work for administration. Dealing with parents can also be challenging, since parents assume that if their child is not doing well it is the teacher’s fault. Relationships with Thai colleagues are usually cordial, but participants expressed concerns that they might not be able to teach English and do not seek out help. In this respect, the NSTs may be under-utilized in the classroom.

NST Teaching Motivation. The second topic investigated in this study was NSTs motivation to teach English. This included two themes, including the teacher motivation and career paths.
**Teacher motivations.** The participants mentioned several motivations, although these did not all have the same weight according to the participants. These motivations included appreciation, students, pay rates, and enjoyment of teaching.

- **Students:** Students that are unmotivated did not pay attention or did not know what they were supposed to result in teacher frustration and lack of motivation. In contrast, students that were motivated and willing to learn were a motivator. The NSTs would like to feel appreciated of work related to teaching. They do not like to work on a lot of paper works, which these evaluation systems on unrelated activities and it was demotivating.

- **Pay:** Even though participants mentioned pay as a motivator for work, in fact the pay rates for NSTs remains the same and there are few way to improve the pay. Although teachers in international schools may make much more (up to 120,000 baht/month), most NSTs make around 30,000 baht/month, and NNSTs make even less (about 18,000 baht/month). Participants said this was a comfortable living, but not extravagant. There is also little chance of a raise, with participants reporting that the rate is about the same as a decade ago.

- **Enjoyment of teaching:** Three participants reported they were motivated by the process of teaching itself, including engagement with students, helping them learn, and watching them improve. This becomes teaching inspirations and motivations in term of enjoin teaching. One of the most important motivation as the English teachers is that seeing the success of students and grateful to be a part of it.

It should be stated that the primary reason for teaching for most of the participants in this study is not a love of teaching English (although they mostly do enjoy the job). Thus, it is
reasonable to state that the majority of positive motivations encountered in this research are extrinsic motivations. This study suggests there is more work to be done on teacher motivations and working conditions, which is discussed below.

Career paths

Participants reported that different career paths led them to teaching English in Thailand, but none of the participants started out intending to be an English teacher. While Jan chose English teaching as a way to stay in Thailand that was preferable to other alternatives, Rick started studying for his TOEFL and then decided to stay in Thailand and teach. Joe was considering becoming a teacher, and chose English teaching as a way to stay in the country, while Mike came to Thailand specifically to teach English. Of the four, only Rick has a formal language teaching qualification. While Joe expresses a preference for teaching, Jan and Mike teach as a way to stay in Thailand and in preference to other jobs. Rick has a second job as a stock trader, and does not need to teach, but does so by preference.

Participants expressed some frustration at the lack of career path for NSTs. Mike pointed out that NSTs could move into a few administrative positions, but could not teach anything other than English without further qualifications. Moving up in the administration of Joe’s organization requires Thai proficiency. Jan concurred with this point, noting that higher administration roles were not available. In order to get more money or take on more responsibilities, it is usually necessary to change schools (often starting at the bottom again). Rick changed to private language tuition to overcome this, while others have moved into the management roles available. Thus, in general, it can be stated that there are few management roles available for NSTs, which limits career path progression.
This is one area where the Thai educational system could significantly improve its use of NSTs. By valuing NST competence outside native speaking, it would be possible to make much better use of their skills and provide students with a more effective teaching environment. It would also encourage retention of NSTs, since they would be more motivated and experience less frustration.

**Cultural differences and impact on pedagogy.** There were two themes under this topic, cultural differences and the way these differences impacted the teaching practice.

**Thai culture and cultural differences.** Participants generally appreciated Thai culture, identifying open, consensus-based and friendly attitudes and strong family orientation as some of the most positive aspects. Jan also described Thai children as being shier and more likely to stick close to and defer to their parents than British children. There were a number of negative perceptions about Thai culture generally, including it being closed, unprogressive, and unwilling to seek out help.

**Participants also had different levels of engagement with Thai culture.** While Mike can speak only a little Thai, and Joe and Jan are learning, Rick is proficient in Thai language and is aiming for full fluency. All four participants feel at home in the Thai culture, identifying aspects like food and people as well as life in Bangkok being positive aspects. They also noted that they could live much better in Bangkok than in their home cultures, and expressed a positive attitude toward living in Thailand.

**Impact of cultural differences on pedagogy.** The participants identified a number of impacts of cultural differences on their classroom pedagogy. Since students do not speak English outside the classroom, participants try to minimize their use of Thai in the classroom. They only use Thai for emphasis, definition or getting students’ attention or promoting discipline.
Participants also have to adapt the textbooks and materials they are given, sometimes to an extreme extent. There are also problems with material shortages in classrooms or inappropriate materials (such as material intended for native speakers in high school being used in elementary schools). However, NSTs do not usually remark on this because they might be considered troublemakers. Teachers often created their own materials or bought materials to supplement the standard materials. They also made up activities such as games to supplement learning.

Most teachers did not try to teach Western culture along with English directly, although they did state they sometimes taught Western culture indirectly or that students learned automatically. This is a potential opportunity for improvement in teaching practice, since NSTs can provide knowledge about culture and language use that is not available through NNSTs (Barratt & Kontra, 2000; Bovonsiri et al, 1996; Llurda, 2004). However, it is possible that curriculum constraints, discussed below, do not allow for it.

Fun and social activities were the most important aspect of the classroom. Jan stated he never disciplined students, while Rick stated that Thai students at all levels preferred to have fun in the classroom. Visual and verbal games were more effective than serious or focused activities for student learning. Multimedia activities were also effective, as were group activities. NSTs could be put to better use in the schools by utilizing their skills and abilities to improve curriculum, although as stated above this is not being done.

In general, participants did not feel that Thai students could learn English better from NSTs than from NNSTs. Instead, it depended on the quality of teacher. Rick pointed out that Thai people felt more secure learning English from an NST because they were seen as knowing how to speak English properly compared to an NNST. Thus, the NST intuition that they are not
necessarily the best teachers of English, despite a cultural preference, is borne out by the empirical research.

**Discussion of the Findings in Relationship to the Theoretical Framework**

The theoretical framework employed by the researcher of this study was comprised of two key perspectives, social constructivism theory and social cognition theory. The results of the study do bear out the usefulness of these two theories in relation to NST’s experience in the classroom and the interaction between different cultures. As Denzin and Lincoln (2008) pointed out, this form of social cognition is essentially social constructivism – teachers are responding to the realities of their students and adapting their own practices and thoughts. This is consistent with the present study, which found that the teachers adapted their teaching style to the perceived cultural and individual preferences of learning. This included, for example, using games and fun activities to create engagement, after which they could deepen the learning activities of their students. Thus, the social constructivism and social cognition theories as used and studied in this research were not separate. Instead, they interacted with each other, both playing a role in the teacher’s cognitions surrounding their students’ needs and the formulation of an appropriate response.

**Social constructivism theory.** Social constructivism states that individual and cultural expectations and perspectives develop through interactions between individuals and cultural norms (Lincoln & Guba, 2000). These interactions are a deliberate act on the part of the individual, who is trying to understand the world around him or her, other people, and the culture and society in which he or she lives (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008). This means that the views of the participants were formed through their interaction with others, rather than simply being passively imprinted (Lincoln & Guba, 2000). Thus, experience and background, as well as cultural,
historical, and personal factors, influence the views that participants provide (Creswell, 2013). Furthermore, the researcher also provides a further interaction and also constructs reality based on these interactions (Creswell, 2013). As a result, the research does not attempt to showcase any form of objective reality, but instead documents varying perspectives and constructed by the individual through interaction with the culture.

Social constructivism was helpful in understanding the sense making activities of the participants in relation to their students and classroom work. One of the most notable aspects of the discussion of culture was that the participants identified cultural ideas about Thailand, but then usually noted that there were individual exceptions to all these rules. For example, a common statement was that Thai students were unmotivated and did not consider learning English to be a priority – but at the same time, there were individual students that were identified as highly motivated. This reflects the views of the participants being modified by interaction both with the larger group of students (who they identified as Thai culture) and smaller groups of more highly motivated students. This is the process that Lincoln and Guba (2000) identify as social construction. Furthermore, the participants’ own historical and cultural background influenced their perception of Thai culture, as suggested by Denzin and Lincoln (2008). For example, participants explicitly compared Thai culture to American or British culture. They identified positive differences, but seemed to find the most aggravation with differences they saw as negative. This included differences in time perception, hierarchy preferences, and top-down decision making practices. This is likely because their earlier experience had identified their own cultural background as normal (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008). Thus, they saw these aspects of Thai culture as being incorrect or frustrating. This is an important finding that could help explain why
NSTs may struggle in the classroom and have motivation difficulties, as noted by Mousavi (2007).

**Social cognition theory.** The second theoretical model used in the study was social cognition theory. Social cognition theory is particularly helpful for this study because it points out that learning is not an individualistic or mechanized activity (Bandura, 1986). Instead, learning is a social activity, taking place inside and outside the classroom as students and teachers interact and engage with each other (Bandura, 1986; Bandura, 2001). Social cognition theory has been widely used in language teaching studies because it provides a basis for understanding language acquisition through interaction (Borg, 2003). Using social cognition theory, this research attempted to capture past experiences and their impact on expectations and expectancies, whether NSTs have engaged in specific cognitions, and why these cognitions have occurred.

Social cognition theory is useful for understanding how the participants adapt their teaching strategies in the classroom in response to culture and their learners’ needs. As shown in Figure 1, social cognition theory states that personal factors, environmental factors and behaviors interact to create a learning environment (Bandura, 1986; Bandura, 2001). The participants reported that their external environments were not always great, with poor or inappropriate curriculum and resources for teaching. In response, they made up activities or adapted their classroom approach to meet the needs of their learners in other ways, such as through games, audio learning or group activities. This was not a response to aspirations or expectations, but was instead in response to a perceived need that was not being filled at the time, as anticipated by social cognition theory (Green, 1996). It also demonstrated that the teachers were responding to the perceived needs of their students by analyzing a path by which some portion of the goal of
teaching English could be obtained, despite the barriers and obstacles, such as unhelpful administrators or inappropriate curricula. This is in keeping with the proposed model of teacher cognition from Greenwood (1992).

**Discussion of the Findings in relationship to the Literature Review**

English native speaking teachers (NSTs) are in high demand around the world because of the increasing importance of English as a lingua franca, or trade language. English increasingly operates as a shared second language between non-native speakers, rather than primarily as a way to communicate with English speakers (Crystal, 1997; Khamkhien, 2010; Warschauer, 2000). English plays a role in specific exchanges that require limited interaction (Mckay, 2003), as a language of education and learning (Phothongsunan, 2006), and as a language of technical knowledge and information sharing (Khamkhien, 2012). NSTs are often preferred by language programs and institutions because they are perceived to have a better grasp of the language (Mckay, 2003; Sahin, 2005). NSTs are often seen as having more legitimacy and providing more social benefits than non-native speakers (Lui, 1999; Luk, 2001; Mckay, 2003; Pennycook, 2007). This is largely because ‘native’ accents are prized above non-native ways of speaking. The social value of NSTs for students is also higher, as students often have a preference for them (Todd & Pojanapunyal, 2009). However, this does not necessarily mean that NSTs are the best technically prepared or able language teachers. In fact, NSTs often face problems such as lack of familiarity with ESL curriculum and teaching methods, poor motivation, and lack of knowledge about local culture (Carless & Walker, 2006; Mousavi, 2007). There is also a significant mismatch between NST teaching style and methods and the approaches used by non-native speaking teachers (NNSTs) (Arva & Medgyes 2000; Kim, 2009; Liu, 1999). This mismatch could potentially be caused by different perceptions about the purpose of teaching and using
English, different training methods, or some combination of the above problems. However, despite the clear importance of the problem of NSTs and their teaching practices, there has been relatively little recent research into the NST perspective on English teaching, including their perspective on the importance of cultural context ((Kim, 2009; Liu, 1999).

The findings of this study suggested that participants had a wide range of experiences and teaching practices in the classroom. This is likely to be related to the differences in their preparation for the work of language teaching, which previous authors have identified as being uncertain and inconsistent (Carless & Walker, 2006; Mousavi, 2007). There are a few problems, which found in this study, such as the GED system, Passing system, conservative organizational culture, hierarchy organizational chart, or paper work load issues. These problems are not unexpected given the poor performance of Thai students in English, since it is known that many students do not do well and may not master English even at the university level (Darasawang, 2007; Foley, 2005; Fry, 2013; Todd, 2005; Wongsothorn, 2000). The problems with teaching and learning also are reflected in poor English achievement scores, which are below average for Asian countries (Bolton, 2008; Smalley, 1994; Wiriyachitra, 2001). However, this is not necessarily to blame for all poor performance, since after all Thai students rarely get to speak English outside the classroom (Keyuravong, 2010; Masavisut & Wongmontha, 1986; Phothongsunan, 2006). This is in contrast to their counterparts in other Asian countries, where English is routinely spoken in daily life (Baker, 2009; Canagarajah, 2006; Fry & Bi, 2013). Thus, it is not necessarily useful to reach for a cultural explanation, when structural and institutional problems exist. In the last decade, the participants found that Thai educational system wasn’t really improved. This could be an opportunity for improvement if the Thai educational system actually wants to meet its stated goal of teaching all Thai students English to proficiency level by
open mind accept and learn from other countries educational system (Foley, 2005; Keyuravong, 2010; Masavisut, et al., 1986; Watson, 2008). However, the top-down decision-making style and lack of input of NSTs into the teaching process could impede its adoption.

Thai students are very polite and respect the teachers in cultural perspective of NSTs. Students do not have a chance to use much of English outside the classroom. These perceptions point to several reasons why, as has been observed in previous studies, Thai students may not achieve English proficiency (Darasawang, 2007; Foley, 2005; Fry, 2013; Wongsothorn, 2000; Todd, 2005). In additional, NSTs do not understand what the students have to go through in order to learn how to speak English because of Thai language obstacle. It could also be due to a lack of formal training and knowledge about language; as has been noted, NSTs are not necessarily aware of their language at a conscious level and may struggle teaching grammar in the same way as NNSTs, who have been trained to do so (Hall and Cook, 2012; Shin, 2008). NSTs tried to atop Thai culture into the classroom activities since NSTs could provide a lot of creativities ideas of teaching and learning in the classrooms. This is particularly true since NSTs are known to be effective at creating effective visual and spoken activities, games and other content that helps promote proficiency (Carless & Walker, 2006).

In general, the existing literature has little to say about the motivation of NSTs in teaching ESL students language. Mousavi (2007) states that one of the problems with NSTs is that they lack motivation in the classroom, but this is clearly not the case with these teachers. In particular, these teachers identified both intrinsic motivations (teaching enjoyment, watching students grow) and extrinsic motivation (pay and appreciation) as reasons to continue to engage in the classroom. Thus, it is more the case that the NST teachers in Mousavi’s (2007) study are
responding to a lack of motivating structure, rather than that they are intrinsically unmotivated to teach.

There has been very little research into the impact of career paths and career progression on NSTs in Thailand. In part, this is likely to be because NSTs are not considered to be on a career path. For example, the majority of NST positions only require that the applicant be a native speaker of English from a select set of countries (Lui, 1999; Khamkhien, 2010; Rappa & Wee, 2006; Todd & Pojanapunyal, 2009). Thus, native speaking competence, rather than language or teaching skill, is their main employment asset and skill (Arva & Medgyes, 2000; Todd & Pojanpunyal, 2009). In some cases, NSTs may be selected primarily or even entirely because of the perceived social capital of the native speaker, rather than any actual skill (Fry & Bi, 2013; Khamkhien, 2010; Sanprasert, 2010; Todd & Pojanapunyal, 2009). This actually devalues the role of the experienced NST in developing classroom materials and promoting activities and games that could help students achieve competency.

Thai culture impact on the pedagogy. Cultural differences were important because in general, teaching English requires teachers to relate to the culture they are teaching in and be sensitive to cultural habits, expectations and needs (Barratt & Kontra, 2000; Bovonsiri, et al., 1996; Foley, 2005; Komin, 1990;). Thus, it is important for teachers to understand and respect Thai culture (Bovonsiri, et al., 1996; Foley, 2005; Komin, 1990). There were also some negative attitudes identified, including poor planning and communication practice, emphasis on face and hierarchical decision-making. Another cultural difference was time perception (with Thai culture being more multi-active in time sense, and therefore not being as prompt with meetings or appointment times (Lewis, 2006)). Thai students are known to have little practice in English outside the classroom, especially compared to their peers from other countries (Keyuravong,
2010; Masavisut & Wongmontha, 1986; Phothongsunan, 2006). It is also consistent with creating a comfortable environment for learners in the classroom (Akbari, 2008; Carless & Walker, 2006; Darder, 1991; Hall & Cook, 2012). Thus, even though it may appear that this does not value Thai culture, in fact it is a response to the needs of Thai students. Visual, game, and multimedia needed to inspire Thai students. This is somewhat consistent with the perspective of teachers on Thailand as being good and moral as well as loving and kind presences (Hayes, 2005; Komin, 1990; Wiriyachitra, 2001). It is also a response to the needs of students for NSTs to provide real-life learning situations and interactions, which help them improve their English performance (Alptekin, 2002; Butzkamm, 1997; Khuvasanond et al., 2010). The hands-on, learner-centered approach is consistent with effective practice for NSTs and ESL students in Thailand, as well as other areas around the world (Nonkukhetkhong, 2006; Watson, 2005).

In NSTs perspective, there are no different between NSTs and NNSTs in teaching English to ESLs. This viewpoint is consistent with the research into language teaching, which suggests that NNSTs can actually be more effective because they have been taught specifics about grammar, teaching, curriculum design and understanding of the ESL culture (Alptekin, 2002; Cook, 1999; Kirkpatrick, 2006; Llurda, 2004; Smally, 1994; Todd & Pojanapunyal, 2009).

**Limitations of the Study**

There are some limitations of this study that should be considered. One limitation is that the participants of the study are not necessarily representative of NSTs in Thailand. All participants were male and all had been teaching in Thailand for at least a decade. This means that they were highly experienced and had a long time to become accustomed to NST language teaching in Thailand. The experiences of female teachers might be different, for example because of differences in reactions of students to male or female teachers. The experience of new
teachers might also be different, because they would have different expectations and levels of experience. Furthermore, none of the participants had been officially trained in language instruction. Typically, English language teaching requires substantial training and practice (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2002; Todd, 2008; Canagarajah, 2006), even though untrained NSTs might be selected for cultural preference reasons. Thus, the experience of these participants could be different from trained NSTs. These limitations are not out of line from what is expected in a small-scale qualitative study, since participant groups are not typically representative of the population (Creswell, 2013). They do not reduce the utility of the study as an exploratory research.

**Recommendations for Future Research**

This research provided valuable and detailed findings related to teacher cognitions, practices, and the impact of culture on pedagogy for NSTs working in Thai schools. However, it did not have time to explore all areas of inquiry or fill all gaps in the literature. There were also several issues that came up that could use more detailed description and explanation. There are four key recommendations for future research proposed for this study.

- Teacher experiences and cognitions: A broader study of teacher experiences and cognitions would provide more information about the NST experience in Thailand and elsewhere. The secondary literature was lacking on NST viewpoint studies. Although the present study tried to fill this gap, as noted above there were some significant limitations. However, the findings do provide enough information to conduct a follow-up survey using a quantitative method or mixed method, which could help determine whether or not the findings of this study were typical of NSTs in Thai language schools.
- Teacher motivations, pay, and working conditions: This study showed that NSTs had a combination of intrinsic and extrinsic motivations related to English teaching. This is not consistent with the small amount of research that has been done into teacher motivations, which suggests motivation problems as well as a potentially fully extrinsic motivation (such as ability to travel or pay). The issue of what motivates NSTs, as well as what kind of working conditions they operate under, is a topic that could be studied in more detail. This could be done in a number of ways, for example as a quantitative study or a case study of one or more schools, which would help determine whether the findings of this study are typical.

- Action research into administrative reform: The problem of administrative management and curriculum choice occurred multiple times in this research, and was a significant frustration for participants, who could not make formal changes in their curriculum. Action research is a common activity in educational reform research, which allows teachers and administrators to work together to change practices (Creswell, 2013). By using action research in a Thai school environment in regard to the English curriculum, it could be possible to provide a template for improving English teaching in a way that is effective and culturally sensitive.

- The relationship between NSTs and NNSTs and their relative teaching skills and contributions: The academic literature suggests that NSTs and NNSTs have different teaching strengths and contributions, which was an idea the NST participants agreed with generally. A detailed study of NSTs and NNSTs in Thai schools, conducted for example as a case study or qualitative research, could help determine the most effective use each of these groups of teachers could have. It could also help
demonstrate to Thai schools that they do not necessarily need to rely on NSTs. This could be particularly important for older learners, since NNSTs could have a better grasp on technical material and provide advanced learners with improved teaching.

Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the findings of the primary study and compared and discussed them with the literature review. The findings showed that there were three key themes. These themes included: NST teaching experiences in the Thai classroom; NST motivations; and Thai culture and the impact of cultural differences on the classroom pedagogy approach used. All four of the participants identified various frustrations, including that they had poor support for change and curriculum that was often too advanced or not what their learners needed. These differences were worsened by Thai cultural habits, such as hierarchical decision making and unwillingness to change. This meant that teachers faced problems like inappropriate materials. Teachers also had poor career progression prospects, since there were only a few roles open to NSTs other than teaching, and pay rates had not changed much since the participants started teaching. Regardless, the participants had positive experiences in the classroom and generally enjoyed their jobs, as well as valuing them because they could remain in Thailand.

The findings were generally consistent with the literature, although there were some novel findings. The novel findings were generally based in the openness of the teachers to Thai culture and the motivations of teachers. It was not expected that the teachers would be conversant with Thai, but they were, and could use Thai in the classroom. The teachers were also understanding of the challenges and barriers their students faced, such as their lack of practice outside the classroom. Their adaptation of teaching practice to their student’s preferences, such as development of teaching games and adaptation of curriculum to meet the level and needs of
their learners, was also surprising. This chapter has shown that the NST experience in the Thai classroom has more dimensions than previously anticipated based on the secondary research.
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Sage Press
Appendix A: Initial Participant Recruitment Letter

14th July 2014

Dear Participant

My name is Ratanaporn Choklap and I am a doctoral candidate in the College of Professional Studies at Northeastern University. As part of my dissertation research, I am conducting a study about The Experiences of Native Speaking Teachers (NSTs) when teaching English as a Second Language to Students (ESLs) in Thailand.

In order to gather data about this research, I am inviting you to participate in my study. You have been asked to participate in this project because you have a wealth of in-depth knowledge about teaching English to ESL students in Thailand and your insight will be helpful in obtaining information regarding the teaching English in Thailand. Your input regarding the role of Native Speaker Teacher (NST) will be helpful in obtaining information for this Interpretive Phenomenological Analysis Research (IPA).

According to the research process, each participant will have to 1) Agree to participate in this researcher by signing this initial participant recruitment letter, 2) Signed Inform Consent Documents, which approved by Northeastern University, 3) Participate in the Interview for 80-100 minutes period of time (according to participant convenient place and time), and 4) Follow up the interview for 45 minutes after the interview had been transcript to ensure the accuracy of the data.

Please be aware that you have the right to agree or not agree to participate in this study. Also, any participation in this study will be completely confidential; name and other personal information will not be used.

For further information, or any questions, you will be able to contact Miss Ratanaporn Choklap 18/85, Supalia Ville Onnuch-Suanluang, Chaleam Phrakiat Rama 9 Road, Soi 62, Dokmai,
Thank you for your time.
Appendix B: Signed Informed Consent Document

Northeastern University, College of Professional Studies Doctor of Education

Principal Investigator: Dr. Chris Unger,

Student Researcher: Ratanaporn Choklap

Title of Project: The Experiences of Native Speaking Teachers (NSTs) when Teaching English as a Second Language to Students (ESLs) in Thailand.

Informed Consent to Participate in a Research Study

Why am I being asked to take part in this research study?

The reason you are being asked to take part in this research study is because you have a wealth of knowledge about teaching English to ESL students in Thailand and your insight will be helpful in examining Native Speaking Teachers’ experience of teaching English in Thailand.

Why is this research study being done?

The research aims to explore the work and life experiences of Native Speaking Teachers (NSTs) in teaching English to ESL(English as a Second Language) students in Thailand. The research focuses on NSTs experiences, motivation, and cultural adaptations to teach English in Thailand.

What will be asked to do?

The researcher will be looking for you to participate in two interview sessions that will be audio recorded. The 1st interview will last anywhere from 80-100 minutes, and the second interview will last for no more than 45 minutes. The 2nd interview will allow the researcher to review the content of the 1st interview and pursue any desired clarification or possible follow-up questions.

Where will this take place and how much time will it take?

Individual interviews will take approximately 80-100 minutes each. Individual interviews will require to participate in the following up interviews after the researcher had completed the interview
transcriptions, which will take approximately 45 minutes each. Interviews will take place in a
convenient place and time according to each participant

**Will there be any risk or discomfort to me?**

There are no significant risks involved in being a participant in this study.

**Will I benefit by being in this research?**

There are no direct benefits for you as a participant; however, discussing and sharing your
experience of teaching English as a Native Speaking Teacher may be useful as an opportunity to
reflect upon your experience...

**Who will see the information about me?**

All data, for example, quotes and references to experiences, will be shared without any specific
reference to any participants’ name or personal identity. Only the primary researcher, Miss
Ratanaporn Choklap, will know who made particular comments, but the presentation of this
information will be associated only with a pseudonym for the participant.

**If do not want to take part in the study, what choices do I have?**

You are not required to take part in this study. If you do not want to participate, you do not have to
sign this form. In addition, you may choose to stop your participation at any time without any
repercussion.

**What will happen if I suffer any harm from this research?**

There are no significant risks involved in being a participant in this study.

**Can I stop my participation in this study?**

Participation in this study is voluntary. You may discontinue your participation in this research
program at any time without penalty or costs of any nature, character, or kind.
Who can I contact if I have questions or problems?

Ratanaporn Choklap
18/85, Supalai Ville Onnuch-Suanluang, College of Professional Studies
Chaleam phrakiat rama 9 Road, Soi 62 360 Huntington Avenue (BV 20)
Dokmai, Prawet Northeastern University, Boston
Bangkok, 10250 Thailand, Cell: #857-272-8941
Work TEL.+662 664 1798-99
Home. +668 9035 3922
Email: choklap.r@husky.neu.edu Email: c.unger@neu.edu

Who can I contact about my rights as a participant?

If you have any questions about your rights as a participant, you may contact Nan C. Regina,
Director, Human Subject Research Protection, 960 Renaissance Park, Northeastern University
Boston, MA 02115. Tel. 617-373-7570, e-mail: irb@neu.edu. You may call anonymously if you wish.

Will I be paid for my participation?

There is no compensation for participation in this study.

Will it cost me anything to participate?

There is no cost to participate in this study.

I have read, understood, and had the opportunity to ask questions regarding this consent form. I fully understand the nature and character of my involvement in this research program as a participant and the potential risks. Should I be selected, I agree to participate in this study on a voluntary basis.
Research Participant (Printed Name)

Research participant (Signature)  Date
Appendix C: Interview Protocol Form

Interview Protocol

Interviewee (Title and Name):_____________________________________

Interviewer:____________________________________________________________________

Date and Time:______________________________

Venue:___________________________________________

Part I. Introductory session Objectives (10-20 minutes)

Build rapport, describe the study, answer any questions, go through the inform consent
form with the interviewee and invite him/her to sign if he/she has no further question.

Introduction

Thank you for meeting me for an interview. You have been selected because you have been
identified as someone who has a lot to share about the experience of teaching English to second
language students (ESLs) in Thailand as a native speaker teacher (NST). I am a Doctor of
Education student at Northeastern University. My dissertation research focuses on native speaker
teachers’ experiences in teaching English to second language students in Thailand, the
motivations of native speaking teachers, and the impact of Thai culture to the pedagogy
employed by native speaking teachers from perspectives of native speaking teachers. Hopefully
this will bring new insights into the ways NSTs experience teaching ESLs in Thailand, which
can be useful for language teaching policy and support NSTs in the future.

Because your responses are important and I want to make sure to capture everything you
say, I would like to audio tape our conversation today. I will also be taking written notes during
the interview. I can ensure you that all responses will be confidential and only pseudonym will
be used when quoting from the transcripts. I will be the only one privy to the tapes, which will be
eventually destroyed after they are transcribed. To meet our human subject’s requirement at the university, you must sign this Informed consent form. Essentially, this document states that: (1) all information will be held confidential, (2) our participation is voluntary and you may stop at any time if you feel uncomfortable, (3) we do not intend to inflict any harm. Do you have any questions about the interview process or this form?

We have planned this interview to last no longer than 100 minutes. During this, I have several questions to cover. If time begins to run short, it may be necessary to interrupt you in order to push a head and complete this line of questioning. Do you have any questions?

**Interviewee Background**

1) What is your name?

2) What is your nationality?

3) How long have you lived in Thailand?

4) How did you feel when you have arrived in Thailand for the first time?

5) What made you decide to live in Thailand?

6) What do you see in Thai people in the different perspective of before and after you decided to live in Thailand?

7) What made you decide to teach English to ESL in Thailand?

8) How difficult to find the English teaching job in Thailand?

9) How long have you been teaching English to ESLs in Thailand?

10) How did you learn how to teach English?

11) What are your qualifications for teaching English?

12) Do you have any other occupation other than teaching English? If yes, what is it?

13) How do you enjoin teaching Thai students?
14) Do you speak and/or write in Thai?

15) Where do you learn Thai and how do you learn Thai?

**Part II. Main Questions (70-80 minutes)**

My study seeks to explore the phenomenon of native speaking teachers teaching (NSTs) English to English as a Second Language’ students (ESLs) in NSTs own context. I am going to ask you some questions about the key experiences of teaching ESLs, your motivation, and your teaching pedagogy in Thai culture.

**Native speaking teachers’ experiences**

1) Where do you teach English to ESLs?

2) How many students in your average class?

3) How many hours per week for your teaching class?

4) How did you feel when you have the first teaching class?

5) What are the teaching materials that you use in the classroom?

6) What do you think of the language institution teaching material that you use?

7) How to improve the English teaching materials in Thailand?

8) How do you like to use your own teaching material?

9) What do you think of Thai students in the classroom?

10) What do you think it different between Thai students and other nationality student?

11) What age group do you teach currently?

12) What age group do you like teaching, and why?

13) How do you feel when you heard about Thai students are not able to speak English after they graduate from University?
14) What Thai education system should improve in term of English language teaching and learning?

The motivation for native speaking teachers

1) What do you like about teaching English in Thailand?
2) What do you dislike about teaching English in Thailand?
3) How you satisfied teaching English here (in Thailand)?
4) What is your career path as the English teachers in Thailand?
5) What is the highest position that native speaker teacher in your institution can get?
6) Do you think that the English teacher get pay well in general?
7) What is attractive the most for you in term of teaching English in Thailand?
8) How do you feel about your Thai teacher colleagues?
9) What do you think they feel about you being an English teacher in their institution?
10) How do you help Thai teachers to teach English?
11) If you ask one thing from the institution, what will you ask for? And why?

The impact of Thai culture in teaching pedagogy

Now I want to ask you some questions about how you see Thai culture as impacting your ability to teach English.

1) What do you think of Thai culture?
2) How to you feel to adopt to Thai culture?
3) What do you think it the most different from Thai culture and Western culture
4) How Thai culture impact the way you teach English?
5) Do you teach Western culture to Thai students?
6) How to teach Western culture while teaching English to ESL?
7) Why do you think it is important to teach Western culture to Thai students?

8) Do you think Thai students can learn English better when they are in native speaking English countries? Why?

9) How your English class can provide teaching environment for Thai students?

10) How do you change the ways of teaching English to suitable with Thai culture?

11) How do you change the ways of teaching English to suitable with Thai students?

12) What is in Thai culture that enhance you teaching ability?

13) What is in Thai culture that not support your teaching ability?

Ask participant if they have any questions and thank you them for their participation.