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**On the Fluidity of Languages:
A Way Out of the Dilemma in English Medium Instruction
Classrooms in Thailand**

A thesis
submitted in fulfilment
of the requirements for the degree
of
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by
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ABSTRACT

Nowadays internationalisation has become an aggressive agenda of growing strategic importance to tertiary education around the globe, driven by the influence of a highly competitive economy domestically and globally. A large and growing body of literature has suggested that English Medium Instruction (EMI) is the foremost instrument to advance universities in rankings systems in numerous universities in non-Anglophone countries in order to compete for elevated positions in an international arena.

Thailand, among these countries, now enthusiastically uses EMI programmes in various academic disciplines. Each university has different mechanisms for EMI implementation. The context of this study is a regional university which is in an elite group of Thai public universities. The aim of this study is to pay close attention to two language mechanisms in this university. That is, the English Linguistic Gears are an in-house innovation in encouraging content lecturers to use English in one of three levels ('Gears'): Gear One requires 25 percent of English of the class time; Gear Two, 50 percent; and Gear Three, 75 percent. EMI lecturers are expected to weave these gears into a Language Pillar, an overseas approach derived from Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL). The language and subject content are given equal weight in CLIL and it is assumed that the second language is used more often than the first, and that the teachers are competent to teach both the academic content and second language skills.

At classroom level, the empirical literature on language practices under these mechanisms in this context is limited. It is not clear what factors inform and shape the lecturers' language beliefs and practices. More importantly, much uncertainty still exists about the relationship between language practices in EMI classrooms. This thesis is the first substantial qualitative case study in Thailand to investigate the lecturers' language beliefs and practices in EMI classrooms. Data were collected from August 2016 to January 2017 from six lecturers in courses in humanities and social sciences through semi-structured interviews, classroom

observations, stimulated recall interviews, focus group discussions, documents, and researcher reflections. Grounded Theory was adopted to analyse all data.

The findings showed that the lecturers were faced with the dilemma of language practice between two mechanisms. That is, all lecturers selected Gear One, which was directed at using 25 percent of English and allowed 75 percent of Thai. In contrast, the Language Pillar expected the lecturers to use English to the full, alongside explicitly teaching the English language. The lecturers' language beliefs revealed that they were aware that insufficient English skills of both lecturers and students would negatively impact on lecturers' instruction and students' understanding. Their language practices showed that the lecturers emphasised the need not only for the students to understand the academic content but also to promote rapport with the students. In so doing, they used considerably more Thai than English, although both languages had specific roles to play. In addition, the lecturers' reflection on their language practices revealed that external factors (policy, classroom infrastructure, and students) and internal factors (the lecturers' own language preferences and proficiencies) were the crucial factors that shaped and informed their current language beliefs and language practices.

The findings presented that code-switching and translanguaging were the lecturers' way out of the dilemma in English medium instruction classrooms. One possible explanation for these findings was that language had its own flexibility in using (including abilities to use, methods for use, and purposes of use) and fluidity of movement. The major finding of the study is that a continuum emerged when the use of code-switching for classroom social interactions flowed into translanguaging for instructional functions.

To understand the growing phenomenon of EMI in the research site, a comprehensive and multi-dimensional conceptual framework, ROADMAPPING (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, 2020) was applied to provide a holistic view of the language practices in and beyond classrooms. This framework identifies six relevant components, Roles of English (in relation to other languages) (RO), Academic Disciplines (AD), (language) Management (M), Agents (A), Practices and Processes (PP), and Internationalisation and Glocalisation (ING), and each component intersects with and impact on the others. The discussion of the findings

in this study pays close attention to all components of the framework in order to explain crucial interrelationships shaping EMI in the local context.

The research has yielded implications on contextual, practical, and theoretical areas. Thus, it has thrown new light on language practices in tertiary education EMI programmes for future dual language policy, practice, and training for related agencies such as institutional policy-makers, content lecturers, teacher-trainers, researchers, and beyond.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Short form	Long form
CLIL	Content and Language Integrated Learning
CS	Code-switching
ELGs	English Linguistic Gears
EMI	English Medium Instruction
HASS	Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences
HomeU	Home University
INS-CON	Instructing Content
INS-LANG	Instructing about Language
LP	Language Pillar
MOI	Medium of Instruction
ORG	Organising
OverseasU	Overseas University
SOC	Socialising
TL	Translanguaging

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

As an applied linguist in a Thai university, I have witnessed the growing national and global phenomenon of English Medium Instruction (EMI hereafter) in tertiary education. Researching EMI was conceived during the time I worked for the head of the EMI programme as an English specialist at my home university (HomeU hereafter) in Thailand. Thus, it is my direct experience of working with the EMI management that has driven this research. I became more interested in EMI research after reading Barnard's (2015) academic article on the challenges faced in running EMI programmes in Asian universities. The author highlights that language issues in EMI environments are one of the most serious challenges EMI agents face today. If these challenges are not addressed it "will lead to failure in parts or the whole of EMI programmes in Asian universities, and the consequent de-education of students and demoralisation of academic staff" (p. 11). Thus, the issue of language has received considerable critical attention in my research.

The general working definition of EMI is "the use of the English language to teach academic subjects in countries or jurisdictions where the first language (L1) of the majority of the population is not English" (Dearden, 2014, p. 2). Universities in Thailand and other countries in the non-Anglophone world are experiencing a sudden change in the teaching of academic subjects to teaching through the medium of English in order to rapidly attain internationally recognised academic standards through EMI. The pressure is so great that Macaro (2015) draws an analogy regarding this situation with "an unstoppable train" (p. 7). He suggests that "[b]etter therefore that we do everything we can to keep it on the rails and allow its passengers to reach their destination safely than try to block its progress" (p. 7).

As this is growing phenomenon places EMI under language challenges to meet such an academic standard, Macaro (2015) then suggests: "English Medium Instruction: Time to start asking some difficult questions." I not only asked myself questions of this type but also resolved to undertake research into EMI. Therefore, because there was limited research investigating EMI contexts in Thai universities, there was a

possibility for case studies to explore the beliefs and practices of content lecturers in specific settings. Lecturers are the principal agents implementing EMI at a classroom level. Moreover, in EMI classrooms it is important to pay attention to the actual linguistic dynamics. This is the aim of this present study.

1.1 Background on National Policies leading to EMI in Thailand

The Thai government launched a series of National Economic and Social Development Plans (NESDPs) between 2006-2021 to introduce educational reforms in schools and universities. Similar to other universities, HomeU, the research site of the present study, faced increasing pressure from the government sectors on this subject. The following describes the NESDPs and how key stakeholders translated the NESDPs into educational policies and practices.

The Office of the National Economic and Social Development Council (2006) revealed serious consequences for Thai education in the Tenth NESDP (2007-2011). The quality of education in Thailand was a matter of urgency. As the Tenth NESDP reported,

**คุณภาพการศึกษาที่สามารถตอบสนองต่อการแข่งขันของประเทศ
ไทยยังล้าหลังกว่าประเทศมาเลเซีย... [และประเทศอื่น ๆ ในอาเซียน]
Thailand was behind Malaysia... [and other countries in ASEAN]
in terms of the quality of education to push competitiveness
forward. (Office of the National Economic and Social
Development Council, 2006, p. 11)**

In the same document, Office of the National Economic and Social Development Council (2006, p. 75) suggested a way out of this situation:

**สถาบันการศึกษา/นักวิชาการ ...กระตุ้นเผยแพร่ให้ความรู้ข้อมูล
ข่าวสารความรู้ใหม่ ๆ ที่จำเป็นต่อการดำรงชีวิตในโลกยุคใหม่ เช่น
ภาษาต่างประเทศ... Thai institutions and academics should
promote essential knowledge necessary for life in the new era,
such as foreign language skills.**

Although the Tenth NESDP and other plans did not explicitly indicate which foreign language(s) should be deployed in higher education, English was viewed as a de facto language to elevate the skills of Thais.

The Eleventh NESDP (2012-2016) foregrounded preparation for Thai workers working in the ASEAN region. The policy highlighted that skilled workers should have foreign language competency (Office of the National Economic and Social Development Council, 2011). As the Eleventh NESDP clearly stated, in order to get ready for mobility across ASEAN and in other international arenas,

**ไทยต้องมีการเตรียมความพร้อมในหลายด้าน อาทิ การพัฒนา
ทรัพยากรมนุษย์ ทั้งทางด้านการศึกษา ทักษะด้านภาษา และทักษะ
ฝีมือแรงงาน** Thailand must prepare human resources in terms of
education, language skills, and labour skills. (Office of the
National Economic and Social Development Council, 2011, p. 4)

Therefore, the foreign language skills (English) were given serious attention in the Twelfth NESDP for 2016-2021 since the Office of the National Economic and Social Development Council (2016a) believed that the foreign language skills were fundamental to the success of the human capital development. As stated,

**การพัฒนาทรัพยากรบุคคลของไทยให้มีความเป็นสากลทั้งด้าน
ความสามารถทางภาษา... สอดคล้องกับเป้าหมายความเป็นพลเมือง
ไทย พลเมืองอาเซียน และ พลเมืองโลก** Thai nationals needed to
advance language proficiencies to have international outlooks in
order to become Thai, ASEAN, and world citizens. (Office of the
National Economic and Social Development Council, 2016a, p.
195)

To do so, the goal of the Office of the National Economic and Social Development Council (2016a, p. 4) was that

**การพัฒนาจะบรรลุเป้าหมายอนาคตประเทศไทยเป็นประเทศที่พัฒนา
แล้วภายในปี ๒๕๗๙** this development plan shall enable Thailand
to meet the goal of becoming a developed country by 2036.

Passing the Twelfth NESDP to educational sectors, the Ministry of Education (2016, p. 46) aimed that “within three years, students were able to improve their

English for communication in daily life”. Thus, there was an urgent need to produce graduates able to compete at international levels and to have the mobility to work across ASEAN. Therefore, higher education institutions redesigned their roles for this activity, developing curricula, and searching for effective teaching and learning approaches based on institutional expertise.

The Commission on Higher Education (2008) launched the Second 15-year Plan on Higher Education for 2008-2022. This plan involved specialised universities with their expertise to advance the graduates. The Office of the Higher Education Commission (2014) described that:

Specialized institutions refer to the institutions which focus on producing specialized graduates in specific fields of study such as the physical sciences, biological sciences, social sciences, and humanities as well as vocational training. The institutions may place emphasis on a) thesis writing or research, b) production of graduates with knowledge, capabilities, skills, and proficiencies required for professional occupations, or c) both. ... (pp. 14-15)

Although this policy did not specify EMI, various universities in Thailand expanded their EMI programmes. However, not all institutions had well-defined guidelines for their practitioners. The Bureau of Monitoring and Evaluation (n.d.) assessed the first half of the implementation of the Second 15-Year Long Range Plan, and disclosed that:

... the higher educational institutes are unable to use the plan as a guideline for graduate production that can match the needs of the nation and graduate users in both quantity and quality. ... (p. F)

Arriving at nearly the end of this plan, HomeU put great effort into the graduate development programme through the use of EMI. Clear evidence of this was that HomeU created detailed EMI policies at both university and faculty levels. At the university level,

๕.๑.๔ ทุกหลักสูตรจัดให้มีรายวิชาที่จัดการเรียนการสอนเป็นภาษาอังกฤษเป็นสื่อการสอน (Medium of Instruction) ในทุกภาค การศึกษาตามแผนการศึกษา โดยมีรูปแบบตามที่มหาวิทยาลัย กำหนดตามเป้าหมายการดำเนินการ ดังนี้ (๑) จัดหลักสูตรอย่างน้อย

ภาคการศึกษาละ ๔๕ ชั่วโมงในปีการศึกษา ๒๕๕๗ (๒) จัดหลักสูตร
อย่างน้อยภาคการศึกษาละ ๙๐ ชั่วโมงในการการศึกษา ๒๕๕๙

5.1.4 all study programmes provide medium of instruction in English in all semesters. The study programmes should be organised as follows: (1) each programme provides English medium instruction for at least 45 hours in 2014; and (2) 90 hours in 2016. (Home University, 2014, p. 2)

At the faculty level, in HASS, to respond to the university's policy on EMI, it was stipulated that

หลักสูตรต้องจัดการการสอนรายวิชาเป็นภาษาอังกฤษจำนวนทั้งสิ้น
๒ รายวิชาต่อปีการศึกษา ทั้งนี้ตั้งแต่ปีการศึกษา ๒๕๕๖-๒๕๕๙
หลักสูตรจะต้องมีรายวิชาที่สอนเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ ไม่น้อยกว่า ๖
รายวิชาในระดับปริญญาตรี

all study programmes in HASS must provide two English medium instruction courses per academic year. During 2013-2016, each undergraduate programme must teach content in English for six courses in total (Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, 2016b, p. 1)

Included in these policies was the expectation that HASS at HomeU should rapidly and systematically develop the professional and academic expertise of lecturers. This involved support for professional learning, guidance concerning appropriate pedagogy, using English as a medium of instruction, and material design and use, in order to improve student quality and increase the internationalisation and globalisation of the institution.

1.2 Statement of the Research Topic

In recent years, authorities in the university setting of the study (HomeU) introduced EMI as a new instructional policy for all the Faculties to apply EMI across Thai curricula. To enforce the policy on the classroom level, the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences (HASS hereafter) has introduced two mechanisms for EMI implementation. The first is the use of 'English Linguistic Gears', which

is an in-house innovation in encouraging content lecturers to use English in one of three levels ('Gears'): Gear One requires 25 percent of English of the class time; Gear Two 50 percent; and Gear Three 75 percent. The class time refers to teaching hours. One class lasts 90 or 180 minutes. EMI lecturers are expected to weave these Gears into a Language Pillar, an overseas approach derived from Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL). The language and subject content are given equal weight in CLIL and it is assumed that the second language is used more often than the first, and that the teachers are competent to teach both the academic content and second language skills.

These two mechanisms create a tension because, although in both it is expected that English and the first language are to be used in the classroom, there are different expectations for the amount and the purpose of each. These content lecturers (defined as lecturers who teach different academic subjects) are not specialised in teaching English and teaching academic content in English, and therefore, they have to make their own decisions about what, or what not, to do due to the mechanisms' requirements and how they actually practise languages. There is an urgent need to address actual EMI practices in this context and the beliefs underpinning such practices. Therefore, the issue of beliefs and practices around languages used in EMI has received considerable critical attention in this study.

1.3 Significance of the Research Project

There is little research about lecturer cognition in the context of EMI university programmes in Thailand, and especially lecturers' language practices regarding EMI. There has been no observational research focusing on the interplay of languages in EMI classrooms. The present study explores these phenomena through a unique combination of data collection procedures: semi-structured individual interviews, classroom observations, post-lesson discussions (stimulated recall interviews), focus group discussions, documents, and researcher reflective journals. The data from these procedures were analysed by the implementation of detailed grounded analysis. It is hoped that the present study will yield fruitful contextual, practical, and theoretical implications for this field. The study also highlights important factors influencing lecturers' language beliefs and practices under the

implementation of EMI policy. Language beliefs in relation to policy refer to “the values or statuses assigned to named languages, varieties, and features” (Spolsky, 2009, p. 4). In this study, language beliefs refer to attitudes, knowledge, and assumptions about language that inform and shape the way the content lecturers understand and use language(s) (Kroskrity, 2018; Piller, 2015). The results also have significant implications for the understanding of how EMI practices reflect the EMI policies that aim to promote internationalisation in higher education and global citizenship in the Asian region.

1.4 Research Objectives

The central focus of this study is the importance of the content lecturers’ beliefs about EMI and, crucially, their use of languages in an EMI programme for undergraduate students in a university in Thailand. This study set out to:

- gain further understanding of the lecturers’ language beliefs underpinning the implementation of EMI;
- uncover the lecturers’ actual language practices in the EMI classrooms;
- identify the most important factors influencing the content lecturers’ language beliefs and practices;
- explore the purposes for which Thai and English were used in the EMI classrooms; and
- develop a better understanding of the current EMI pedagogy through the content lecturers’ lenses of language belief and practice.

As the central focus of the thesis is language beliefs and practices, the research framework that I used in this study was developed through conceptualisations of language. The development of my conceptualisations of language is discussed in more detail in the next section.

1.5 Conceptualisations of Language as the Research Framework

1.5.1 Original Language Beliefs during 2010-2015

As my background is in teaching English as a foreign language, using Thai brought me into conflict with language ideologies in Thai society. In practice, Thai retained its status as the de facto primary national language (Kosonen, 2008), while English, as a prestigious language and a lingua franca, remains the de facto primary first foreign language of Thailand (Baker & Jarunthawatchai, 2017). Due to a national language ideology in Thailand, Thai and English languages have a different status. Indeed, the Thai language needs to be conserved, but English is a prestigious language to be used in Thai higher education. This language ideology was also supported by the English education in Thailand, which emphasises that English use should be encouraged separately in the class, as this was the only opportunity for students to learn and use English formally and systematically. Thus, I saw less emphasis on using Thai in English/EMI classes. In my role as an English specialist in the EMI programme at HASS, I encouraged English in EMI classes and discouraged content lecturers and students from using Thai. To follow the mainstream language ideologies in the society, I viewed Thai, despite its (overwhelming) prominence in social contexts, as appropriately being the least essential language in an EMI environment.

1.5.2 Shift in Language Beliefs during 2016-2017

As an EMI researcher, I saw the important role for Thai in the EMI programme due to voices and practices in the field. When HomeU and HASS authorities replaced Thai medium instruction with English, EMI lecturers and students encountered challenges in teaching and learning. They needed the Thai language to assist them in developing students' understanding of academic content. I realised that code-switching occurred in language practices, and the lecturers confirmed that they "*changed/switched/mixed*" English and Thai to promote social interaction and make meaning of content. From this, it is merely implied that the lecturers used code-switching, as there was a definite language boundary. However, based on my classroom observations, I believed that there should be a language practice other

than that described by ‘code-switching’ because the lecturers’ language practices had become more and more complex than what the lecturers actually reported. I also believed that there would have to be a new language ideology underpinning such language practices.

1.5.3 New Language Beliefs in the Present

I strongly concur with the content lecturers’ belief that the students’ understanding of subject-matter knowledge is the end product of instruction. When the focus is such understanding, my language ideology completely shifted. Languages have blurred boundaries when placing them as resources for constructing and negotiating understanding. Indeed, the labels of English and Thai are no longer the central focus; rather, understanding can be achieved by making use of all available language resources. Moreover, languages have no hierarchy since Thai and English equally offer language users an opportunity in making meaning/sense of content, depending on users’ language competencies. This new language ideology is equivalent to translanguaging. Translanguaging is also viewed as language beyond named codes in an instructional process (see Sections 1.5.3 and 2.3.4).

Nevertheless, a social interactional process is also essential in all classrooms. It is undeniable that named languages and their boundaries are acknowledged and reinforced by language ideologies and practices in the society. Named languages are social objects, for the term ‘named languages’ is “defined by the social, political or ethnic affiliation of its speakers” (Otheguy, García, & Reid, 2015, p. 286). To avoid my personal bias of language ideologies, I take these two ideologies, named languages and beyond named languages, into account in constructing conceptualisations of languages as the research framework. Hence, in this study, I use these two lenses: code-switching and translanguaging, to examine my data and other components throughout the thesis.

1.6 Defining Key Terminologies

This study frequently deployed the terminologies associated with aspects of language. The following are short terminology descriptions.

1.6.1 CLIL and EMI

The term 'CLIL' is an approach where lecturers teach a subject-matter knowledge and a foreign language at the same time. Humanities and social sciences courses, for instance, can be taught to students in English and they will not only acquire academic knowledge, but they will also learn the appropriate target language. CLIL has four different aspects or pillars to implementation: content, language, learning, and culture. However, this study emphasises a Language Pillar in particular, as it is the most crucial aspect of teaching content through English. The reason for this is that content was fundamentally formed by language, and language carried such content to students in English medium instruction classrooms.

EMI is the use of English to teach academic content in higher education settings in the non-English speaking world. The term EMI itself implies that English is the only language to deliver subject-matter knowledge to students. In the context of the study, EMI is a sudden movement in a medium of instruction from Thai to English according to the internationalisation trend in Thai universities where several languages other than English were used.

1.6.2 Multilingualism

Multilingualism refers to the linguistic diversity of languages used in the particular community by language users such as university lecturers and students. In this case, this study took place in the multilingual university because HomeU has various languages (e.g., Laos, Thai, Chinese, English, and other Modern/Oriental languages) used by both lecturers and students to communicate in the university zone. My study viewed multilingualism as the presence of languages in a given geographical area. Multilingualism also refers to the competence of an individual being able to use more than one language. My study viewed multilingualism in one user as competence with diverse linguistic abilities to use languages in an academic

context. Multilingualism focuses on language users, in particular. However, multilingual users may have unequal language skills. For example, although Thai content lecturers in HomeU, the multilingual university, are now using the Thai and English languages to instruct academic content, they do not necessarily have equal proficiency in the two languages in giving lectures.

1.6.3 Code-switching and Translanguaging

Code-switching is a language performance of multilingual lecturers for social purposes in EMI classrooms (see Section 2.3.3). Code-switching is formed by the use of Thai and English in three different patterns (i.e., tag code-switching, intrasentential code-switching, and intersentential code-switching). The proportions of two languages in each pattern are not a concern in code-switching. Primarily, code-switching appears when a language user alternates between two languages in the context of a single conversation in EMI classrooms.

Translanguaging is more complex language performance whereby multilingual lecturers deploy their available language resources to mediate complex cognitive activities in EMI classrooms. Translanguaging demonstrates more fluid boundaries between languages.

“Translanguaging is different from code switching” (Otheguy et al., 2015, p. 281) in terms of objectives, origins, and conceptualisation of language. In the context of this study, code-switching aims to promote social interaction and interpersonal communication in everyday life settings (Macaro, 2014), while translanguaging intends to engineer understanding of academic content in instructional arenas (Baker, 2011). A plausible explanation for these divergent objectives derives from historical perspectives. That is, code-switching originally developed from the use of languages in and for social interaction (D. Li, 2008; Macaro, 2014), not teaching and learning activities. Translanguaging derived from classroom practices in such instructional activities (Lewis, Jones, & Baker, 2012), and emphasises intelligibility and meaning- and sense-making (Lewis et al., 2012; W. Li, 2018a).

For conceptualisation of language, code-switching asserts that languages have boundaries, and that they may have imbalanced status (Cenoz, 2019). Code-switching accepts language separability in line with named codes (Lewis et al., 2012; García & Lin, 2017). In contrast, translanguaging blurs boundaries and confers equal status to languages (Cenoz, 2019). Languages are not prioritised as named codes under social and political constructions (Cenoz, 2019; Otheguy et al., 2015), but viewed as linguistic resources (Cenoz, 2019).

These concepts form an essential part of this study and will be extensively explored in the Literature Review in Chapter 2.

1.7 Structure of the Thesis

The overall structure of the thesis takes the form of seven chapters including this introductory chapter. The remaining chapters are structured as follows.

Chapter 2 ties together the various theoretical and empirical strands to build a research agenda. The chapter begins with the historical background of EMI. It then explains the current developments of EMI in tertiary education. Next, it sheds light on pedagogical challenges to the implementation of EMI. Turning to language aspects, the chapter discusses multilingual speakers, languages in classrooms, bridging available linguistic resources, and language performances. It discusses lecturer cognition and practice; and introduces a framework for analysis referred to as ‘roadmapping’. The chapter identifies research spaces and introduces the research questions.

Chapter 3 discusses the specific methods by which the research and analyses were conducted. Beginning with the research paradigm and approach, the chapter explains the interpretivist research paradigm, naturalistic and qualitative inquiry, the case study approach, and relevant data collection instruments. The chapter also defines the study’s participants, purposive sampling technique, and recruitment criteria. After describing the piloting process, it explains data collection procedures as they occurred in situ. The chapter then examines ethical considerations, data organisation and preparation, and forms of analysis, including grounded analysis

and interpretation. Finally, the chapter considers the validity and trustworthiness of the study.

Chapter 4 gives a brief review of the context of the study. The chapter starts with an introduction to EMI Policy at the home university and faculty levels. It then highlights how HASS organised the EMI programme and, in particular, intensive CLIL-orientated workshops for prospective content lecturers at an overseas university (OverseasU). The chapter also discusses content in the CLIL Workshops at OverseasU. The chapter ends with a description of activities after the workshop that lecturers compulsorily participated in under the condition of the HomeU EMI policy.

Chapter 5 presents the main research findings and interpretation. The chapter begins with the findings of lecturer cognition in EMI, that is beliefs, attitudes towards the EMI policy, pedagogical knowledge about the Language Pillar, and the lecturers' anticipation of future challenges of future practice and their proposed solutions. Then, it presents quantitative data of lecturer talk in observed classrooms, focusing on the proportion of Thai and English used, the functions of lecturer talk, and the use of Thai and English in each function. Next, it presents the lecturers' reflection on their practices concerning the key factors shaping and informing their language beliefs and practices. The chapter ends with a summary of the phenomena of language practices in the observed EMI classrooms.

Chapter 6 discusses the important findings of this study in relation to the surrounding current literature in the field. The chapter discusses the key findings by using Dafouz's and Smit's (2016) ROADMAPPING framework focusing on internationalization, agents, language management, academic discipline, practices and processes, the roles of English, and glocalisation.

Chapter 7 concludes the thesis overviewing the important research findings. It then acknowledges the limitations of the study. The chapter presents possible contributions for the field. The main contributions discussed in this chapter are the application of roadmapping and the medium of instruction. It also suggests contextual, practical, and theoretical implications for policy planning and local practices to meet the goals of internationalisation. The chapter then identifies areas

for further research. To end the thesis, the chapter raises final thoughts regarding the researcher voices on researching language beliefs and practices in the EMI programme in a Thai university.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews significant theoretical and empirical literature associated with the four main aspects of the foundations of this study: EMI (English Medium Instruction); multilingualism; lecturer cognition and practices; and the conceptual ROADMAPPING framework (Dafouz & Smit, 2016). It provides a broad construct of the global phenomenon of EMI in global and Asian universities and then narrows to Thai universities to arrive at the current EMI situations in Thailand. This chapter also considers pedagogical challenges to the implementation of EMI regarding language issues. Focusing on the use of more than one language, this chapter explains the term multilingualism and how to best position languages in Thai higher education. It also discusses language in classrooms and the linguistic performance of subject-content lecturers. It presents the possibility of crafting a strong link between lecturer cognition, in particular, beliefs, knowledge, and anticipation, and practices of EMI implementation and language in EMI classrooms. It reveals the complex interplay of language use in classrooms, the context beyond the classrooms such as institutional policy, and the phenomenon of EMI through the conceptual ROADMAPPING framework.

Chapter 2 is arranged in six main sections, presented briefly here. Section 2.1 introduces EMI. This section includes the historical background of EMI, current developments of EMI in tertiary education, and pedagogical challenges to the implementation of EMI. Section 2.2 discusses multilingualism in universities in Thailand. This section discusses the use of more than one language by communities and language users in society and educational contexts. Section 2.3 pays close attention to language in classrooms. This section emphasises communicative and academic language, and the linguistic performance of the lecturers. Section 2.4 explains lecturer cognition and practices. This section draws attention to the concept of lecturer cognition, the relationship between cognition and practice, and lecturer cognition and practice of EMI implementation and language use in EMI. Selected empirical studies are examined. Section 2.5 presents the conceptual

ROADMAPPING framework. This section stresses the rationale of the framework, the six components and their interplay, and the use of the framework for a Thai multilingual university context. Section 2.6 locates research spaces and research questions. This section draws on theoretical, practical, contextual, and methodological spaces. The research questions are presented at the end of the chapter.

2.1 English Medium Instruction

This section focuses on key aspects of English Medium Instruction (hereafter EMI). Section 2.1.1 presents the historical background of EMI. Section 2.1.2 explains current developments of EMI in tertiary education focusing on the spread of EMI programmes in global, and then Asian, and specifically Thai universities. Section 2.1.3 reviews pedagogical challenges to the implementation of EMI. At the end of the section, this literature review identifies the research gaps in the current literature review. These will form the basis of the study.

2.1.1 Historical Background of EMI

This section outlines the historical background of EMI in terms of an instructional shift to teaching content subjects through the English language.

2.1.1.1 Content-based Instruction (CBI)

In the 1980s, Content-based Instruction (CBI) and Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) were the widely known approaches to teaching subject contents through a second or foreign language (L2) in Western countries. CBI aimed to teach language implicitly through content-led teaching (Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 1989; Crandall & Tucker, 1990). Swain and Johnson (1997) noted that CBI is most often associated with the genesis of language immersion education in North America in the 1960s. They also clarified that immersion was an innovation in language education in Canada where French was used as a medium of instruction (hereafter MOI) for the majority of students whose home language was Canadian English. Also, English was used as the MOI for francophone students. CBI had a similar principle to immersion in terms of the use of L2 as the choice of MOI. However,

the major distinction between immersion and CBI is that immersion is intended as an approach to general education, whereas CBI focusses more narrowly on language teaching and learning.

2.1.1.2 Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) has a dual-focused instructional approach in which an additional language is employed for teaching both content and language (Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2010). The term CLIL was launched in Europe in the 1990s and is associated with teaching through the medium of other languages rather than the mother tongue (Marsh, 2002). CLIL and CBI basically share some aspects of an additional language of instruction and educational goals. The medium of instruction of the two approaches can be any language except the first language of the students. However, CLIL has unique characteristics. Coyle et al. (2010) explain that CLIL required an integrated curriculum of language- and subject-specific content based on four main pillars: content, cognition, communication and culture, whereas CBI is an approach to language teaching. In Europe, CLIL has become a widespread teaching approach in primary and secondary schools since it can be combined with a range of academic disciplines (Marsh, 2012; Wolff, 2012). Consequently, language specialists were often required to teach content subjects, and CLIL necessitated content specialists to teach language (Doiz, Lasagabaster, & Sierra, 2014). These forms of teaching could become highly problematic when the language and content knowledge of the teachers was not balanced.

2.1.1.3 English Medium Instruction (EMI)

In the 1990s, several university authorities in the non-English speaking world launched policies that required lecturers from various disciplines to teach academic content through English. In principle, decision-makers formed a medium of instruction policy by taking into account the implications of globalisation, pedagogical rationales and powerful social and political forces (Tollefson & Tsui, 2004). Bianco (2013) explains that some policy-makers decided which language

should be used on the basis of market-based structural adjustments. In this case, the institutions promoted a “knowledge-based economy” to the outside world by using English as the world’s dominant language in the twenty-first century, and thus English was increasingly used as the MOI in tertiary institutions (Graddol, 1997; Pakir, 2004). In Asia, Tsui (2004) found that the authorities in Hong Kong established the following three criteria of EMI implementation: students should have an adequate proficiency in English for learning; teachers needed to have English proficiency to conduct lessons in English; and schools and universities should replace some regular courses with some taught through English as the medium of instruction. These decision-makers in Hong Kong seemed to believe that applying this policy as the main driver for university development would enable local universities to compete with other universities (van der Walt, 2013).

Today, EMI continues to be an instructional trend growing at a concerningly rapid rate. This study examines how it is being implemented in a Thai higher education context, as well as lecturer participants’ beliefs about and practices of EMI implementation. EMI is positioned as the instructional trend and a current phenomenon in the university which is the setting of the study. Hence, attention will be paid to the current development of EMI in the specific setting of the tertiary education institution. EMI implementation in universities across the world will be explained and clarified in the next section.

2.1.2 Current Developments of EMI in Tertiary Education

Current developments of EMI in global, Asian, and Thai universities are discussed below.

2.1.2.1 Global Spread of EMI in Universities

This section briefly discusses the spread of EMI in universities in non-Anglophone countries. The transition of several universities to EMI, their reasons for doing so and some controversial aspects of this transition are raised.

In general, most universities share broadly similar motivations for implementing EMI in tertiary education. More specifically, in some cases graduates could develop content knowledge and English language in order to compete in the globalised

market (Doiz, Lasagabaster, & Sierra, 2011; Morgado & Coelho, 2013). In addition, it has been reported that European and Asian universities have been able to achieve high incomes by recruiting a large number of international students to EMI programmes and by offering EMI programmes, and there has been a great deal of interest in exploiting EMI to improve world university rankings (Piller & Cho, 2013). However, this raises a matter of concern, as it suggests that the world university rankings are the ultimate goal for many universities (Kirkpatrick, 2014) in order to compete with universities in the USA and the UK (Coleman, 2006).

In 2014, it was reported that EMI had spread in private and public universities in 55 countries around the world, including those in Europe, South America, South Africa and Asia (Dearden, 2014). Macaro (2015, p. 4) notes that “the world is experiencing a rapid increase in the teaching of academic subjects through the medium of English in countries where the first language of the majority of the population is not English.” Today, EMI is an instructional trend in the internationalisation of higher education, and it claims to bring a global standard for curricula, knowledge, English acquisition, and wealth to their respective home universities (Altbach & Knight, 2007; Jiang, Zhang, & May, 2019). Clearly, a number of institutions decided to employ EMI as their internationalisation strategy to achieve these goals (Cho, 2012).

EMI is viewed differently by different groups of people and is often a highly controversial topic. Dearden (2014) has gathered diverse cases from different countries and some stakeholders in these countries are concerned about the use of EMI. The first concern is about learning assessment. Dearden reports that in Spain there have been public debates on the assessment of students’ learning with EMI in tertiary education. The second is an understanding of content. There has also been widespread argument in Taiwan about the comprehension of students on EMI courses. The third controversial topic is the potential harm to local culture. She also reported that some Bangladeshi educators have expressed concern that the Western culture might threaten their own cultural beliefs and customs. Despite the validity of this assertion, EMI continues to grow in Bangladeshi universities because EMI is equated with good education and learning outcomes. The fourth concern is linked to an inequality of access to EMI. In Hungary, well-educated parents considered

that EMI was instrumental in developing a good command of English, and an EMI curriculum was an important criterion for selecting schools and universities.

It is clear that EMI is mushrooming in higher education all over the world. What is not yet clear is the impact of EMI on lecturers' beliefs and practices, and vice versa. Thus, the present research will pay close attention to these matters.

2.1.2.2 EMI in Asian Universities

This section begins by giving an account of the MOI in post-colonial Asia and the current situation of EMI. It then examines possible reasons for EMI implementation and selected empirical research on EMI in Asian universities.

According to Kachru's (1990) concentric circles of English, countries are grouped according to their usage of English: the "inner circle" comprises those countries where English is the dominant and first language of the population; "the outer circle" is where the indigenous populations often use English as a second language because they were once colonised by the English (Kachru, 1990). These countries include Hong Kong, Singapore, Malaysia, the Philippines, and others. In South East Asia, Kirkpatrick (2014) reports that educational standards in Hong Kong and Singapore are high and the two countries have aimed to be international education hubs by employing EMI for some decades. In Malaysia, the Ministry of Education declared that Malaysia would accomplish the goal of 200,000 international students studying in Malaysia before 2020 (Helms, Rumbley, Brajkovic, & Mihut, 2015). In 2014, the Philippines were said to be redeveloping EMI programmes in tertiary education after a failure of the Filipino policy implementation due to disapproval of the policy by academics and students (Kirkpatrick, 2014).

Another of Kachru's circles is "the expanding circle." It is a place for countries using English as a foreign language such as Japan, Vietnam and Indonesia. These countries have no history of British or American colonisation, and are utilising EMI intensively (Doiz, Lasagabaster, & Sierra, 2013; Hamid, Jahan, & Islam, 2013). In Japan, the Global 30 project was launched by the Japanese Government to promote internationalisation. The government aimed to attract 300,000 international students to study EMI programmes at 30 selected universities across Japan

(Bradford, 2013). In Vietnam, Dang, Nguyen and Le (2013) explained there was a need to improve Vietnamese graduates' capabilities to enable the country to participate in the international market as well as to promote globalisation. EMI was also the starting point as a strategy for developing human capital in Vietnam. Floris (2014) reported that EMI or CLIL has been encouraged by the Indonesian Ministry of Education since 2006, and by 2010 at least one private university had officially implemented the policy.

EMI has continued to interest Asian university administrators keen to see their institutions in the same league as European universities. Ministries of Education in South East Asia applied European universities' rationales for EMI implementation, and encouraged universities to offer EMI courses (Barnard, 2014, 2015). There is a belief that EMI supports Asian graduates in gaining full or sufficient mobility across a globalised market (Galloway, Kriukow, & Numajiri, 2017). In 2009, the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) piloted the ASEAN International Mobility for Students Programme (The AIMS Programme) with similar aims to those of Erasmus in the European Union (Helms et al., 2015).

A noticeable lack of in-depth empirical research on EMI has been revealed in tertiary education in Asia, particularly observations of teaching EMI in actual classrooms. Although there are the existing case studies of EMI classrooms in South East Asian universities (e.g., Hasim & Barnard, 2018; Haji-Othman & McLellan, 2018; Hamied & Lengkanawati, 2018) that captured some incidents in classrooms, empirical evidence of practices lacked the richness and variety of data due to short classroom observations. In previous studies on EMI, Kirkpatrick (2014) studied EMI positions in university settings in Asia. He focused mainly on an overview picture of EMI situations and the motivation for EMI implementation. Galloway et al. (2017) investigated the EMI movement in limited areas in Japan and China. Other studies (e.g., Macaro, 2018; Ryan, 2018) only discussed up-to-date EMI situations in general.

To attempt to bridge a research gap in this field, the present study examines lecturers' practice of EMI pedagogy regarding the use of language in classrooms based on their personal beliefs and experiential knowledge in classroom settings. A case study of lecturer cognition and practices in a Thai university has the potential

to yield valuable knowledge for the institution, the nation, and beyond. The national policy in higher education in Thailand is described in further detail in the next section.

2.1.2.3 EMI in Thai Universities

This section introduces the previous and present internationalisation policies for Thai tertiary education. Below are relevant EMI policies in Thai universities at a national level.

In 1990, Thailand's Ministry of University Affairs initiated the first 15-year plan of the internationalisation policy in higher education (1990-2004) because the country was being affected by global competitiveness in higher education (Kalvemark & Van der Wende, 1997; Lavankura, 2013; Ministry of University Affairs, 1990). Suchart (2000) explained that Thai universities had two main tasks under this policy: to serve the government and society; and to pursue academic missions. They were required to work under the four concepts of internationalisation: "global awareness," "economic competitiveness," "international level competence" and "specific skills" (Ministry of University Affairs, 1991). To embrace the policy, Thai universities offered EMI for immersion courses in English, also known as international programmes. EMI had become an educational tenet by the early 1990s, following the introduction of the international policy in 1990 (Lavankura, 2013; Ministry of University Affairs, 2003; Office of the Higher Education Commission, 2011; Tong-In, Sinlarat, & Ponooy, 1995). It was claimed that with the help of international programmes Thai students could improve their English skills and broaden their international outlook (Lao, 2015). Thai policy-makers also believed that internationalisation would raise Thai academic standards to international levels (Lavankura, 2013; Tong-In et al., 1995).

In 2008, the Commission on Higher Education (2008) launched the second 15-year plan on higher education (2008-2022). Due to the increasing tensions of professional competitiveness in the ASEAN job market, Thailand arranged this educational plan to improve graduates' ability to perform well at both national and global levels. In this plan, the English language was used as the main driver to lift Thai higher education to equal international standards. Chapter 4 discusses how

HomeU, the site of the research study, translated the policy at the national level to an institutional level.

To sum up, the setting for this research is Thailand, where an internationalisation policy in the higher education context has been in place for nearly 30 years. Over this time, many Thai universities have agreed to launch international programmes where English is the MOI in order to compete with other world-class institutions (Tayjasant, 2014). In more recent years, the Office of Higher Education Commission (2017, 2018) revealed that Thailand has more than 769 international programmes with 20,497 undergraduate and postgraduate international students learning in different academic disciplines. However, recent evidence shows that Thai tertiary education lacks research regarding EMI. Although the HASS authorities impose English Linguistic Gears, that is, levels of English use (Chapter 4 explains English Linguistic Gears in detail), for the lecturers to choose from, they do not provide any advice regarding EMI pedagogy. Such a lack of pedagogical guidelines may create tension between the institutional policies and practices, and the study investigates how the lecturers at HASS, that is, the Faculty the study investigates, interpret EMI and what they actually do in the classrooms.

It could be seen as unwise to introduce a new language policy without explicit directions on how to implement it at classroom levels as this will impact greatly on the content lecturers' instruction. It is important to raise an awareness of pedagogical challenges to the implementation of EMI in order to understand what they will encounter in their current and future practice.

2.1.3 Pedagogical Challenges to the Implementation of EMI

This section debates the current concern about pedagogical challenges to the implications of EMI. It begins with perspectives from policy to practice that highlight policy-making without taking into account actual practice, and then discusses the complexity of academic English in EMI. This section also discusses a lack of, and a need for, preparation for lecturers in English and pedagogical content knowledge. This section reviews EMI as a monolingual MOI in a

multilingual world and discusses possible opportunities to go beyond a monolingual lens.

2.1.3.1 From Policy to Practice

There is a growing volume of published studies describing the role of policy in EMI in Asian universities. The policy has, among other things, to do with language management and language practices (Dafouz & Smit, 2016). The selection of which language(s) should be used as MOI is a major decision to make in education policy (Tollefson & Tsui, 2004). The research to date has been mainly concerned with the planning and implementing of policy with limited emphasis on actual language practice (Byun, Chu, Kim, Park, Kim, & Jung, 2011; Ryan, 2018). One study by Ryan (2018) explored a shared problem in the EMI policies in Asian universities.

... what have been less consistently well-articulated are the actual policies that shape the local practice of EMI provision. Specifically, in most of these particular universities, ... [their] polic[ies] remained rather light in terms of EMI pedagogy, ... Presumably, there would be institutional assumptions about what EMI should look like in practice, but it appears that these assumptions were often not well-documented in ways that are accessible for staff. (p.17)

It is unwise to implement such language policy without asking relevant practitioners (i.e., lecturers and students) since there is a strong potential risk of divergence between management policy and actual practices. As regards the use of languages in EMI programmes, Ryan (2018) also claims that in some cases, there are strict prohibitions on the use of the students' and lecturers' shared mother tongue. In general, the word 'use' here is taken to mean written and spoken accounts. The use of such multilingual communicative resources by lecturers and students can cause tensions (Gnutzmann, 2008) since they are prohibited from using their mother tongue in teaching and learning.

Hu and Lei (2014) used a critical analysis of national/institutional policy statements and interviews with lecturers and undergraduate students to disclose EMI-related language ideologies, language practices, and language management mechanisms. They found that these constitutive components have a complex interplay of EMI

implementation. However, there was a lack of consensus regarding language policy and practice in the classroom. The policy-makers recognised the necessity for English competence for human development. So, they introduced EMI as a new language mechanism for classroom practice. Both lecturers and students had considerable difficulty in constructing and understanding knowledge in English. They recognised that this would bring negative effects on both discipline and language learning. Thus, “Chinese was also frequently used as a medium of instruction in the EMI classroom” (Hu & Lei, 2014, p. 562). Indeed, such language belief and practice of lecturers are divergent from the language policy.

However, encountering practice in reality, it is unrealistic to work in English only. Ryan (2018) explains that, in the Asian countries he surveyed, the use of the mother tongue happened naturally during the process of negotiating meaning. In a comparative study of EMI in Austria and Thailand, classroom interaction also frequently took place in the vernacular languages as well as English (Baker & Hüttner, 2017). There appears to be a case for other languages to play a role when both lecturers and students share other languages.

Instruction is a complex activity. Hence, only revealing language issues used in instruction is insufficient to address pedagogical challenges to the implementation of EMI. Several studies have demonstrated that lecturers are regarded as the most valuable and the crucial factor in EMI instruction as they provide the main inputs into the instructional process. They are high authorities on their discipline and are the persons responsible for student learning. Without preparing lecturers, EMI practice will become more challenging.

Academic English in EMI is one of the significant challenges the students face. Thus, the lecturers need to raise awareness of this concern.

2.1.3.2 Complexity of Academic English in EMI

Academic English comprises academic literacies which have both specific language and unique discipline domains, linking “linguistic/rhetorical conventions and knowledge-making practices in academia” (Lillis & Tuck, 2016 p. 30). English for academic purposes (EAP) refers to the use of the language needed to perform

academic tasks in research, publication, learning and teaching (Charles, 2013; Flowerdew, 2013; Kwan, 2010). For publication, writing has become the main practice concern (Flowerdew, 2013). Chapter 6 discusses Academic English in the context of the study.

EMI differs significantly from everyday English in terms of the specific domains of discourse production. Vocabulary items, syntax, and registers of academic English are generally more complex than the language features of everyday English (Roessingh, 2005; Snow, 2010). In addition, the generic structure of academic discourse varies from one discipline to another; thus, how information is structured in humanities subjects such as history is widely different from the structure used in science subjects.

To understand academic lectures, learners must develop their understanding of the lexico-grammatical and discourse features of academic English to meet the demands of the language used in the particular academic discipline they are studying (Johns, 1997; Schleppegrell & Colombi, 2002). This applies to all learners, irrespective of their first language, because there is no native speaker of academic English (Gurney, 2018). “[A]ll novices undergo secondary socialisation into academic discourses, regardless of their linguistic background” (Mauranen, Hynninen, & Ranta, 2010, p. 184). However, academic English has significant challenges built in for foreign language students (Cohen, Glasman, Rosenbaum-Cohen, Ferrara, & Fine, 1988) since they are not acquainted with the technical vocabulary in their disciplines. In Asian tertiary settings, students and lecturers need to develop their academic English skills in tandem with everyday English (Kirkpatrick, 2017) in order to participate in EMI programmes (Brown & Adamson, 2012).

Two studies have focused on academic English challenges in EMI programmes in Hong Kong universities. Evans and Green (2007) conducted a survey study with 5,000 Cantonese-speaking students. The majority of the students found considerable difficulties in acquiring and using academic English because their receptive and productive vocabulary were inadequate to meet the demands of the syllabus. As a result, they lacked understanding of their academic subjects. Subsequently, Evans and Morrison (2011) conducted an interview-based longitudinal study with 28 undergraduates who did their first degree in a second

language. The findings showed inadequate academic English meant that the students were unable to access technical vocabulary, understand academic English lectures, and process and produce main disciplinary genres to demonstrate their understanding of the subject.

As mentioned above, many universities do not have clear guidelines on how to practise EMI in classrooms. Therefore, many lecturers are obliged to find their own practical solutions. This causes critical concerns about pedagogical challenges to the real classrooms across the globe (Doiz et al., 2011; Lin & Lo, 2018; Tupas, 2018). In recent years, a small number of authors have begun to discover a sound pedagogy for EMI. The next section provides more detail on this issue.

2.1.3.3 Preparing Lecturers to Teach in English

A great deal of previous research into EMI has raised concerns about the linguistic competence of local university lecturers to ensure that they can provide meaningful explanations and interact with their students in English (Kirkpatrick, 2018; Macaro, 2015). The inadequate English skills of Asian lecturers signifies a critical challenge to the effective EMI implementation in numerous universities across Asia (Kirkpatrick, 2018) since English is not their first language, and the subtleties of academic English present even more difficulties for these EMI lecturers. Although Macaro (2015) positioned “English as a global language and... as a lingua franca” (p. 4), to yield good returns, he argued that high English proficiency should be the norm of EMI implementation. He looks for levels of English language proficiency of EMI lecturers that are similar to their mother tongue levels “to ensure that they teach at least as effectively as through their first language” (Macaro, 2015, p. 7).

However, much of the available literature on EMI policy and practice in Asia has indicated that the policy management has paid little attention to the English language preparation of EMI lecturers to meet such norms raised by Macaro (2015). The institutional assumption is that once the university lecturers hold their highest academic degrees from respected educational institutions, these lecturers can use English to instruct academic content (Ryan, 2018). Barnard (2015) argues that not all lecturers can do so:

While many have successfully studied masters-level and doctoral programmes in English-speaking countries, this does not necessarily mean that they have the pedagogic ability to deliver conceptually complex matters in a second language. Many academic staff who have studied only in their home country and first language are likely to have more difficulties... (p. 9)

The lecturers who had degrees in their home language were said to face more challenges in both academic language and pedagogy than those having their degree from the overseas institutions. However, Ryan (2018) argues that both groups find it challenging to transfer complex abstract ideas for their students in a way that their students can understand. That is why, in some cases, delivering such complex cognitive content is avoided. “If these are required to teach programmes in English, there is a danger of watering-down the academic content of the courses” (Barnard, 2018, p. 8). Ryan (2018) argues:

the relevant linguistic challenge goes much further than traditional concerns of subject-specific vocabulary and accurate grammatical expression; what is required is a sufficiently creative and audience-responsive command of English to render sophisticated hearer-new concepts in a manner appropriate to the language and knowledge levels of the students. (p. 19)

Collectively, these studies suggest that there is an urgent need for an appropriate model for EMI (Barnard, 2015; Ryan, 2018) well-suited to these lecturers’ circumstances. Nevertheless, there appears to be little professional development on this specific issue in Asia and elsewhere (Barnard, 2015, 2018; Macaro, 2015, 2018; Ryan, 2018).

2.1.3.4 Pedagogical Content Knowledge

Although lecturers specialised in academic content, it has been argued that not all academics can teach EMI content. They need to have had comprehensive professional preparation to provide them with the fundamental knowledge for EMI teaching (Kirkpatrick, 2018; Lin & Lo, 2018). Lin and Lo (2018) revisited Shulman’s (1986) research on the root of teachers’ knowledge to classify the

primary knowledge of EMI lecturers. As a consequence, he identified that the lecturers should have knowledge of content, general pedagogy, pedagogical content knowledge, curriculum, educational contexts, students, educational goal, and philosophical and historical grounds (Shulman, 1986).

From the categories above, Lin and Lo (2018) focus on the pedagogical content knowledge or PCK because it refers to “ways of representing and formulating the subject that make it comprehensible to others” (Shulman, 1986, p. 9). Andrews and Lin (2018) elucidated reasons why language is a weighty matter in instructing content.

[I]n the specific CLIL context, what do we mean when we talk about integrating content and language learning? The key to understanding this is to differentiate between *using* subject-specific language to teach content on the one hand, and *teaching* subject-specific language to talk about content on the other. That is, when we ask the question: how can teachers integrate content learning with language learning? the focus is a pedagogical one (Dalton-Puffer, 2013). TLA [teacher language awareness] thus encompasses both using and teaching the language of content areas. (Andrews & Lin, 2018, p. 16, emphasis in original).

Baker and Hüttner (2019) note that “the distinction between content and language becomes blurred...” (p. 80). Indeed, content and academic language are essentially attached and interdependent because the two aspects are integrated into creating the domain of higher tertiary education. Academic language plays a significant role in meaning-making of such a domain (Lin, 2016). So, lecturers must have language awareness that focuses more on what aspects of academic language should be included in the English MOI to interpret and transform subject-matter knowledge to support students’ understanding in the context of pedagogical practice (Andrews, 2007). Kirkpatrick (2018, p. 123) suggests that EMI lecturers should have appropriate pedagogical content knowledge because “that is the way to make a subject comprehensible to others, [and it] is of central importance,” a point also made by Lin and Lo (2018).

In what has been claimed to be the most respected definition of English medium instruction, the term *language* appears to be the English language only. The following section provides more detail on this issue.

2.1.3.5 EMI as a Monolingual Medium of Instruction

The current definition of EMI from EMI Oxford, the Centre for Research and Development on English Medium Instruction, may be viewed as controversial. The following is a recent definition:

[EMI is] [t]he use of the English language to teach academic subjects (other than English itself) in countries or jurisdictions where the first language of the majority of the population is not English. (Macaro, 2018, p. 1)

This definition was coined to describe the implementation of English as a medium of instruction in subject-matter courses rather than the English language courses per se. This current definition emphasises the importance of the English language playing a single role in academic contexts such as the classrooms. Although EMI is placed in these countries/jurisdictions, mother tongues have received scant attention in the definition. As indicated above, EMI itself implies a monolingual approach to instruction (Barnard, 2018).

Many Asian universities adopt the definition above to highlight the very strong orientation to English only in EMI programmes. Taking Thailand for instance, Baker and Jarunthawatchai (2017) state that English as monolingual MOI is deeply embedded in English language policies for Thailand education. Languages used in bilingualism in Thai education are Thai as L1 and English as L2. When implementing L2 in instruction, there is often tension between native-speakerism and the true nature of Thai lecturers. Generally speaking, many people in Thailand still have their ideology that “‘native-speaker’ teachers represent a ‘Western culture’ from which spring the ideals both of the English language and of English language teaching methodology” (Holliday, 2005, p. 6). Thus, EMI (Thai) lecturers have been encountering English monolingual norms. Indeed, the norm is a long-

established tradition in national policy and social preferences, with an emphasis on the so-called native speaker of English (NSE) in English education.

This NSE was set as a norm at a Thai national policy level. Indeed, one of the main focuses in educational policies in Thailand is “[...] communication, fluency, understanding the culture of native speakers [...]” (Darasawang & Watson Todd, 2012, p. 4). At the social level, Darasawang (2007) states that Thailand receives considerable support from America and other English-speaking countries in several aspects. Thailand is experiencing a growing influence on trade, higher education, media, and entertainment from them. Many view that the NSE has more competence than non-native speakers of English (NNSE). Thus, for parents and students, the NSE is commonly their first choice (Baker, 2008).

There is a lesson to be learnt for some societies. They give privileges to NSEs but marginalisation to NNSEs. This situation leads to cause for concern. Aneja (2016, p. 590) explains that a male NNSE lecturer claimed that his “feelings of marginalization are more closely connected with his racial, socioeconomic, and academic background.” This decreases the lecturer’s self-esteem. Llorca (2014, p. 2) states that “[m]any non-native English teachers ... feel inferior or suffer from low self-esteem due to the native/non-native categorization and the attitudes associated with it.” When comparing NNSEs with NSEs, Lee, Schutz, and van Vlack (2017) have thrown light on the NNSEs’ anxieties and insecurities. A large and growing body of literature has investigated how the labels of NSE and NNSE in English education negatively impact on the teaching lives of those lecturers deploying English as L2 (Leonard, 2018). Darasawang and Watson Todd (2012, p. 4) also argue that “[i]n an era where English as an international language is coming to the fore, such a view of culture seems outdated.”

There is an opportunity for welcoming EMI to merge into languages existing in reality. Phillipson (2018) notes that a shift to EMI in universities should not be harmful to the mother tongue. Kirkpatrick (2014) recommends that EMI lecturers should be encouraged to use the languages they know other than English in the classroom, although the subject is officially EMI. So, in this case, “[w]hen dealing with ‘English-medium education,’ for instance, the conceptualization of English needs to go beyond the standardized, abstracted norm that the label seems to reduce

it to” (Dafous & Smit, 2016, p. 400). The following section draws on realistic reasons and possible opportunities to go beyond the monolingual lens.

2.1.3.6 Beyond a Monolingual Perspective

Classrooms offer opportunities for lecturers to go beyond the monolingual lens. Although many Asian universities forbade and/or discouraged the use of the first language, all lecturers in eight case studies in Barnard and McLellan (2014) used a combination of languages for many purposes. Their study showed that a monolingual approach could not purely occur in reality. A possible explanation for this was that the mother tongue was highly instrumental in bringing success to the classes. Thus, Kirkpatrick (2018) recommended that lecturers and students would continuously be encouraged to deploy their available language resources to make meaning, particularly when demand for the cognitive load was raised. Haji-Othman and McLellan (2018) agreed that they were unable to disregard the importance and roles of other languages in actual classroom practices.

Therefore, “classroom input, interaction and output in every EMI context will be a mixture of English (and first language) varieties” (Barnard, 2018, p. 10). There is an attempt to integrate English and the first language in instruction. “[I]t needs to be stressed that any EMI course does not necessarily exclude the use of other languages” (Kirkpatrick, 2018, p. 122) for interactional teaching. Parallel academic usage should be forms of EMI instruction that blend students’ mother tongue in interactions. Hence, criteria for choice of MOI should consider lecturers’ language proficiency (Phillipson, 2018, p. xiv). Kirkpatrick comments:

EMI should not be seen as an English only enterprise but as a multilingual phenomenon where [lecturers] and students are encouraged to use their linguistic resources; the ‘E’ in EMI should be seen as English as a lingua franca, not as a native speaking variety of English; the EMI guidelines should recognise the complexity behind delivering complex cognitive content through a second language.... (2018, p.123)

Various theorists and researchers have emphasised the importance of going beyond monolingual English. Kirkpatrick (2018) notes that English in EMI should not be

exclusively the English of native speakers. A great deal of effort has gone into making recommendations about encouraging the use of a variety of English apart from English from Anglophone countries and integrating the lecturers' linguistic resources. By so doing, student participants in Saeed, Varghese, Holst and Ghazali' (2018) study reported that their lecturers found mixing English and mother tongue was less challenging than using only a monolingual habitus as the MOI.

Bradford (2016) studied the challenges facing EMI in Japanese higher education to gain a fuller understanding of the issues affecting EMI implementation in an undergraduate degree. She collected semi-structured interview data with 27 academics from three universities in the fields of Culture, Sports, Science and Technology through the government's Global 30 (G30) Project. The study reported that linguistic challenges were the main cause of EMI implementation challenges when lecturers and/or students are working in a non-native language. Bradford concludes that as Japanese students lacked ability in using English to learn academic texts, lecturers had to reduce a proportion of English in the classroom. English reduction is viewed as a low-quality EMI programme. Her study concludes that "these challenges can result in reduced program quality..." (p. 345). In terms of content, how much the content can be delivered is dependent on how much the lecturers used Japanese to Japanese students.

Hence, an opportunity has been identified for lecturers to use their linguistic resources to deliver content. However, it is blurred in yielding good returns when following these recommendations since it is a theoretical perspective. Additionally, there is a lack of reflection on the practice of EMI lecturers when such recommendations are implemented. To bridge theoretical perspectives and practical experience in the field, the current research pays attention to the use of two languages outlined above in classroom practice. It is important to also consider the actual language practices that lecturers and students are engaging in and the potentially conflicting mechanism from policy-makers, and to encourage an in-depth understanding of the nature of EMI lecturers in terms of characteristics of language users in a Thai context. The following sections discuss insights into multilingualism in Thai universities.

2.2 Multilingualism in Thai Universities

This section explains the use of more than one language by a community and an individual user in Thai university contexts. Section 2.2.1 emphasises multilingualism that informs the use of various languages by a community and an individual speaker in society. Section 2.2.2 focuses on multilingual users and discusses the ability of language users in EMI classrooms.

2.2.1 Multilingual Thai Universities

Multilingualism “refers to broader social language context/contact(s) and the coexistence of several languages in a particular situation” (Marshall & Moore, 2013, p. 474). A well-recognised definition of multilingualism given by the European Commission (2007) is “the ability of societies, institutions, groups, and individuals to engage, on a regular basis, with more than one language in their day-to-day lives” (p. 6).

W. Li (2008) also argues that the term multilingual can refer either to a society or to individuals. He defined a multilingual individual as “anyone who can communicate in more than one language, be it active (through speaking and writing) or passive (through listening and reading)” (p. 4). However, multilingualism in this study emphasises languages of the society and institution that construct multilingual Thai universities and stress the ability of language users. Regarding the ability of language users in English as a medium of instruction, in the following section, multilingual defines an individual’s ability and skills to deploy languages in EMI settings.

Universities in Thailand could be characterised as multilingual universities because of their linguistic richness. Multilingualism “refers to broader social language context/contact(s) and the coexistence of several languages in a particular situation” (Marshall & Moore, 2013, p. 474). In this regard, Thailand is a multilingual society, as there are seventy-one living languages spoken across Thailand (Eberhard, Gary, & Charles, 2019); for example, Chinese, Malay, Lao, and Khmer (National Identity Board, 2000; Foley, 2005). This illustrates the European Commission’s (2007) definition of multilingualism.

This definition can locate multilingualism in Thai universities as well as position them as multilingual universities. Thai universities are home to international and local staff and students so that their “societies are... constructing themselves by language and other semiotic means in fittingly transient, dynamic, and fluid ways” (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, p. 399). Various languages for everyday communication and other linguistic resources are building multilingual Thai universities.

Individual and societal multilingualism appear to be not completely separated. It is more likely that language users who live in a multilingual society speak more than one language.

2.2.2 Multilingual Users in EMI Programmes

Many works of literature have noted the importance of multilingualism as an ability of an individual to use more than two languages. Multilingual usage is sometimes referred to as plurilingualism (Cenoz & Gorter, 2013). These two terms are often used interchangeably (Grommes & Hu, 2014). Multilingualism users have the distinct aspects of the individual’s personal repertoires and language performances (García & W. Li, 2014; Marshall & Moore, 2013; Moore & Gajo, 2009) because they have an imbalance of competencies in and development of several languages, vernaculars, and registers (Cenoz & Gorter, 2013; Coste, Moore, & Zarate, 2009; Piccardo, 2013).

Multilingualism highlights the capability of language users to become multilingual without a prerequisite knowledge of balanced languages (Canagarajah, 2009; Lin & Lo, 2018) since a multilingual user takes codes from the language repertoire at different levels. The imbalance of the use of languages is necessarily limited because multilingualism plays an essential role in several settings, such as educational settings, with different degrees of proficiencies (Council of Europe, 2006). Thus, the multilingual competence of the individual is perceived as unbalanced in one or more language or skills (Coste et al., 2009); for instance, multilingual users are good at oracy skills in two languages, but good at literacy in another one. Therefore, “[w]hat is expected is not maximum proficiency but a range of language skills and receptiveness to cultural diversity” (Coste, 2014 p. 22). In

general, multilingual users may have intermediate, upper intermediate, or advanced, proficiency of language levels depending on individuals and skills. Regarding communicative competence, multilingual users recognise who deploys what language to whom, when, and for what purpose.

Multilingual users deploy the resources permanently available to them such as gestures, mime, and codeswitching to run interactions (Coste et al., 2009). Some skills for plurilingualism involve combinations and alternations of diverse types of codes rather than a simple addition of languages from mono/bilingual competences (Coste et al., 2009). Being multilingual users, “[i]t is possible to switch codes during a message and to resort to bilingual forms of speech. A single, richer repertoire of language varieties and available options thus allows choices based on this interlinguistic variation when circumstances permit” (Stavans & Hoffmann, 2015, p. 160).

Placing multilingualism into South East Asian EMI settings, lecturers and students aim “to enable communication and understanding to take place through the use of more than one language in interactions” (Marshall & Moore, 2018, p. 31). In this current study, EMI lecturers are defined as multilingual users, for they have varying degrees of competence in their ability and skill in languages for giving instruction. Their English language is weaker than their Thai language. While other scholars use the terms multilingual and plurilingual users interchangeably, this study will use multilingual users.

Although Thai universities are multilingual by nature of their linguistic richness, Thai and English are officially allowed for use as the main MOI in classrooms. Only English as the first foreign language is a likely candidate for sharing the leading role in Thai higher education. Foley (2005) notes that English is used very widely in Thai tertiary education. Language in classrooms will be elaborated further in the next section.

2.3 Languages in Classrooms

It is essential to understand varieties of language used in EMI classrooms, simply because users deploy different registers in particular classroom situations. In a non-

academic conversational climate, there are varieties of language that language users particularly deploy when communicating. Further, in an academic classroom communicational climate, language users employ another variety of language to comprehend and discuss academic content.

This section reviews essential aspects of languages in classrooms. Section 2.3.1 focusses on Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (hereafter BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (hereafter CALP) (Cummins, 2017). Section 2.3.2 discusses how to bridge L1 and L2 in EMI classrooms. Sections 2.3.3 and 2.3.4 review and compare code-switching and translanguaging as possible language practices in EMI classrooms according to the existing literature.

2.3.1 Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP)

In bilingual education, L1 and L2 have two distinct dimensions when the lecturers communicate with and instruct students in subject content in EMI classrooms. The first dimension is BICS, and the second one is CALP. These terms are derived from the early work of Cummins (1984). BICS contains everyday language that builds and carries conversation through basic lexis, pronunciation, and oracy skills (Bylund, 2011). Speakers use BICS in their everyday life such as in informal conversation settings (Lin, 2016). Generally, BICS has particular purposes and takes place under certain situations. CALP refers to academic language skills that allow an individual to process and make meaning of language in an academic mode (Bylund, 2011). Speakers use CALP “to understand and discuss academic topics in the classroom and to read and write about these topics in school assignments and examinations” (Lin, 2016, p. 11). Thus, CALP is the language of academic content that pertains to instructional, research and publication contexts. CALP is represented as “the manipulation of language in decontextualized academic situations” (Cummins, 1984, p. 137).

There are distinctive positions of BICS and CALP and their conditions. Cummins (2017) explains these positions using the image of an iceberg. BICS is in the above-the-surface level, meaning that high orders of thinking skills are not required. In the classroom, lecturers deploy everyday English to communicate with students outside

academic arenas. The language is easy to speak and understand. CALP is in the below-the-surface level so that higher order skills are needed. CALP is complex because it contains academic English that differs from BICS in terms of grammar and vocabulary. Lecturers employ academic content words and/or technical terms to deliver content. It also needs to be recognised that discourse varies from one discipline to another. The language is difficult to discuss and understand. Baker (2013) elaborates on these points:

BICS is said to occur when there are contextual supports and props for language delivery. Face-to-face *context embedded* situations provide, for example, nonverbal support to secure understanding. Actions with eyes and hands, instant feedback, cues and clues support verbal language. [Similarly, classroom instruction allows lecturers to use these gestures and cues as well.] CALP, on the other hand, relates to context reduced academic situations. Where higher order thinking skills [...] are required in the curriculum, language is *disembedded* from a meaningful, supportive context. Where language is *disembedded*, the situation is often referred to as *context reduced*. (p. 388, emphasis in original)

To help students make meaning from lecturers' spoken and written language, context embedded language is supported by contextual clues, such as graphs and presentation slides. Context-reduced language does not provide sufficient concrete clues for the students to build their understanding through academic language easily, as academic language commonly contains abstract concepts.

Two studies have investigated the use of BICS and CALP in educational settings. The findings shed new light on the importance of these two dimensions in L2. Hull (2018) studied the language gap and how classroom dialogue fails in academic subjects such as history, maths, and others. Content analysis from teaching materials and teacher talk showed that teachers' everyday language played a role as a natural vehicle in facilitating learning and interaction. However, everyday language caused classroom interaction breakdown due to its the limitations. That is, the students were unable to deploy everyday language to access academic knowledge and to form their understanding of academic content. Dang and Webb

(2014) looked at the lexical demands of academic spoken English in 160 lectures and 39 seminars from the fields of arts and humanities, life and medical sciences, physical sciences, and social sciences. They found that academic English language played a major role in teacher talk during content delivery. EMI learning demanded knowledge of academic English vocabulary items to understand academic content knowledge. Thus, one of the greatest challenges for L2 students in EMI lessons was facing difficulties in their understanding of the academic spoken English in these lectures/seminars.

In summary, BICS and CALP make a distinction between spoken/written language in a conversational climate and spoken/written language in an academic communicational climate. The former is easier to understand because it contains everyday language and simple structures. The latter is less easy to comprehend as it comprises specialised vocabulary and complex language structures. This study uses the terms ‘Everyday English’ to refer to BICS and ‘Academic Language’ to refer to CALP as a conceptual framework to foresee and explain the possible types of verbal language used by the content lecturers in EMI classrooms.

The ultimate goals of EMI are to develop the students’ content knowledge and also to improve their proficiency in academic English. So, the first priority of EMI lecturers should be to understand how to build all language resources to interact with and convey academic subject knowledge to students. Lin’s (2012) Rainbow Diagram tends to fulfil this need because it presents a possible way to bridge L1 and L2 of EMI lecturers for instructional purposes. This aspect will be elaborated in the next section.

2.3.2 Bridging L1 and L2

Bridging refers to an integration of the stronger language and the weaker language to gain advantage from a multilingual standpoint. The objective of bridging L1 and L2 for content lecturers is to use available language resources to develop content lecturers’ understanding of academic content knowledge. In so doing, bridging L1 and L2 in EMI classrooms goes beyond translation of words. Bridging languages has borrowed Cook’s (2002) notion of the imbalance between L1 and L2: “L1 for

the native and stronger language, and L2 for the second and weaker language” (p. 38). Saito (2015, p. 42) claims that “L1 competence is essential to succeed in all subjects.” Apart from spoken language, multiple resources such as visuals and multimodalities should be involved in bridging events that extend beyond lexical levels. The content lecturers should understand their students as being meaning makers. Lin (2016, p. 183) recommends that:

In order for CLIL students to understand ‘concepts’, instead of merely reciting/mouthing L2 wordings that mediate these concepts, students need to have a chance to: (i) relate the new thematic patterns (that mediate the new concepts) to their existing thematic patterns (that mediate the concepts they already know or are familiar with), and (ii) to realize that the everyday (e.g. L1) wordings that they already know can be used to mediate these new concepts while at the same time learning new academic (L2) wordings to mediate these new concepts so as to speak/write like a content specialist (e.g. a scientist, a historian and a social scientist).

With bridging language resources, lecturers raise an awareness to assist the students in gaining comprehension of academic content; lecturer talk links new knowledge to students’ prior knowledge. In bridging events in lecturer talk, attention to everyday oral registers, academic oral registers, and academic written registers of L1 and L2 is needed. Building on BICS, and CALPS, Lin (2012) proposes a Rainbow Diagram that illustrates bridging of all these registers (see Figure 2.1).

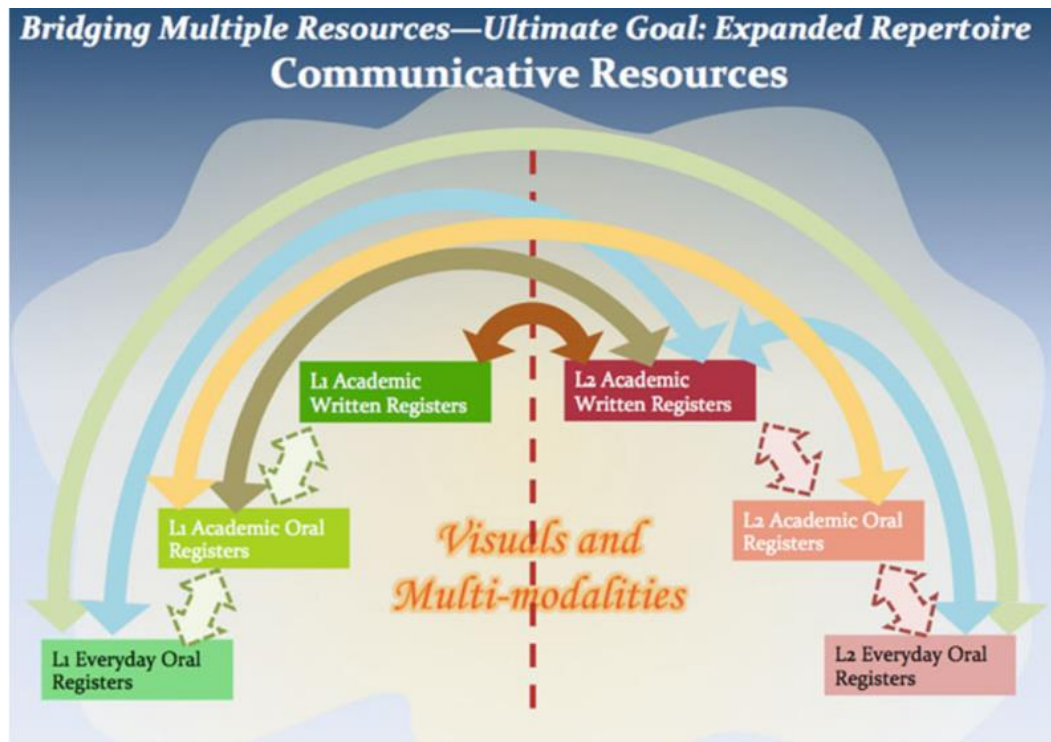


Figure 2.1: Lin's Rainbow Diagram

Source: Lin (2012, p. 93) Reprinted with permission

Lin (2012) proposed and designed a dual theoretical-and-practical model of bridging L1-L2 repertoire and multimodalities as language resources in EMI settings. Her model is derived from Cummins' notions of BICS and CALP in bilingual education. With the support of common ground of Gibbons's (2009) research on scaffolding to facilitate student understanding, Lin (2016) finds that Gibbons' work is suitable for several Hong Kong institutions, and she argues that students understand academic content because:

... the textbook language is truncated and made up of almost point-form text and provides little modelling of coherent text types found in the science discipline (e.g. descriptive reports and explanatory texts). Students are provided with mainly simplified English language in these textbooks. (p. 98)

Lin (2016) concurs with Gibbons' (2009) pedagogy of designing scaffolding and bridging. The following is a summary of her principles of how lecturers can design scaffolding and bridging in EMI classrooms: first, curricula are developed based on

students' prior knowledge and their present L1/L2 language abilities; second, succinct curriculum target goals are shared with students as stakeholders; third, learning tasks act as the 'building blocks' for the subsequent task; fourth, learning forms have different types of methods such as working alone, with partners, with teams, and with whole classes; and fifth, the curriculum is increased, not decreased, and lecturers deploy 'message abundance' (Hammond & Gibbons, 2005, p. 16); for example key concepts are presented in many different ways with the use of semiotic/non-linguistic systems to support students' meaning-making to reach the point of comprehensibility. This aspect will be discussed at greater length in Section 2.3.4.2.

These principles focus on designing high-challenge teaching materials alongside high-support learning materials. To scaffold students' learning of academic content and academic written registers, Lin (2013) suggests that lecturers exploit all the linguistic and semiotic resources accessible to the students. Lin's (2012) Rainbow Diagram displays possible resources that can be considered, including L2 academic oral registers, L2 everyday registers, L1 academic written registers, L1 academic oral registers, L1 everyday registers, and "[m]ultimodalities (e.g., audios, visuals, images, diagrams, concept maps, graphic organizers, demonstrations, role-play, actions and gestures)" (Lin, 2016, p. 99).

A case study was made in an institution in Hong Kong where students and instructors commonly share L1. They used L1 as a bridging resource in an EMI context. The study showed that "carefully designed written presentation of bilingual academic content can help to scaffold students' L2 academic learning" (Lin, 2013). Cognitively complex subjects/tasks could not be successfully understood or processed in L2 unless the students had sufficient proficiency in such language so that L1 was a more appropriate means of such learning and instructing, particularly in the early years of study (Bernardo, 2005; Cummins, 2007; Haddad, 2007). In practice, at the beginning of the course, a science instructor used students' L1 to deliver content, and later in the course an amount of English was gradually presented—from word to sentence to short paragraph and to short text levels.

Lin's (2012) Rainbow Diagram informs activities of bridging language resources in EMI classrooms to aid EMI lecturers in scaffolding students to understand academic content knowledge. The critical decision to be made is which linguistic

performance is suitable for this case. Two possible linguistic performances, codeswitching and translanguaging, are discussed in the next section.

2.3.3 Codeswitching for Communication

Poplack (1980, p. 208) defines code-switching as “the alternation of two languages within a single discourse, sentence or constituent.” The epistemology underpinning code-switching is that code-switching has divided the linguistic systems of speakers so that separated linguistic repertoires have named languages (García & Lin, 2017). Code-switching is used for interpersonal and interactional purposes by multilingual users that seek to monitor and accommodate to their conversational partners’ language use (San Isidro & Lasagabaster, 2018).

Many scholars have studied language patterns in code-switching in one utterance episode. Knowledge from one of these studies is from Poplack (1980, 2000, 2015) in which she proposed and classified code-switching into three categories: tag-switching, intersentential, and intrasentential codeswitching. Tag-switching occurs when there is an insertion of a tag from one language into talk in other language; intrasentential codeswitching is the shift of language in the middle of a sentence of one language to another; in intersentential code-switching, the language shift is made at sentence or clause level boundaries.

Code-switching occurs naturally in day-to-day arenas of language users through both writing and speaking forms of multilingual societies (D. Li, 2008). However, existing literature in this field tends to pay extra attention to the speaking form of code-switching. Macaro (2014, p. 11) proposes naturalistic code-switching which refers to “the presence of code-switching in interaction... that occurs in everyday situations.” Naturalistic code-switching is about the use of more than one named language in code-switching environments in terms of conversational interactions. Likewise, naturalistic code-switching manages communication such as making contact and repairing communication breakdown (W. Li, Milroy, & Ching, 2000). Code-switching appears as the everyday situation of particular speakers. That is, lecturers and students have everyday routines in this arena. For them, “[c]lassroom code-switching refers to the alternating use of more than one linguistic code in the

classroom by any of the classroom participants” (Lin, 2017, p. 488). Fundamentally, classroom code-switching is for communication and interaction without the use of other multimodalities to convey messages.

Some studies found code-switching used in the classroom. Tayjasanant (2014) conducted a case study of the use of code-switching in a Thai university. She examined lecturer talk of two lecturers, who were teaching English for Specific Purposes courses. As research frameworks, Tayjasanant employed Poplack’s (2000) three types of code-switching: tag-switching, intrasentential switching, and intersentential switching. She found that code-switching had played an important role in interacting in social events such as complimenting, encouraging, and displaying casualness.

There has been a bias or prejudice against code-switching in the classrooms. Code-switching has been viewed as a negative activity in L2 classrooms where a target language is L2 (Park, 2013; San Isidro & Lasagabaster, 2018). This was due to the general belief that code-switching speakers lacked linguistic ability in one named language because code-switching is evidence of incomplete knowledge of the language (Bista, 2010; Reyes, 2004). In some higher education contexts, code-switching is deployed by interlocutors who are incompetent in one named language. Macaro (2014, p.15) argues that:

It is not the case that both participants in the conversation have to be fluent in both languages. It may be, for example, that one participant is highly fluent in two languages, but the interlocutor is fluent in one (his or her L1) and has only a smattering of the second language. The fluent bilingual may therefore use the interlocutor’s L1 most of the time and switch occasionally to the interlocutor’s L2 for a few words that she or he knows the interlocutor uses, for example some technical terms or often used phrases. The L2 in this case is likely to be a ‘global’ language such as English.

From a code-switching perspective, it is not necessary for speakers to have L1/L2 proficiency so that this situation is problematic when communication needs to be accomplished. D. Li (2014, p. 32) comments on a “bilingual teacher’s dilemma

regarding how to strike a balance between adhering [...] an English-only instruction policy from above, and the need to ensure [...] students' understanding." When lecturers are unable to follow the English-only mode, they do blame themselves for not being able to do so (D. Li, 2014).

Explaining the reason for using code-switching, Kirkpatrick (2014) states that motivation to use code-switching is that lecturers have a low English level. Students' perceptions showed that "[a] very high proportion (70.8%) of the students thought code-switching took place due to the teacher's insufficiency in English" (Canh & Hamied, 2014, p. 141). Kirkpatrick (2014, pp. 215-216) throws light on this commenting, "[s]o we have a situation in which the majority of multilingual language teachers feel guilty about using their linguistic resources—and those of their students—in the foreign language classroom."

Forman (2016) studied Thai lecturers' affective status of the use of L1/L2 in a university in Thailand through interviews. On the one hand, he found that the lecturers felt unnatural speaking English with Thai students. Speaking English delayed their thinking process and speaking pace. Thus, they felt uncomfortable speaking English since they were unsure about students' understanding. More importantly, some lecturers reflected that although they used English, they were still non-native speakers of English. On the other hand, lecturers felt the opposite when using Thai. Forman's (2016, pp. 150-151) study has implications:

Affective states do vary according to whether they are speaking English or Thai in the classroom. The analysis brings out some implications of L1-L2 performance for teachers' roles and identities. Selection of language can be seen to inevitably function as role choice, with bilingual options now constituting a wider and qualitatively different repertoire of one's identity. Such a view must render illusory a simple notion of language code [...] and points to the flow between L1 and L2 which creates new performance possibilities, and new dimensions of self.

Forman explains that the use of L2 alone in classrooms influences lecturers' attitudes towards self as language users. To unlock this critical incident, he still believes that the use of two languages can balance Thai lecturers' language

performance, identity, and their feelings. That is why he suggests the integration of English and Thai as a language practice in Thai classrooms.

A position on code-switching in my study is that code-switching is a predetermined framework for an analysis of lecturer talk in EMI classrooms. The reason to use code-switching is that HASS policy (the policy in the research site of the present study) has clearly divided L1 and L2 for practice, as mentioned earlier in Chapter 1. In addition, the institutional culture has very strong views on separate languages in particular so that this alerts me to be prepared to perceive code-switching in lecturers' practices.

Apart from code-switching, translanguaging is also perceived today as a phenomenon that has processes which entail multiple discursive practices, in which lecturers deliver academic lessons through their own language repertoire. This linguistic performance is discussed in more detail in the following section.

2.3.4 Translanguaging as Pedagogy

The term *translanguaging* was first coined by Cen Williams in 1980s in Welsh school contexts (Lewis et al., 2012). He used English and Welsh with students in particular activities and purposes; for example, input activities in one language but output in another, to construct meaning, form experiences, and gain appreciation of knowledge (Baker, 2011). Williams reported that translanguaging assisted both teachers and students to capitalise on their linguistic resources in problem-solving and knowledge construction processes (W. Li, 2018b). Canagarajah (2011, p. 401) defines translanguaging as “the ability of multilingual speakers to shuttle between languages, treating the diverse languages that form their repertoire as an integrated system.” W. Li defines translanguaging as “the fluid and dynamic practices that transcend the boundaries between named languages, language varieties, and language and other semiotic systems” (p. 9). Although translanguaging has a different conceptualisation of language to code-switching, there is no intention to substitute for code-switching. W. Li (2018b, p. 27) elaborates more on this point:

For me, [t]ranslanguaging has been never intended to replace code-switching or any other term, although it challenges the code

view of language [principles and ideologies behind the language deployed users of a social group]. It does not deny the existence of named languages, but stresses that languages are historically, politically, and ideologically defined entities. It defines the multilingual as someone who is aware of the existence of the political entities of named languages and has an ability to make use of the structural features of some of them that they have acquired.

Unlike code-switching, which initially derived from social use, translanguaging was originally used for pedagogical purposes. Nevertheless, many scholars (e.g., Canagarajah, 2018; García & W. Li, 2014; W. Li, 2018b; Mazzaferro, 2018) treat translanguaging beyond classroom contexts. This study, however, focuses on translanguaging as instructional activities regarding language and multimodalities implementation. Figure 2.2 displays the dynamics of translanguaging that differentiate it from code-switching.

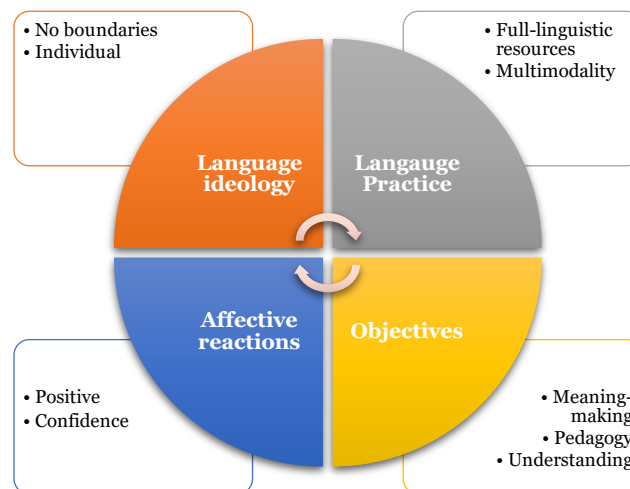


Figure 2.2: Dynamics of translanguaging

There are four main aspects of translanguaging as pedagogy, which are distinct from code-switching for communication: language ideology, language practice, language objectives, and affective reactions. Each aspect is discussed in the following sections.

2.3.4.1 Language Ideology

Language ideologies are under the cognition discipline. Silverstein (1979) claims that language ideology is broadly defined as a set of beliefs and attitudes about language shared by language users of a community for justifying their ways of using language. Language beliefs are beliefs about language that shape the way language users deploy language (Kroskrity, 2018; Piller, 2015). Ideologies focus on conceptualisations about users, languages and discursive practices in many disciplines (Irvine, 2016). They guide language users to value and recognise particular ways of using language and discourse styles (Blackledge, 2008). Kroskrity (2007) explains that such language ideologies can legitimise, protect, and promote the interests of a particular community. When a particular language ideology is recognised as the most powerful in society, it becomes hegemonic (Woolard, 1998). Therefore, the specific language ideology has a preponderant influence and is considered to be natural, true, and unquestionable. To study language ideologies, it is important to explore how language users understand language's role in a social world, and how their understanding is socially positioned (Irvine, 2016). Language ideologies as conceptual tools can provide a means of considering a critical factor in understanding language in its socioeconomic context (Kroskrity, 2018).

Otheguy et al. (2015) view translanguaging beyond languages. The authors refer translanguaging to an action of “[. . .] using one's idiolect, that is, one's linguistic repertoire, without regard for socially and politically defined language labels or boundaries” (Otheguy et al., 2015, p. 297). That is why translanguaging is a flexible linguistic performance of lecturers in academic settings. “Translanguaging concerns effective communication, function rather than form, cognitive activity, as well as language production” (Lewis et al., 2012, p. 641). In contrast, code-switching is the product of the conceptualisation of language that language is a separate code. Code-switching emphasises named languages and forms since social and political institutes create labels and boundaries of language in society. This is because “[t]here is also the ideological movement in that code-switching has associations with language separation” (Lewis et al., 2012, p. 659) so that code-switching maintains such boundaries through the notion of separated linguistic repertoire.

Taking Thailand as the case, the Thai government began to assemble their nation through the idea of one nation, one national language. They also named their official languages and set what should be the foreign/second languages to use in and outside their country. Thai is the national language of Thailand, and English is the first foreign language. In Thailand, Thai seems to be the most prestige language in everyday communication. In contrast, English seems to have the higher status than Thai in higher education contexts.

These are reasons why code-switching is inflexible language practice. All these are parts of standard language norms in society. To explain this, Creese and Blackledge (2010) note that:

the importance of responding to local circumstances is made clear... Although we can acknowledge that across all linguistically diverse contexts moving between languages is natural, how to harness and build on this will depend on the socio-political and historical environment in which such practice is embedded and the local ecologies of schools and classrooms. (p. 107)

Managing to break free from social and standard language norms, García and W. Li (2014) propose the concept of creativity and criticality with the focus on speakers. Creativity they define as “the ability to choose between obeying and breaking the rules and norms of behaviour, including the use of language” (p. 67). Translanguaging is associated with criticality which encourages speakers to have “the ability to use available evidence to inform considered views of cultural, social, political and linguistic phenomena to question and problematize received wisdom and to express views adequately through reasoned responses to situations” (p. 67).

2.3.4.2 Language Practice

Full-linguistic resources

In classroom events, lecturers use a full-linguistic resource to facilitate cognitive processes in understanding both oracy and literacy (Lewis et al., 2012). There are three fundamental constituents of lecturers’ translanguaging pedagogy (García,

Johnson, & Seltzer, 2017). Firstly, lecturers with a translanguaging *stance* regarded students' complex language repertoire as a resource to practice in collaborative learning across content, language, and community. Secondly, a translanguaging *design* is about lesson planning to integrate community language practices to “ensure that students have enough exposure to, and practice with, the language features that are required for different academic tasks” (Vogel & García, 2017, p. 10). Williams (2012) proposes that official translanguaging has more planned actions by the lecturers in instruction. Cenoz and Gorter (2017) argue there is also spontaneous translanguaging that represents the reality of multilingual usage in a natural situation. Thirdly, the translanguaging *shifts* present a capability for lecturers to “make moment-by-moment changes to an instructional plan based on student feedback” (Vogel & García, 2017, p. 10).

Multimodalities

Without multimodalities, lecturer talk cannot develop students' meanings as effectively. Translanguaging incorporates “our bodies, our gestures, our lives etc., add[ing] to the semiotic meaning-making repertoire that is involved in the act of communication” (García & Otheguy, 2020, p. 24). EMI lecturers use multimodalities such as semiotics and visuals to construct meanings creatively (Lin, 2015a, 2015b). Semiotics are defined as “a sign [that] is something that stands for something else” (Nuessel, 2006, p. 665). Indeed, a sign relates to language, because it is a form of communication; thus, a good sign should be concrete, referent, and interpretant (Nuessel, 2006). Visuals are commonly known as multimedia, such as image, film, video, and the like. The visual impacts on what students first see because a visual is significant to them when perceived as a message. Visual resources are part of teaching materials which assist students to become immersed in content and engaged in both in/output learning (Lin, 2016). In comparison, code-switching restricts the use of verbal resources to facilitate meaning construction, as using multimodalities (e.g., PowerPoint Presentation) is not common practice in social interaction.

Linguistic performance in classrooms cannot effectively express messages without paralinguistics. Rizza (2009) argues “...paralinguistic features are arguably of greater importance than the language of the performance” (p. 283). Paralinguistic features include pauses, gestures, facial expressions, and tone of voice

(Canagarajah, 2018; Cekaite, 2009; Rizza, 2009). These features work together with language to construct meaning (Rizza, 2009) since “...the non-verbal resources are not a supplement to talk... [but] they mediate and shape language use” (Canagarajah, 2018, p. 39). For example, science lecturers used paralinguistics to refer to ‘emphatic stress’ (p. 215) or give heavy emphasis on the important technical terms being defined (Flowerdew, 1992). Another example is that “while [the lecturer] employed a range of paralinguistic cues when highlighting her summonses, she was also actively rearranging her bodily position in the classroom space” (Cekaite, 2009, p. 42) to make more sense of her directives. Canagarajah (2018) concludes that these multimodalities “...help when language is not adequate for the purpose” (p. 39).

2.3.4.3 Objectives

There is a distinction between the objectives of code-switching and of translanguaging. Code-switching appears to be used for communication outside academic contexts. Thus, code-switching is mainly for interactional purposes. According to García et al. (2017), translanguaging as pedagogy aims to first, support students in understanding complex content; second, offer chances to students to advance linguistic practices for academic settings; third, create room for students’ bilingualism and the means of recognising it, in what W. Li called ‘translanguaging space’ where there was a space for translanguaging performances, and such performances also created a space (W. Li, 2011, 2018b); and fourth, build students’ bilingual identities because students are most likely to have a positive identity (Lee & Suarez, 2009) and to perform well academically. W. Li (2018b) views the key idea of translanguaging as being about a practice and a process of knowledge construction that goes beyond languages. W. Li (2017) raises some issues about translanguaging in EMI:

Translanguaging also urge[s] us to think critically of some of the issues relating to EMI... Given its cultural-political history, English can never be regarded simply as a medium of instruction. The choice of English as the language of instruction is value-laden and ideologically driven. And language learning and

content learning cannot be regarded as two separate processes. There is no such a thing as content-free language learning. Language learning is an integral part of knowledge construction. (pp. 2-3)

As instruction is a complex scheme, W. Li heightens awareness of the implementation of English as a medium of instruction. Consequently, there are constituents other than English. Likewise, language as English carries content, and language learning paves the way for understanding content. Swain (2006) argues that language shapes understanding, knowledge, and experience in the cognitive process of negotiating meaning. Lecturers deploy translanguaging to promote students' understanding of knowledge.

Two studies of translanguaging practices offer a clearer picture. In a recent study, W. Li (2018b) conducted research on translanguaging features of Chinese and English. The result showed creations of new words and expressions that derived from the morphological rules of English and twists of Chinese and meanings. García and Leiva (2014) studied the use of a translanguaging pedagogy of Leiva as a teacher of English Language Arts with Latino students in America. Classroom discourse analysis revealed that several pedagogical functions of her translanguaging were presented as a pedagogy to involve and give voice, clarify, reinforce, manage the classroom, and extend and ask questions.

2.3.4.4 Affective Reactions

Translanguaging seems to yield positive impact on lecturers' confidence, but code-switching may not. Code-switching may be viewed as an obstacle to becoming fluent in a second language (Arrifin & Husin, 2011; Bista, 2010) that negatively affects affective reaction of code-speaking users, because code-switching assesses users through their language competency. However, translanguaging for multilinguals is as a natural form of communication in classrooms (Canagarajah, 2011). Multilinguals' practice of translanguaging is not because they feel they are deficient in words or phrases required to express themselves in a monolingual atmosphere (Vogel & García, 2017). García (2009) notes that "... translanguaging is then a responsible communicative practice that offers communicative and

educational possibilities to all” (p. 148). The practice assists lecturers to successfully draw on English and their mother tongue to offer students greater access to content as well as facilitating classes to proceed to lesson goals more smoothly (Allard, 2017). A final goal is that students would feel empowered to express themselves in new and creative ways. As Lau (2019, p. 78) states, “this classroom [environment] crafted a unique translanguaging space that allowed students [and lecturers] to articulate their thoughts and participate in collaborative inquiry *juntos/together* without inhibition or shameful feelings about their linguistic identities.” What remains important to Daniel, Jiménez, Pray, and Pacheco (2019) is “how teachers themselves can support their students in translanguaging and in garnering the learning benefits that can occur when youth feel empowered to draw on their full linguistic repertoires” (p. 2). Khote and Tian (2019) conclude that “[t]ranslanguaging played a key role in producing this positive outcome” (p. 18).

2.4 Lecturer Cognition and Practices

A much greater level of understanding is required to discover more complex dynamics of CS and TL. In this sense, the dynamics include language ideologies, language performance, and objectives of and affective reactions to the use each language practice. However, understanding of uses of CS and TL in observed classrooms is lacking (San Isidro & Lasagabaster, 2018). San Isidro and Lasagabaster (2018) note that “both code-switching and translanguaging make an interesting case for research on multilingual settings” (p.3). In this study, CS and TL are not considered as separated language practices but fluid linguistic performances. This argument is developed further in Chapters 5 and 6.

As indicated previously, lecturers are key agents in EMI classrooms. So, this study focuses on the content-subject lecturers to understand the complex systems of what lecturers think, believe, know, and practise, the next section discusses and addresses essential issues on lecturer cognition and practice.

This section discusses lecturer cognition and practices. Section 2.4.1 discusses the concept of lecturer cognition; Section 2.4.2, the relationship between cognition and

practices; Section 2.4.3, selected empirical studies on EMI lecturers' cognition and practice in Asian contexts.

2.4.1 Concept of Lecturer Cognition

This section presents, in chronological order, a number of concepts of teacher cognition. A concept and definition of the term as used in this study is discussed at the latter part of the section.

There is a wide variety of definitions of teacher cognition based on different contexts and perspectives. In terms of educational views, teacher cognition is related to personal thought, which could develop to become personal beliefs. M. Borg (2001) explained that these aspects can be linked to the instructional beliefs of individual teachers and generally direct teachers' thinking and doing. In 2003, S. Borg (2003) used the term "teacher cognition" to refer to "the unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching—what teachers know, believe, and think" (p. 81). Teacher cognition involves numerous aspects of teaching and learning, including "beliefs, knowledge, theories, attitude, images, assumptions, metaphors, conceptions, perspectives, teaching, teachers, learning, students, subject matter, curricular, materials, instructional activities and self" (S. Borg, 2003, p. 82). These all come under the umbrella of teacher cognition.

According to Basturkmen, Loewen, and Ellis (2004), teachers' beliefs can be defined as "statements teachers made about their ideas, thoughts and knowledge that are expressed as evaluations of what 'should be done', 'should be the case' and 'is preferable'" (p. 244). It is considered that teacher cognition is "what teachers know and think and how this affects their behaviour, especially insofar as it relates to what happens in the classroom" (Prodromou, 2009, p. 184). There is an awareness of the importance of what teachers believe and what they say they believe about pedagogical issues. "Although teachers may have strongly held beliefs, they do not always put these into practice" (Barnard & Burns, 2012, p. 3). Such teacher beliefs may be formed without evidence and sometimes in the face of contradictory evidence, and they are a part of teachers' identities (Davis & Andrzejewski, 2009; Pajares, 1992).

In this study, the term teacher cognition means the dynamics of content lecturers' beliefs and practices regarding EMI. In terms of beliefs, content lecturers use individual knowledge, rational decisions, perceptions and attitudes to support their statements on teaching EMI. In terms of their practice, it is defined as an actual teaching behaviour in EMI classrooms based on either the lecturers' beliefs or other factors. Beliefs and practices of lecturers are likely to be associated with instructional policies, lecturers' professional education background, experience and character. That is, beliefs and practices may be developed or changed by policies, education and individual preferences of lecturers.

2.4.2 Relationship between Cognition and Practice

In this section, the main focus is the relationship between teacher cognition and practice. To recognise some connections between beliefs and practices, this section explains convergences and divergences between teachers' beliefs and their practices. In addition to the beliefs, this section clarifies an understanding of external factors, which can influence teachers' behaviour in the actual classroom.

Teacher cognition inevitably influences their behaviour in the classroom because these beliefs and practices directly influence the teaching and learning process (Griffiths, 2007). Burns (1992) stated that classroom teaching is moulded by teachers' beliefs, meaning that teachers' beliefs tend to form the ways they teach (Johnson, 1992). Pajares (1992) suggests that teachers' beliefs control appraisals of the classroom performances. He also explains characteristics of teachers' beliefs:

Epistemological beliefs play a key role in knowledge interpretation and cognitive monitoring. ... '*Beliefs strongly influence perception*', but '*they can be an unreliable guide*' to the nature of reality. Individuals' beliefs strongly affect their behaviour.... Beliefs must be inferred, and this inference must take into account the congruence among individuals' belief statements, the intentionality to behave in a predisposed manner, and the '*behaviour related to the belief in question*'. (pp. 325-326, emphasis added)

Therefore, although beliefs affect views and teachers' personal beliefs have profoundly influenced their teaching behaviours, they are not necessarily reflected in classroom teaching practices, especially in instances of unanticipated teaching events. As Pajares (1992) noted, what teachers believe, what they say they do, and what they actually do, are important topics for research. S. Borg (2003) stated that the mainstream literature about teacher cognition indicates that various interacting and conflicting causes form classroom teaching. He also argued that while teacher cognition has a powerful impact on teacher practice, practice will not necessarily mirror the stated beliefs, individual theories, and instructional principles of teachers. To be more precise, explanations of Louw, Watson Todd, and Jimarkon (2016, p. 748) extended the idea that a mismatch between practices and beliefs could occur:

Teachers have personal configurations of how beliefs and principles are realized, so that a belief may inform a number of principles, which are instantiated through a particular repertoire of practices. *The complexity of the relationship between beliefs, pedagogical principles, and practice may lead to contradictions between beliefs and practice* in particular teaching settings. (p. 748, emphasis added)

This type of relationship can occasionally produce a conflicting belief system (Basturkmen et al., 2004), where unexpected problems can occur in actual classrooms when practices do not match beliefs, and vice versa. For example, teachers will lack confidence in teaching content subjects when university authorities ask them to alter their teaching styles.

Conversely, teachers can adjust their original beliefs and practices to solve a problem in their actual classroom. For instance, Johnson's study (1994) showed that teachers adopted a teacher-centred approach to "maintain the flow of instruction and to retain authority in the classroom" (p. 449), although they favoured a student-centred approach. Schulz (2001, p. 348) explained this situation as the "perturbing differences" because different psychological, social and environmental factors obstruct teachers in fulfilling their own personal beliefs in instructional decision-making (Fang, 1996). Further detail about factors associated with mismatches between practices and beliefs are explained in the next paragraph.

Various reasons why teachers' classroom practices may diverge from their beliefs have been suggested. For example, He and Levin (2008) examined several specific factors to account for why teachers' classroom practices mismatched with their beliefs. The first factor is related to teachers themselves, and includes organisation and planning, professional development, responsibilities, and the political and community contexts. The second relates to curricula, and includes such things as instructional strategies, differentiation of instructions and assessment. The next is associated with classrooms, with matters such as teachers' and students' expectation, relationships, and classroom management. Other factors include students, specifically student learning and student behaviour. Other important but external factors include government/institutional policies and parental/societal attitudes.

In summary, it is widely recognised that teacher cognition plays a pivotal role in teaching and learning settings because classrooms are influenced by what teachers think and do. Without an insightful relationship between educational beliefs and classroom practices, the study of teacher cognition will be ineffective (Pajares, 1992; S. Borg, 2006). This study explores internal and external factors that generate matches and mismatches between EMI lecturers' beliefs and practices. Most scholars in this field have also commented that having the opportunity to focus on practices and beliefs would make the study of teacher cognition more meaningful.

2.4.3 Empirical studies on EMI Lecturers' Cognition and Practice in Southeast Asian Contexts

Research on lecturer cognition and actual practices about EMI on code-switching and translanguaging in Asia has been mostly restricted to comparisons of cognition and practice in EMI and language in EMI in general. This section discusses selected empirical studies in a range of Asian countries with a concentration on South East Asian countries, which, in common with the focus of this current study, provide insight into the EMI beliefs and practices of university lecturers. Prior to narrowing down EMI situations in South East Asian countries, this section summarises a systematic review of research by Macaro, Curle, Pun, An, and Dearden (2018) to provide an overview of EMI situations in tertiary education across the world.

Macaro et al. study is an in-depth review of 83 studies in tertiary education that documents the increase in EMI in distinct geographical areas (including Europe = 33 studies, Asia =31 (South East Asia = 5), Middle East = 17, and South America = 1).

There were inclusion/exclusion criteria for the reviews. Studies were included if they reported on empirical data; the instructional language is (purported to be) English; an instructional setting (including a pre-school, primary, secondary, or tertiary level) where the majority of the population's L1 is not English; empirical studies published in book chapters (but not duplicates with journal articles), unpublished doctoral theses and institution reports; and research on CLIL or immersion. Studies were omitted if they were described as content-based language teaching unless the EMI definition by EMI Oxford was identified; English for academic purposes (EAP) or English for specific purposes (ESP); only policy document research; other systematic reviews; and master's dissertations.

Macaro et al. (2018) paid attention to studies on university lecturers' and students' beliefs regarding academic content instruction through the medium of English as a second language. The focus of the studies was the benefit of EMI for developing the students' English skills without a harmful effect on content learning. Macaro et al. (2018) concluded that the university lecturers and students raised their critical concerns about the unavoidability of EMI implementation in their contexts. The rapid growth in EMI appeared to be driven by top-down policy. Both lecturers and students viewed English as having great prestige and high value, for its instrumental advantages for local students to improve English for a better opportunity abroad. However, both lecturers and students had low levels of English proficiency so that EMI could potentially have a negative impact on subject content.

Macaro et al. (2018) also concluded that there was a lack of research evidence to allow them to declare that EMI had yielded language learning or returned a detrimental effect on content learning. Although EMI research in tertiary education has expanded rapidly post-2005, "[t]here are also insufficient studies demonstrating, through the classroom discourse, the kind of practice which may lead to beneficial outcomes" (Macaro et al., 2018, p. 36) since the vast majority of scholars are focused on lecturer and/or student beliefs. The present study focuses

on lecturers' beliefs. However, actual classroom practice is examined through observation and stimulated recall interviews.

As stated above, the majority of studies reviewed were in the European context. Only five studies were derived from the South East Asian context. The systematic review has not thrown new light on in-depth EMI situations in the South East Asian context. Some relevant studies in Asian contexts that met their criteria are not included in the review. Only a few reviewed studies were recently updated. Thus, EMI situations might be changed if there were recent literature to present during 2018. Some studies discussed next are parts of the key materials in the review, and some are derived from other resources. These eight studies emphasise EMI situations in particular settings. They are presented first in tabular form to provide details in a succinct way.

Table 2.1: Empirical studies on EMI lecturers' cognition and practice in Southeast Asian contexts

Source	Focus	Method	Participants
Vu & Burns (2014)	Beliefs about challenges for Vietnamese lecturers in a public university in Vietnam	- Interview	16 lecturers
Park & Khemnguadek kasit (2015)	Beliefs about the use of English as a medium of instruction in a university in Thailand	- Interview	2 lecturers
Nguyen, Walkinshaw & Pham (2017)	Beliefs about language, pedagogy and policy issues in a public university in Vietnam	- Interview	Unidentified numbers of lecturers and students
Dewi (2017)	Beliefs about EMI in Indonesian tertiary curricula in public and private universities in Indonesia	- Questionnaire - Email interview	20 lecturers
Baker & Hüttner (2019)	Beliefs and practices about EMI in Austrian, English and Thai Multilingual EMI universities	- Interviews - Questionnaires	28 Thai/ 90 foreign students 2 Thai/ 2 foreign lecturers

Hasim & Barnard (2018)	Beliefs and practices regarding EMI in a public university in Malaysia	- Interview - Classroom observation - Post-lesson discussion	7 lecturers
Haji-Othman & McLellan (2018)	EMI in Universiti Brunei Darussalam	- Interview - Classroom observation - Post-lesson discussion - Student survey - Focus group discussion	8 lecturers 29 Students
Hamied & Lengkanawati (2018)	EMI in an Indonesian University	- Interview - Classroom observation - Document - Post-lesson discussion	4 lecturers 3 students

Table 2.1 indicates that the English language and the implementation of English to teach academic content were the main concerns of content lecturers whose first languages were not English. Vu and Burns (2014) found that Vietnamese lecturers believed the English language was the challenge of EMI because they lacked English skills. Thus, they were concerned that this might negatively influence students' English and obstruct understanding of content. Nguyen, Walkinshaw, and Pham (2017) revealed that Vietnamese lecturers were faced with oral English difficulties while presenting new content because these subject-content lecturers were non-English speakers. They were unable to explain all their knowledge to the students in English. Students were unable to understand what the lecturers taught them due to having a problem with listening to English. Indonesian students' self-reported data was that most of them felt comfortable with their English skills, but they had difficulty in understanding their lecturers' English (Hamied & Lengkanawati, 2018). The findings of Park and Khemnguekkasit's study (2015) showed the lecturers believed that an English-only policy did not work for the students who had different levels of English. At the beginning of the semester, the lecturers and students used English only for instruction and communication. Later, they reduced English and increased Thai to create the flow of instruction. In contrast, the foreign lecturer who could not speak Thai found her classes were difficult to instruct. Both lecturers realised that Thai was essential for their

instruction, since English only could not ensure students' comprehension and interaction in the department.

However, the English language was not the challenge of Malaysian and Bruneian lecturers. Hasim and Barnard (2018) found that most of the Malaysian lecturers felt confident about deploying English to deliver the academic content because they had earned degrees in English-speaking countries. They were better able to explain academic concepts more precisely in English than in Bahasa Malaysia. Classroom observation data revealed that there was a lack of lecturer-student interaction. The students responded monosyllabically to the lecturers. Some of the students in an engineering class might not have understood the concepts explained by the lecturers, especially when they gave a long lecture, uninterrupted for the whole fifty minutes of the class. Haji-Othman and McLellan (2018) reported that the Bruneian lecturers felt more comfortable to deploy and instruct in English because "scientific terms are mainly in English" (p. 46). Moreover, other Vietnamese lecturers used English only to explain language-specific discipline terminology (Nguyen, et al., 2017). The student participants responded that although they understood business concepts in English, they had a problem in knowing such terms in Vietnamese (Nguyen, et al., 2017). They thought Vietnamese terms were still necessary for them to use in the future because they intended to work in Vietnam (Nguyen, et al., 2017).

Baker and Hüttner (2019) conducted a comparative study on beliefs of studying/teaching and reported practices of the use of English and other languages in postgraduate EMI programmes in Europe and Thailand. Data were gathered through self-reported research instruments (i.e., interviews and questionnaires). With specific regard to the Thai university, the findings revealed that, when using English with their graduate Thai students, the lecturers paid little attention to the accuracy of standard English but focussed instead on intelligibility because they believed that Thai students' understanding was more important than what their English was like. Other findings were that although English was mainly used in an EMI programme, Thai lectures had to use Thai with Thai students to promote the student's understanding.

Pedagogical issues were evident in all eight studies. Vu and Burns (2014) reported that because the programme was new, the lecturers decided to utilise code-switching when the class had difficulties with instructional interaction. Most lecturers said that little pedagogical support was available to them, and that they had mainly gained code-switching from direct experience. Lecturers could not find an appropriate linguistic performance other than Vietnamese as a medium of instruction to explain meaning (Nguyen et al., 2017). The study of Dewi (2017) revealed that the majority of the lecturer participants believed that although English was important to connect Indonesia the world, Indonesian should be the main MOI and English should be an optional MOI only. The minority of lecturers believed that English was a tool for “developing research and improving the quality of education” (pp. 251-252). They believed that English would be used as MOI. Data observed showed that in some classes student-student interaction was in Malay in both on- and off-topic discussion. The majority of the students reported that they were comfortable using English (Haji-Othman & McLellan, 2018). Hamied and Lengkanawati (2018) found that one Indonesian lecturer had a problem with teaching academic content in English because she had no prior knowledge regarding English education. Data observed in the classroom revealed that classrooms were full of interaction, and teaching-learning engagement occurred because classrooms used a range of teaching materials. Moreover, some EMI lecturers struggled with the students’ error treatments. A lecturer said: “I only read to understand their answers and I may comment on their use of terminology but not grammar or linguistic features. ... We do not have the [linguistic] expertise” (Nguyen et al., 2017, p. 46).

Beliefs about and practices in EMI implementation and language in EMI are very important areas to research. Raising a matter of concern, some educators and researchers questioned how its outcomes could yield valuable knowledge to teacher education when conducting research on teachers’ beliefs without investigating actual teaching practices (Clark & Peterson, 1986; S. Borg, 2006). Spolsky (2009) argues that language beliefs influence language practices and provide a basis for language management. Practices reflecting particular language beliefs can implicitly and explicitly create contexts for language use. In this study, the intent is to combine two disciplines: EMI, and teacher cognition. The rationale is that this current study needs to bridge a research gap and follow the research trend at the

same time. According to the literature reviewed, to date the present study is unique because the theoretical and conceptual frameworks are associated with EMI and lecturers' beliefs, practice, and other relevant research aspects in teacher cognition. The conceptual framework will be elaborated upon further in the next section.

2.5 Conceptual Framework: ROADMAPPING

This section discusses ROADMAPPING (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, 2020) as a conceptual framework of EMI in multilingual university settings. In the present study, ROADMAPPING was not a pre-selected framework. The value of this framework emerged after the analysis of the research findings. Indeed, it enabled me to interpret the research findings in order to draw a holistic picture of EMI beyond the dynamics of classroom interactions. Therefore, ROADMAPPING can be an appropriate tool of communication with related EMI agents (e.g., content lecturers, researchers, and authorities) in the EMI programme in HASS at HomeU and elsewhere for considering potential implications for further development of the EMI programme. This section is divided into four sections. Section 2.5.1 explains the objectives and theories to develop the framework for EMI communities. Section 2.5.2 presents the central components of the framework. Section 2.5.3 describes the interplay of components as the dynamic nature of the framework. Section 2.5.4 locates the framework for this current study.

2.5.1 Rationale and Theories Underpinning the Framework

There is a lack of consensus in theoretical orientations of EMI. What is needed is “a conceptualization that encompasses the diversity and complexity of the specific settings” (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, p. 398) in and beyond classrooms. ROADMAPPING is instructive in that it “provides a theoretically grounded framework based on core dimensions that operate dynamically across higher education institutions that use an additional language as the means of instruction” (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, p. 398):

The framework also aims to combine various perspectives and serve as a reference when analysing specific contexts while still

acknowledging the importance and constant interaction of global and local forces. Most importantly, it will permit researchers to go beyond specific cases and engage in analyses that contrast and draw conclusions across different settings. (p. 398)

This framework is constructed using three different theories. The first is sociolinguistics in the twenty-first century. The fundamental focus is “the role of language in the construction of social relations and social organization” (Heller, 2008, p. 504). Dafouz and Smit (2016) raise some awareness that “[t]wenty-first century societies are increasingly permeable, changeable, and in flux, constructing themselves by language and other semiotic means in fittingly transient, dynamic, and fluid ways” (p. 399). The second is the ecology of language and language policy research. The ecology aims to make “explorations of the relationship of languages to each other and the society in which these languages exist” (Creese & Martin, 2003, p. 161). As a result, it needs to recognise the dynamic inter-relatedness such as that “...important ecolinguistic factors for multilingual university settings are thus the agents themselves...” (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, p. 401). This links to language policy that deals with the “direct efforts [taken] to manipulate the language situation” (Spolsky, 2004, p. 8).

The final theory is social practice as discourse. Discourse is the study of language in context of a broader societal understanding, where discourses are regarded as “meaning systems which have historical, social and institutional implications” (Foucault, 2002, p. 131). Regarding interactional discourses, teaching carries out specific communicative acts (e.g., lecturing, explaining, and asking/responding questions). So, Dafouz and Smit (2016, p. 402) “believe that many social practices [associated with teaching and learning] are shaped and built through discourses.” From this perspective, discourse is a practical access point to the analysis of social practices (Dafouz & Smit, 2016) since each discourse is a way of thinking, producing meaning, and constituting knowledge in specific contexts. Thus, “[d]iscourse(s) are placed at the centre, functioning as the point of access to the different components” (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, p. 403). Discourse data from various resources (e.g., policy documents, interviews, discussions, journal entries, and websites) are categorised into six relevant components.

2.5.2 The Six Crucial Components

Figure 2.3 displays the six crucial components and their constant interplay in the ROADMAPPING.

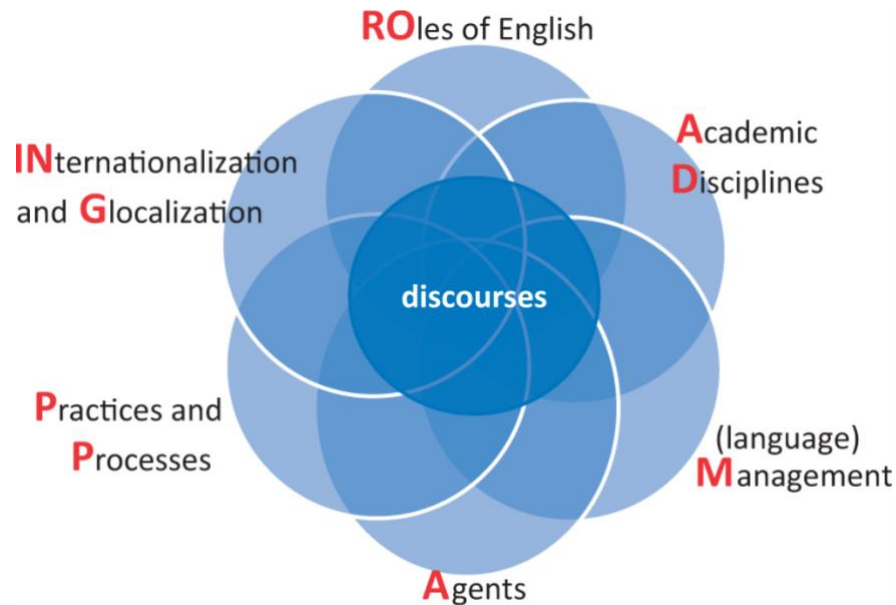


Figure 2.3: The ROADMAPPING Framework

Source: Dafouz and Smit (2016, p. 404) Reprinted with permission

The first component, Roles of English (RO) (in relation to other languages), highlights the breadth of the functions of language as a medium of instruction and communication. Much of this component can be attributed to the influence of English as the dominant world language in academic contexts. That is, EMI, in particular, represents the most radical transformation in tertiary education in non-Anglophone countries across the globe because language policy and planning position “English as the main language of dissemination of scientific ideas” (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, p. 404) amongst lecturers and students. This component “focuses on English-medium education because of the particular role that English plays both as an academic language of teaching and learning as well as a means of international communication” (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, p. 399).

The second component is Academic Disciplines (AD); it addresses the characteristics of disciplinary practices. According to the inherent epistemological characteristics of sets of disciplines, there are hard and soft disciplines (Becher,

1989). A hard discipline tends to use quantitative data, to be predictive and experimental, while a soft discipline tends to use qualitative data, and generally there are no experiments. Mathematics tends to be quantitative (i.e., numerical and symbols) rather than qualitative, thus, the discipline is classified as hard. In contrast, History tends to be qualitative (i.e., lengthy prose explanations) rather than quantitative and thus this discipline can be classified as soft. In terms of pedagogical implications concerning the use of language, EMI lecturers who lecture soft disciplines, need to use large amounts of lecturer talk to develop students' knowledge.

The third component, Language Management (M), embraces what is mostly considered as extended language policy in the sense of "direct efforts to manipulate the language situation" (Spolsky, 2004, p. 8), especially in situations where explicit regulations are lacking. Although language policy statements and declarations are stated in written documents and spoken accounts (Spolsky, 2004), there is a lack of explicit regulations to apply to specific classrooms. In multilingual university settings, even though there is an attempt to provide explicit statements, "certain aspects of LP [Language Policy] remain unmentioned, which creates sociolinguistic relevance in itself" (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, p. 406). Also, "managerial decisions might turn out to be largely ignored or replaced by what relevant agents believe to be appropriate" (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, p. 406). In this way, obligations can contradict each other during a specific period. For instance, language policy seems to deny what the key agencies are doing, and bring the new policy in. Similarly, the agencies can refuse what the policy is trying to bring in.

Fourthly, Agents (A) is an umbrella term for all the social players engaged in English Medium Instruction at the tertiary education level. Although lecturers are the key agency to implement the policies, teaching and learning cannot occur without students. Lecturers are in a position of authority so that they have the authority to design, run, and control classrooms. Thus, there is the need to understand their beliefs about the policies. Moreover, "it is important to examine how these roles and the individuals and/or institutions that implement them may also display different hierarchical status and, consequently, pose distinct views and interests that sometimes conflict" (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, p. 407). The status,

beliefs, and agenda of agents within higher education typically vary, which has the potential to lead to tensions when views and beliefs clash.

The fifth component, Practices and Processes (PP) puts classrooms centre stage by considering these as ‘ways of doing’ and ‘ways of thinking’ (Leung & Street, 2012). Regarding the former, practices focus on teaching and learning activities in reality. Indeed, practices are the means by which agents use the role of English in a disciplinary and classroom discourse to co-construct academic knowledge. Spolsky (2009) defines language practices as “the observable behaviors and choices – what people actually do” (p. 4). Lecturers’ practices may converge with/diverge from the policies and with/from their own beliefs. Regarding the latter, processes emphasise the views and beliefs of lecturers about the learning process and how their teaching can best support students (Doiz, Lasagabaster, & Sierra, 2012). It is believed that these two ways of doing and thinking impact on the actual practices themselves and how policies are implemented in the classroom (Dafouz & Smit, 2016; S. Borg, 2011). Processes involve the development of academic literacy skills.

The final component in this framework, Internationalisation and Glocalisation (ING), addresses the international, global, national and local forces and interests that universities need to respond to in the twenty-first century higher education environment. Internationalisation, as the ultimate aim of a local university, needs to be balanced with what the local context has to offer and what the international context requires (Robertson, 1995). For example, EMI lecturers and students draw on local practice through the use of their multi-functionality of English and other languages to meet institutional aims. So, while the universities look to reaching internationalisation standard, they need to address local synergies as well.

2.5.3 Interplay of Components in the Framework

Although in terms of physical presence, the framework has separated the components, they are connected and affect each other through the realisation of classroom discourse. Language issues are the central focus of classroom discourse to draw an understanding of the roles of English. From that, Roles of English provides access to other components. Here, Dafouz, and Smit (2016) give an

example of how the six components intersect with one another. Roles of English directly intersect agents because agents are ‘glocally’ progressing and practising the use of English in academic disciplines to meet their current internationalisation objective. These activities reflect language management. The dimensions are seen as intersecting with each other because of the ecolinguistic orientation underpinning the framework. These intersections focus on the inherent complexity of EMI in diverse contexts. Dafouz and Smit (2016) believe that the use of language “takes all environmental factors into account, thereby making an activist or interventionist stance possible” (p. 411). Thus, all these dimensions are formed in a “holistic nature in the sense that ‘the whole is more than the sum of its parts’” (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, p. 411). Therefore, they suggest that “these should not be sidelined but ‘zoomed in on’ and discussed in their intricacy, depending on the researcher’s ‘lens’ or specific research focus” (pp. 411-412).

2.5.4 Applying ROADMAPPING in a Thai University Context

HomeU in Thailand is a multilingual university in its linguistic diversity. Lecturers and students use various languages in the university area. However, only Thai and English are officially allowed for use in classroom contexts. Dafouz and Smit (2016) suggest that “there is obviously a clear need to test its applicability across contexts” (p. 412). Until now, the only two studies which have applied the ROADMAPPING framework to EMI contexts are those of Dafouz, Hüttner, and Smit (2016) and Baker and Hüttner (2019).

Dafouz et al. (2016) investigated university lecturers’ beliefs about language and content integration in EMI in multilingual university settings across four European countries. The interviews involved Finnish, English, Austrian, and Spanish lecturers who taught physics, engineering, education, international hospitality, economics, and business studies. The data consisted of 18 lecturer interviews in total. Because the researchers did not actually observe any EMI classrooms, they focussed on three of the six components in the ROADMAPPING framework: Agent, Academic Discipline, and Internationalisation and Globalisation. The findings of these components in relation to the present study in detail will be discussed in Chapter 6. While the study by Dafouz et al. related to European

contexts, Baker and Hüttner (2019) included some data from a Thai university. The Thai university in this study specialised in graduate studies in the ‘hard’ disciplines of science and engineering, and its classes included a number of international students. As noted in Section 2.4.3, their findings were that, as far as the use of English was concerned, the lecturers considered that intelligibility was more important than accuracy, and that they often used Thai (when teaching Thai students) to ensure that students understood the academic content of their classes.

The present study occupies an important gap in empirical research in Thailand in the following respects: it focuses on undergraduate classes; the students were all Thai nationals; the lecturers taught ‘soft’ disciplines; and, most importantly, actual EMI classes were observed. Thus, by applying the ROADMAPPING framework to this context, this present study aims to shed new light on key issues with regard to EMI policy and practice in Thailand.

My study aimed to bridge a gap between practice and conceptual understanding of EMI in higher education. Apart from looking at classroom practice, I consider other dimensions beyond the classroom in order to gain an understanding of the diversity and complexity of EMI in HASS. I clearly understand that the ROADMAPPING framework “offers a blueprint for outlining an ‘object of analysis’ [in terms of EMI conceptualisation and enactment] that is intrinsically dynamic and potentially elusive” (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, p. 412) for this present study. Therefore, I accessed data from lecturers through interviews, classroom observations, stimulated recall interviews, reports, and focus group discussions focusing on beliefs and practices of EMI and the use of languages to reveal the dynamic nature of EMI implementation according to the relevant components. Indeed, ROADMAPPING frames and captures important aspects to be discussed in Chapter 6, and the findings are established with respect to each aspect of ROADMAPPING. ROADMAPPING lifted the findings into practical and theoretical consideration of the EMI environment and its realisation in HASS at HomeU. Grounded theory was used to analyse data (see Section 3.7.1). The next chapter describes the methods in more detail.

Furthermore, I use the ROADMAPPING framework to explain the relationship between EMI and its surroundings in HASS. More importantly, the ultimate

objective was to use the framework to create an overview of EMI implementation in HASS at HomeU in order to promote a deep understanding of EMI in a multilingual Thai university.

2.6 Research Spaces and Research Questions

This section illuminates research spaces in EMI based on the current literature. Section 2.6.1 draws on contextual and methodological spaces and highlights the theoretical and practical spaces of the present case study. Section 2.6.2 forms research questions as the research focus and direction of the study.

2.6.1 Research Spaces in EMI

Four main research spaces: contextual, methodological, theoretical, and practical are discussed below.

2.6.1.1 Contextual and Methodological Spaces

Gurney (2018) notes that “the multilingual region... will need to conceive of English in more complex terms, taking into account the role and impact of the language at ...institutional and individual levels, and the perceived values that it carries” (pp. 84-85). Hence, further research should examine the functions of English and other languages used at classroom practice levels in a university setting. To date, far too little attention has been paid to researching EMI in Thai higher education. Regarding academic disciplines to undertake research, little research has done in the field of humanities and social sciences. In Thailand and Asia more widely, many studies have worked on academic disciplines such as international business (Park & Khemngadekkasit, 2015), finance, economy (Hu & Lei, 2014), sports, and science and technology (Bradford, 2016).

There are methodological limitations to the existing studies of EMI. Phillipson (2018) notes that, “[w]hat is absent is any consideration of the need in each country to have high-level research and teaching in a range of other languages” (p. xiv). Although Park and Khemngadekkasit (2015) conducted a study on EMI in a Thai university, research processes and methodologies lacked rigour due to an absence of well-documented research. The trustworthiness of the research findings raised

considerable concerns due to unsound treatment of research methodology. A case study of Vietnamese lecturers' beliefs and practices by Vu and Burns (2014) was mainly based on self-reported accounts/data. Classroom observations need to be implemented within a case study to capture unique evidence from the field which can inform policy and practice more extensively (S. Borg, 2016). Smit (2010) also suggested scholars use talk data in the EMI classroom, as it captures the dynamics and complexity of instructing and interacting through English as a foreign language.

2.6.1.2 Theoretical and Practical Spaces

The interrelationship between code-switching and translanguaging has not yet been widely investigated. The present study investigates the functions of code-switching and translanguaging and examines the interrelationships among these language performances. Regarding practical spaces, Macaro et al. (2018) did systematic reviews with 83 empirical studies. Among those studies, there are fewer concentrations of language practices in actual classrooms. Examining the classroom practice, there is a lack of a coherent and clear articulation of instructional direction for EMI lecturers to follow as norms. In practice, “what this means is that there is likely to be considerable variation between what occurs in individual classrooms even within a single institution” (Botha, 2013; Ryan, 2018).

As EMI is being driven by an internationalisation agenda, however, evidence from current literature suggests that in many contexts across Asian universities the conditions required for EMI to work productively and suitability in a specific context are not yet in place. Serious issues, therefore, arise about the benefits for the key agents such as lecturers and students in a Thai context of the current approach to EMI. S. Borg (2016) suggests that “further research is needed to (a) describe what actually happens in EMI classrooms; [and] (b) elicit in more detail lecturers' experience of and opinions about EMI...” (p. 27). To this end, this current case study covers both beliefs and practices of content lecturers in the EMI atmosphere in order to discover cognition, practice, reflection on practice, and the phenomenon of the use of languages in EMI.

2.6.2 Research Questions

After identifying the research spaces in EMI based on a review of the current literature, this study investigated the content lecturers' beliefs and practices of language in a specific Thai university. The study was guided by the following provisional research questions:

- RQ 1. What are the lecturers' beliefs about the implementation of EMI in their setting?
- RQ 2. To what extent do the lecturers' beliefs about language converge with the observed classroom practices?
- RQ 3. What are the proportions of, and the purposes for which, Thai and English are used in the observed EMI classrooms?
- RQ 4. What is the relationship between code-switching and translanguaging in the EMI setting?
- RQ 5. How do the findings of the study contribute to academic and professional understanding of 'language' in the EMI context?

The research questions listed above were provisional arrangements, which were appropriate for use in order to guide my study in the early stages. Nevertheless, it was still not possible to accurately predict empirical data collected in later stages in the research context in Thailand. Thus, I was fully aware of the fact that a change of research questions would be very likely due to data-driven activities. As the actual data from the field influenced the findings, I slightly reformed my research questions and include the new version in Chapter 5.

In the next chapter, how I designed the present case study, developed research methodology to address the research questions above, and my data collection and analysis procedures are described.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents and discusses how I designed and carried out my research. Section 3.1 describes the research paradigm and approach, and elaborates on the details of the interpretivist research paradigm, naturalistic and qualitative inquiry, and the case study approach. Section 3.2 clarifies the participants, purposive sampling technique, and participant recruitment. Section 3.3 describes the research instrument construction for data collection. It highlights instrument construction procedures, and the pilot study. Section 3.4 outlines data collection in situ. It explains the principles and practices of semi-structured interview, classroom observation, stimulated recall interview, focus group discussion, document collection and analysis, and reflective research journal. Section 3.5 presents ethical considerations for this research. Section 3.6 explains data organisation and preparation and describes the naming of files and folders, storage systems, transcription and translation processes, and transcription conventions. Section 3.7 introduces forms of analysis and interpretation. It justifies a grounded theory approach as a strategy for analysing data, data analysis and engagement procedures, and key selection criteria for assembling findings from results. Section 3.8 discusses the validity and trustworthiness of this research, presenting three aspects of the criteria for evaluating this qualitative inquiry (i.e., credibility, transferability, and confirmability). Section 3.9 presents the summary of the chapter.

3.1 Research Paradigm and Approach

3.1.1 Naturalistic and Qualitative Inquiry

The use of naturalistic inquiry was originally proposed as an alternative to traditional positivistic inquiry (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Naturalistic inquiry focuses on reality in authentic events in the real world rather than events in research laboratories, as reality is constructed by diversity and society (Owen, 2008). Indeed,

“reality is multilayered and complex” (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011, p. 17). People act deliberately and creatively to construct meanings, in and through their life events (Blumer, 1969). In natural contexts, such as institutions and classrooms, people’s experience may be investigated in order to form an appreciation of the phenomenon (Owen, 2008). “[T]here are multiple interpretations of, and perspectives on, [individual] events and situation[s]” (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2018, p. 19).

Cohen et al. (2011) have suggested that researchers endeavour to explore a phenomenon in the social world through the lens of participants rather than through the eyes of researchers. Holliday (2015) said that “the ideas and presence of the researcher will be influential in what the data looks like and the way in which it is interpreted” (p. 49). Owen (2008) claims that the researchers’ presence in the field is necessary to observe life experiences. Research should be undertaken in natural settings without interference and intervention such as conducting workshops/training courses, by the researchers (Hammersley & Atkinson, 1983).

Naturalistic inquiry is “value bound because [the] paradigmatic and theoretical choices guiding [the] inquiry dictate the methods used for data collection, analysis, and interpretation of findings” (Owen, 2008, p. 547). Due to its nature, this inquiry needs vigorous data gathering strategies, research processes, methodologies, and particularly means of data analysis (Bowen, 2008). To examine the real world through interpretive and naturalistic lenses, researchers use qualitative inquiry (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

There is criticism of qualitative inquiry. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2010), qualitative inquiry is a time-consuming process, and it requires the researchers’ energy and determination to dig deeply to understand the phenomenon. The reason is that qualitative inquiry is “personalistic and subjective” (Stake, 2010, p. 29). However, “[o]bjective reality will never be captured. In depth understanding, the use of multiple validities, [rather than] a single validity, [and] a commitment to dialogue is sought in any interpretive study” (Denzin, 2010, p. 271).

3.1.2 The Interpretivist Research Paradigm

Neuman (2000, p. 71) stated that the interpretivist paradigm is “the systematic analysis of socially meaningful action through the direct, detailed observation of people in [their] natural settings in order to arrive [at an] understanding and interpretation of how people create and maintain their social worlds.” The interpretivist paradigm is based on the belief that there is considerable personal freedom in relation to behaviour and emphasises the individual rather than groups (Cohen et al., 2011). It deliberates on how the individual creates, modifies, and interprets the world within a specific socio-cultural context. This paradigm views knowledge as being relative and dependent on circumstances, rather than being absolute; it tends to employ qualitative, rather than quantitative, methods of data collection (Cohen et al., 2011).

Quantitative researchers often employ numerical data to present facts and their relationship to one another (Bell & Waters, 2014; Punch, 2014). For example, experiments seek to explain cause and effect relationships, while survey methods are used to explain the usual comportment of people and their views of the social world (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Yin, 1994). Many scholars acknowledge the limitations of positivistic research and its instruments (Lub, 2015) because the positivist research paradigm lacks an in-depth explanation of these effects and relationships. The common meanings of social phenomena are excluded (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998). Positivism is blind to how social reality is actually fashioned and preserved, or how people construe their actions and those of others (Blaikie, 2007). Also, the quantitative research paradigm neglects the experiences and perspectives of people in particular settings (Ary, Jacobs, Sorensen, & Walker, 2013). As an illustration, there is a lack of constructive interaction between researchers and participants when gathering data.

Interpretive researchers are captivated by multiple perspectives and knowledge in various communities, they search for various truths to make an impact on reality because a single truth cannot form ‘concrete universals’ or reality as a whole (Erickson, 1986, p. 130), precisely because distinctive individuals have different perspectives of their existences. Therefore, the interpretive researchers’ duty is to find rich descriptions of the informants’ views and work on the understanding

(Cronbach, 1975) so that they “capture an assumption that, what we know is preliminary, elusive, tentative, and context-bound, thus, generalizing in the statistical sense, it is not a goal” (Rallis & Rossman, 2009, p. 268). Therefore, being ‘reflexive’ and ‘transparent’ regarding disclosed knowledge should be the qualities of the qualitative researcher (Lub, 2015).

With respect to data analysis, it is appropriate to employ an inductive data analysis to describe and interpret human phenomena (Bowen, 2008; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Mutch, 2013), and this is most frequently done by constructing a grounded theory (Bowen, 2008). The focus of this research paradigm is to explore the extent to which a phenomenon actually occurs (in this case, lecturers’ cognition and practices); to describe such a phenomenon in detail; and to explain the influence of contextual factors. Primarily, this form of research plays a role in the process of exploring, describing, and explaining answers (Davidson & Tolich, 1999; Mutch, 2013).

To sum up, there is a strong relationship between an interpretivist paradigm and naturalistic and qualitative methodologies. Interpretivists see the world through a “series of individual eyes” (McQueen, 2002, p. 16). Thus, quantitative methodologies are inappropriate methods in an interpretivist paradigm. An explanation for this is that “qualitative research is a means for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem” (Creswell, 2009, p. 4) through social and experiential construction in natural settings. Hence, deploying quantitative research to describe the real world in terms of beliefs and practices in numbers and measures in place of words, is unlikely to be fertile. Indeed, the nature of interpretivist research engages naturalistic and qualitative inquiry to focus on reality in a natural setting.

In the present study of lecturer cognition and practices, the aims were to gain an understanding and an explanation of the actual teaching behaviours and thoughts of the content lecturers in a Thai university context. The epistemology of this study was subjectivist, meaning that all knowledge in this study was influenced by the lecturers’ personal beliefs or feelings (Cohen et al., 2011), as well as those of myself, as the researcher. It was based on a relativist ontology, that is, the belief that truth can be judged only in relation to other things, such as the lecturers’ personal situations (Goldkuhl, 2012). In accordance with this research ontology, the research was intended to study real-world circumstances without any intervention,

such as running a professional development workshop, or giving advice to lecturers as to how to improve their pedagogy.

3.1.3 The Case Study Approach

In interpretive educational research, the case study is most widely used as a research approach (Duff, 2008; Gall, Gall, & S. Borg, 2003; Stake, 2000). Duff (2008) defines the term case study as highlighting the “bounded, singular nature of the case, the importance of context, the availability of multiple sources of information or perspectives on observations, and the in-depth nature of analysis” (p. 22). Bounded means that the context in which this case is situated is specific and distinctive in terms of policies, practices, and spatial and temporal settings. In other words, a case study is an empirical inquiry that explores an existing phenomenon within its actual situations, and it allows researchers to expose a range of factors which have interacted to produce the unique character of the entity that is the subject of study (Yin, 2003, 2009, 2014).

Stake (2005) has distinguished three main kinds of case study: intrinsic, instrumental, and collective. He highlights that the intrinsic case study offers space to learn about and understand a unique phenomenon rather than to extend, and/or, generalise theory. Personal interest may drive researchers to work on a single specific case which is often exploratory in nature (Stake, 2005). Stake also notes that instrumental case study offers the case itself as a tool to advance and establish new theory or test out existing theory. An instrumental case allows researchers to compare findings across other cases. Stake explains that a collective case study offers exploration of multiple and larger collections of instrumental case studies. A collective case allows researchers to compare, and/or, replicate findings across numerous cases for a better understanding which can be generalised as a theory or used to test an existing theory (Stake, 2005).

The present study is an intrinsic case study that “investigated complex social units, consisting of multiple variables, of potential importance in understanding the phenomenon” (Merriam, 2001, p. 41). In this case, I paid attention to the content of lecturers’ cognition and practices regarding EMI, in one institution, at one point,

over a period of time during the implementation of EMI in their subject-matter classes in non-science disciplines. Hence, this approach assisted in providing detailed data, which comprised two strengths: it had fine-grained detail at a micro-level of some aspects of the lecturers' behaviour; and it was grounded in reality.

As far as I am aware, it is not the purpose of a case study to make concluding generalisations (Creswell, 2003; Yin, 2003). Moreover, a case study does not involve randomisation and control manipulation of internal and independent validities (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006). I paid attention to a research process to promote the rigour of the findings of this case study, and I had no intention to generalise research findings to the whole EMI communities. Therefore, I followed a recommendation that purposive sampling should be positively employed in a case study where a specific, small number is drawn to disclose and explore particular subjects (Fitzpatrick, Sanders, & Worthen, 2004). See Section 3.4.1 about purposive sample technique.

3.2 Participants

This section gives details about purposive sampling for this study, and selection criteria. It describes how I actually recruited the participants, and summarises information about the primary participants of this research. Figure 3.1 displays the whole process that related to the participants. However, the focus of this section is about participant recruitment prior to data collection process.

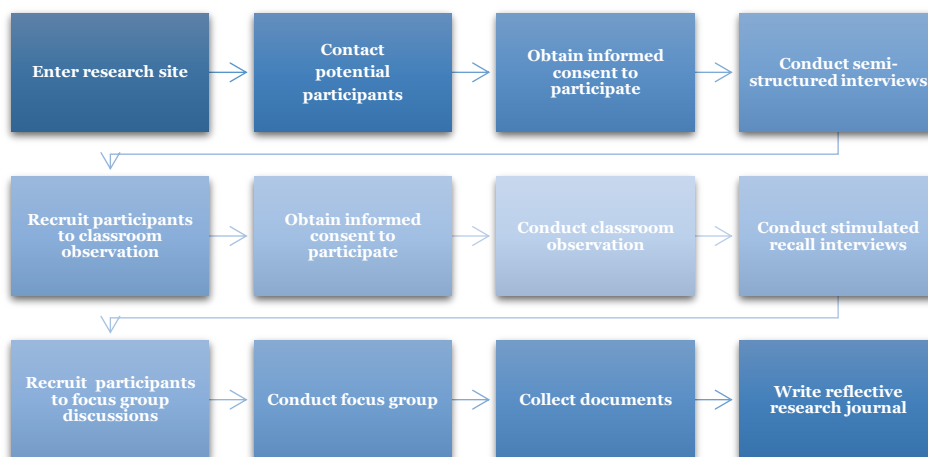


Figure 3.1: Procedures related to participants

As soon as the Dean of the faculty gave me permission to access the research site, I entered to set all research instruments and review my research plan. In the next step, I contacted potential participants through various channels (i.e., emails, letters, face to face) to recruit participants for data collection activities. I asked participants for authorisation to proceed with the plan. Each data gathering activity will be presented in full detail in Section 3.4.

3.2.1 Purposive Sample Technique

Rallis and Rossman (2009) commented that a mainly qualitative inquiry relies on purposive sampling since the researcher has a well-defined purpose when recruiting specific participants to contribute to the study. This study utilised a purposive sample technique (Mutch, 2013) to choose individual participants by applying the following criteria: (1) they were native Thai lecturers for whom English was not their first language; (2) they may or may not have graduated from English speaking countries; (3) they had attended a three-week professional development CLIL workshop; (4) they may or may not have gained experience in teaching EMI in the classroom; (5) they taught subject-matter courses through English to Thai undergraduate students in the first semester of 2016; (6) they implemented the lowest level of the English Linguistic Gears explained in Chapter 1 (full descriptions of ELGs are provided in Chapter 4; (7) they taught different disciplines in non-science fields; and (8) they were willing to participate in this research.

3.2.2 Participant Recruitment

Based on the institutional culture of practice, I immediately sent out information and invitations to participate in my research project to 22 EMI lecturers after receiving approval for access to the research site (see Appendix 1). After two weeks, not many potential participants had responded to the letters of invitation. Full details regarding Information Letter to Participants are given in Appendix 2. To follow up on this matter, I sent emails to them, but it was not an effective way of communicating with the participants in this research since few replies were received.

Therefore, I decided to visit them in person by having a walk-in conversation with the potential participants, discussing the research project with each of them individually. As a result, 22 participants confirmed they were willing to participate in the research project. In the meanwhile, as I could only arrange appointments for phase one (semi-structured interviews), it meant that all of the participants would need to confirm their participation in the other data collection activities later. By doing this, I was aware that this method would take a good deal of time and more effort to complete the process.

After the semi-structured interviews, I invited the interviewees to participate in phase two of the data gathering (classroom observations and stimulated recalls). However, most of the participants declined to accept since they felt that they were not ready to use EMI immediately in the first semester of 2016 after participating the workshops. Besides, many participants who had some previous experience with the use of EMI lacked confidence in a continued use of EMI. Moreover, it seemed some participants felt intimidated by being observed, and they also felt insecure about their English ability when using EMI. More importantly, they might worry that I would reveal their mistakes and errors in English. For these reasons, I had considerable difficulty in recruiting participants to join in the second phase.

To deal with this difficulty, I determined to promote familiarity with new participants and to stimulate interpersonal trust between me, as the researcher, and the participants through constructive dialogues. Accordingly, there were still only two participants who were perfectly willing to participate in phase two. I continued to deal with the challenge using the same strategy, and eventually I had four more participants. This study eventually had six primary participants, who met the criteria for participant selection, involved in both classroom observations and stimulated recalls.

In regard to phase three of data gathering (the focus group discussions), I planned that the participants in this phase would be the same group as in the second phase. However, by the time the focus groups were due to take place, two primary participants had dropped out from being active contributors; hence I contacted participants whose names appeared in EMI lecturer lists. In this way, I was able to recruit two participants as substitutes for the two primary participants. In

conclusion, six participants were involved in phase three. All lecturer participants signed informed consent forms prior to data collections (Appendix 3).

3.2.3 Primary Participants

Six content lecturers taught different disciplines—from Information and Communication to Social Development, Public Administration to Philosophy and Religion. As primary participants, these six lecturers were involved in the semi-structured interviews. Also, the same group of six lecturers participated in a more detailed study of classroom observations and stimulated recall interviews. Six lecturers, comprising four primary and two secondary participants, took part in the focus group discussions.

Table 3.1: Primary participants’ profiles (all names are pseudonyms)

Pseudonym	G	Qualifications	CLIL training	Years of CLIL experience with undergraduates	Students (numbers)
1.Derek	M	PhD in Ethnology, Vietnam	2016	0	2 nd year (35)
2.Bodin	M	PhD in Information Studies, Thailand	2016	0	3 rd -4 th year (51)
3.Jarad	M	PhD in Integrated Science, Thailand	2015	0	2 nd year (79)
4.Navin	M	MA in Philosophy, Thailand	2015	1	2 nd year (44)
5.Amara	F	MA in Library & Information Management, UK	2014	2	1 st year (54)
6.Tanya	F	EdD in Technology & Educational Media, Thailand	2014	2	3 rd -4 th year (26)

I was fully aware that selected key participants might withdraw as any stage of the project; thus, secondary participants were intentionally recruited to substitute for those who dropped out of the study. This present study involved six lecturers in pre-

instructing stages to while-instructing stage, to post-instructing stages. Participants were divided into two categories, namely more experienced and less experienced lecturers (hereafter referred to as novices) in terms of EMI implementation. The former included Amara, Navin, and Tanya. They had attended the CLIL workshop in 2014-15. Subsequently, these three lecturers had been instructing subject contents through EMI to undergraduate students and developed their pedagogies alongside for one or two year(s). In 2016 they volunteered to continue instructing subject-matter in English. The latter comprised Bodin, Derek, and Jarad. These three lecturers had recently attended CLIL workshops in 2015-16, and they had no experience in teaching academic contents through EMI to undergraduate students. Jarad had completed the workshop in 2015 and taught one postgraduate course. However, he had never experienced using EMI with any undergraduate courses. These novice lecturers were assigned by the faculty to instruct subject-matter in English in the Thai curriculum for the first part of the academic year 2016. In the analysis and interpretation of data and the discussion, the six participants were considered as one group.

3.3 Research Instrument Construction for Data Collection

This section describes the research instruments used for data collection, in three phases, namely a pre-lesson phase, a while-lesson observation phase, and a post-lesson phase. This section provides a discussion on the question of validity in qualitative inquiry instruments and explains how I promoted the validity of research tools.

3.3.1 Instrument Construction Procedures

Prior to data collection, I applied various practical procedures to construct research instruments. Figure 3.2 below illustrates the procedure for instrument construction.

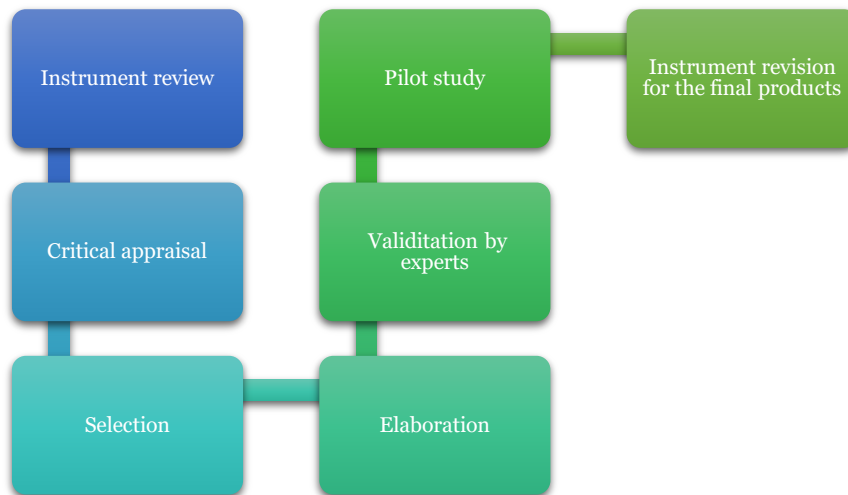


Figure 3.2: Instrument construction procedures

I started the process by reviewing various methods of lecturer cognition research to understand possible instruments. Later, I focused on the instruments that positively met my research aims. For the next activity, I evaluated relevant research instruments based on the criteria: appropriateness, practicality, suitability and feasibility. These instruments had to be useable in the field, and they must suit the participants to yield data. Also, I had to ensure that I had sound competence in the use of these instruments. Next, I constructed research instruments based on the nature of particular instruments. Moving to the next activity, my supervisors evaluated all research instruments and gave feedback on certain points for further development. Full details regarding validation are given in Section 3.8.1. The next activity was a pilot study, in which I tested the constructed instruments with volunteers (see Section 3.2.3 for more details). I finalised the instruments prior to data collection.

3.3.2 Pilot Study

Piloting is commonly used with all types of research designs to enhance the legitimacy and trustworthiness of the data-gathering instruments (Morrel & Carroll, 2010). Piloting is a valuable tool in the study as a pilot study can stimulate foresight prior to actual use. Thus, Bell and Waters (2014) recommend that all data collection tools ought to be piloted. They also clarify that a pilot study aims to trial how long

each tool takes informants to complete; to check that all questions and instruments are well-defined; to remove the bugs from the tools; to confirm that the responses address the intent of the questions; to address any problems or confusion; to eliminate any items that do not yield useable data; and to add new questions that might be related. Ideally, researchers should trial proposed data-gathering tools with pilot volunteers similar to those that will form the population of the actual study, but if, in practice, that is impossible, they can pilot with the available resources and volunteers (Bell & Waters, 2014; Morrel & Carroll, 2010). The researchers need to trial the actual methods and tools with the pilot volunteers so that the genuine participants will not encounter difficulties while giving data in the main study.

There were two phases to the pilot studies of research instruments. The first phase was in New Zealand. I piloted semi-structured interview schedules with seven Thai students (three PhD and four MA). For piloting an observation check-list, due to limited relevant classroom resources, I tested the check-list by employing CLIL lessons on Thai Teachers TV and YouTube. This channel provided lessons that used MOI in Thai and English, as there were no available resources of this type in New Zealand. Figure 3.3 displays an original resource used in testing the check-list.



Figure 3.3: CLIL lesson

Source: Thai Teachers TV (2012)

I selected this CLIL lesson because a teacher had English proficiency, but students lacked English skills. I also used other CLIL lessons on YouTube in order to pilot my instrument with different teaching practices. For example, I focused on how the teachers gave lectures and structured activities (kobwit piriyawat, 2011) and classroom interactions. In regard to piloting schedule/topics for focus group discussions, I piloted the schedules and topics with the same group of Thai students. Afterwards I developed all research instruments based on comments from the volunteers and my assessment made during the pilot study.

In this pilot study, I gained more confidence in using the research instruments and operating data collection in the actual research field. Although initial research instruments had been piloted under available resources in New Zealand, I was aware that the piloted instruments still needed to be adjusted to suit local practice in the field.

The second phase was in Thailand prior to a data collection stage. I used the piloted instruments from the first phase with EMI lecturer populations, who were not the main participants. Figure 3.4 presents pilot study processes of semi-structured interview schedules.



Figure 3.4: Pilot study processes

In step 3, I paid attention to the Thai language used in the instruments due to EMI lecturers' preference. They agreed that using Thai could help them express themselves more easily and deeply in terms of critical points, as Thai is their first language. I was able to understand that they preferred topic discussions rather than questions and answers. During the interview, the EMI lecturers preferred 'going with the flow' rather than 'fixing a sequence of the topics.' Having a chance to listen to their perspective, I was also able to add new topics to be discussed with actual lecturer participants. In step 4, I had incorporated core interview topics into the final products of the interview schedules. These schedules were not fixed and might change upon particular circumstances during actual data collection.

3.4 Data Collection in situ and Procedures

3.4.1 Semi-structured Interviews

The interview allows the implicit and unobservable beliefs of the lecturers to be made explicit. Interviewing seems to be an appropriate tool for eliciting verbal commentaries, and many teacher cognition researchers have employed it in a semi-structured format. According to S. Borg (2006), a semi-structured interview is commonly used when a researcher aims to capture the main element of natural conversation, especially when conducting a broad-ranging interview. This method is productive or meaningful when researchers use themes or topics to guide interviewees while investigating complicated behaviours and views (Menter, Elliot, Hulme, Lewin, & Lowden, 2011; Punch, 2014). Thus, with regard to the practicality of data collection in the field, researchers have “a great deal of flexibility in the manner in which they encourage the interviewee to talk about these themes” (S. Borg, 2006, p. 190).

In semi-structured interviews, “the researcher has a list of questions or fairly specific topics to be covered, often referred to as an interview guide, but the interviewee has a great deal of leeway in how to reply” (Bryman, 2016, p. 468). Using topics or themes instead of fixed questions promotes naturalness and flexibility for some particular individuals and situations (Cohen et al., 2018). However, in some cases, if semi-structured interviews do not employ structured questions, irrelevant data could be unintentionally derived because the interviews are flexible in their sequencing and in the wording of questions (Cohen et al., 2018).

A semi-structured interview was the first data collection procedure used in this lecturer cognition research. It aimed to gather the lecturers’ cognition, to seek their attitudes towards the EMI implementation, language in EMI, and anticipation of foreseen challenges before teaching and possible solutions. The interview schedules were adopted from the piloted version in situ. I decided to provide interview topics or themes rather than fixed questions because I believed that the topics or themes allowed the participants to express their views (see Appendix 4). They would not feel imposed on by fixed questions. In the actual moment, I also used follow-up questions when their answers needed further clarification.

From an original plan, I intended to conduct interviews with 19 content lecturers. However, my main target was only 15. In case of withdrawal, I looked for a further three lecturers. In reality, resulting from interest shown by potential participants, there were 22 lecturers participating in individual interviews during the first four weeks of the new semester. Each interview was audio-recorded, being roughly 35-45 minutes long. A sample interview transcription is included in Appendix 5. Summaries of the interviews were sent to the interviewees for respondent validation (see Appendix 6). Feedback from them had confirmed that they agreed on the accuracy of the information in the summary. All data collection activities and processes were conducted in the Thai language because it was the lecturers' language choice. Indeed, they felt comfortable to exchange their perspectives in their first language. More importantly, the lecturers could provide rich and in-depth information in Thai.

Only six interview data sets from the main participants were exploited in the analysis stage (see Participant Recruitment in Section 3.2.2). The other data were intended to provide background information about the subject to me as the researcher.

3.4.2 Classroom Observations

Observation provides the researcher with an opportunity to collect live data from naturally occurring social situations. Such data may be based on the physical setting in the teaching and learning environment; the human setting in terms of the characteristics of the groups or individuals being observed; the interactional setting in classrooms; and the programme setting in a classroom, that is, pedagogical styles and curricula (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007; Morrison, 1993). Thus, a researcher can collect direct evidence regarding what happens in classrooms, and this evidence can then provide the starting point for a grounded analysis of teachers' practices (S. Borg, 2015).

Video-recording, as a way of capturing teaching evidence, is considered effective because it will provide a concrete context (Canh, 2011). However, technical problems may occur during recorded observation. Apart from this technical

concern, the video-recording can intrude on the lecturers' and students' privacy and may threaten the natural setting of the classroom, meaning that classroom interactional tensions may increase. This study utilised digital audio-recorders because they are less obtrusive than video cameras and can capture most of the lecturers' verbal interactions with their classes/students.

To discover what content lecturers actually use in their EMI classrooms at the university, a non-participant observation technique was adopted on the research site to observe and record what was happening in the specific classrooms. During observation, I did not participate in any classroom activities. I occupied an inconspicuous spot within the classroom, to be specific, at the extreme left and right of the middle row in the classroom, in order to observe the students' reactions to the teaching practices. This approach did not disturb the classroom events. Observation checklists (see Appendix 7), field notes (see Appendix 8) as well as digital voice recorders were used during the observations. Observation checklists were derived from CLIL workshop materials provided to the participants prior to their implementation of EMI in their classes.

According to the first plan, I needed to observe four content classes on three occasions throughout the semester. However, I was unable to make multiple observations due to an increased heavy workload of the participants. Therefore, I shifted my plan to a more realistic target. I recruited lecturers to be involved in a one-time classroom observation. However, only six lecturers out of twenty-two were prepared to take part because of personal interest and willingness to participate fully in observations and stimulated recalls. I observed six content classes on single occasions, with each class lasting from 90 to 180 minutes. The scheduling of classroom observation conducted in the first and second parts of the course was based on participants' availability and comfort (see areas of classroom observation in EMI classrooms in Appendix 9).

Since observation alone could not provide evidence of the beliefs, intentions and underlying actions, it was always combined with post-lesson discussions, that is, stimulated recall interviews, with the lecturers concerned in order to elicit this information. The observational data collected formed the basis for conducting the stimulated recall interviews.

3.4.3 Stimulated Recall Interviews

Stimulated recall is a research method that provides lecturers with an opportunity to verbalise their thoughts about their interactive decision-making during lessons (Basturkmen et al., 2004; S. Borg, 1998). This method provides a concrete context for the elicitation of teacher beliefs and other factors that underpin the teaching and ensures that these are grounded in the actual, observed teaching practices rather than abstractions (S. Borg, 2015).

Regarding the issue of timing in conducting stimulated recalls, Gass and Mackey (2000) discussed the appropriate period to arrange the stimulated recall after observation. Immediate recalls are best, but if this is not possible researchers should arrange for the session to take place no more than 24 hours later. It is also explained that the validity and reliability of responses are improved if there is little or no delay of the interview after the event. However, a short time delay between behaviour and recall is acceptable. Henderson and Tallman (2006) clarified that if the stimulated recall interview is conducted within a 48-hour time frame, then the method still contains a degree of reliability for obtaining data.

Burns and Knox (2005) noted that stimulated recall interviews were able to counteract any problems of short-term memory loss because participants were able to focus on the original discourse. They also considered that both teachers and researchers could deal with interpretations of the events that could be directly connected back to particular points in the lesson. Thus, stimulated recall helps a researcher to explore and understand why teachers behave in certain ways, what values they hold and how they perceived their situation.

This study applied Burns and Knox's (2005) two steps of stimulated recall interview techniques. Firstly, I studied audio data in preparation for the post-lesson discussions. The key teaching events involved the use of language for particular purposes. Secondly, I selected and transcribed crucial excerpts from teaching events to use as stimuli for the post-lesson discussions with the lecturers. S. Borg (2006) argued that it was difficult to use transcripts to conduct stimulated recall immediately afterwards. Thus, I planned to conduct post-lesson discussions preferably within 24 hours, and at the most within 48 hours, after observing the

classroom teaching because sufficient time needed to be set aside for the purpose of preparing the stimuli to elicit maximum benefit from the stimulated recalls. For this data gathering activity, I could follow my original plan. Most of the stimulated recall interviews were conducted within 24 hours. Stimulated recall interview schedules are in Appendix 10. The discussions were audio-recorded (see transcription in Appendix 11), and summaries of the interviews were sent to the participants to confirm the content (see Appendix 12). They had a very positive response to the summary of the stimulated recall interviews.

After gathering data from semi-structured interviews, observation in the actual classroom events, and stimulated recall interviews, the next stage of the data collection in this study was to conduct focus group discussions.

3.4.4 Focus Group Discussions

The focus group discussion is a very useful way to examine the stories, experiences, points of view, beliefs, needs and concerns of individuals (Ho, 2006; Kitzinger, 2005). It is particularly suitable for exploring issues “where complex patterns of behaviour and motivation are evident, where diverse views are held” (Conradson, 2005, p. 131). The focus group discussion allows participants to interact with each other rather than with the interviewer, meaning that the interaction can develop content, and the group as a whole generates data and outcomes (Cohen et al., 2007). This method can yield insights that might not otherwise have been available in a one-on-one interview, and it is considered to be economical of time by constructing a large amount of data about attitudes, values and opinions in a short period of time (Cohen et al., 2011).

Regarding limitations, there are concerns regarding over active and less active participants. Also, the discussions may go off track, if the researcher is not in the focus group to facilitate the participants. The focus group in the present study proved useful in exploring and examining what the lecturers thought, how they thought, and why they thought the way they did about EMI pedagogy. This method did not compel participants to make decisions or reach a consensus. Thus, the main reason for using a focus group discussion for this study was to enable the content

lecturers to reflect and share evidence of practices of EMI pedagogy in EMI classrooms from their own experience and perspectives.

In order to design the focused discussion topics, I developed the topics and all questions according to the findings of the study so far (see Appendix 13). The topics and questions were divided into three stages of EMI pedagogy: pre-teaching stage (e.g., planning lessons), while-teaching stage (e.g., classroom teaching strategies), and post-teaching stage (e.g., assessing students' learning performances). In these three stages, the participants discussed and reflected on their successful classes together by considering four aspects, what worked, why it worked, how it worked, and what the evidence was of its success.

At first, I had planned to conduct discussions with all of the participants who were involved in the data gathering activities. Unfortunately, only four of the six primary participants could attend a focus group discussion. These four participants were divided into two focus groups to suit their availability and I added two peripheral participants to make up two viable focus groups. While group A contained three main participants, group B had only one main participant and other lecturers who met my selection criterion. I was physically present at all focus group discussion sessions because I needed to ensure that participants were focussed in terms of the topics and content under discussion.

My role was as the facilitator and monitor only, since I did not intend to share any ideas to or take control of the discussion sessions. What I did was to open the discussion by providing a lead-in, I asked potentially dominant participants to provide space for other people to contribute and encouraged the quiet participants to share more of their ideas. The reasoning behind this was that in Thai culture, the person holding the highest position, status and title, might dominate and influence the session, and the other persons would just listen and agree with their seniors. It would be considered inappropriate manners for a 'junior' to interrupt a senior lecturer when taking turns in the discussion.

The discussions were audio-recorded and lasted 95 minutes for group A, and 105 minutes for group B. I collated the focus group interview data and sent summaries to the participants in order for them to check the content accuracy (see Appendix

14). They confirmed the accuracy of the summary. Only the main participants' data were analysed and used to triangulate with findings from other sources.

3.4.5 Collection and Content Analysis of Documents

A document collection is a vital research instrument in its own right and is an invaluable part of most schemes of triangulation in data analysis (Bowen, 2009; Bryman, 2016; Denzin, 1978). According to McMillan (2012), this approach will also assist in verifying or supporting data obtained through interview or observation. It is a systematic procedure for reviewing or evaluating documents in order to elicit meaning and gain understanding. "The analytic procedure entails finding, selecting, appraising (making sense of), and synthesising data contained in documents" (Bowen, 2009, p. 27) to increase comprehension and develop empirical knowledge (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Rapley, 2007).

The EMI policy documents and teaching materials from the research site provided chronological tracking of the transition of EMI policy into practice. To collect data systematically, EMI documents from the university were divided into two main categories. The first category was the institution's EMI documents, which included the official HASS EMI policies and the CLIL workshop materials.

With regard to the first set of documents, the aim of my analysis was to review and discover documents to understand to what extent they could inform the research questions on site at different stages that I had formulated. My actual questions were, Is it a top-down or bottom-up policy in HASS? If it is the top-down policy, what are the origins of the EMI policy in Thai higher education? What are the EMI policies at the university level in HASS? What are EMI policies at the faculty level? And, How did the faculty manage their EMI programmes to lead to practice? To analyse core content in policies and answer these research questions, I applied Mayring's (2014) four techniques of inductive qualitative content analysis to develop categories (i.e., setting research questions, defining a selection criterion/category, working through the texts line by line, and constructing main categories). Hsieh and Shannon (2005) explain that content analysis aims to interpret meaning from the content of text data. Qualitative content analysis is "a very systematic, controlled, step-by-step sort of text analysis" (p. 116).

These documents helped me in gaining an understanding of the EMI programme in my university, but none of them are presented in the findings chapter. The reason was that the institution retained copyright on the workshop materials. Furthermore, some documents contained sensitivity and confidentiality issues regarding intra-organisational management (e.g., EMI lecturers/programme evaluation). Also, it was not my research aim to use documents as a primary source of data.

The second category included lecturers' teaching reports (I refer to these later as 'Written Teaching Reports', or WTRs) and teaching materials (e.g., course syllabus, PowerPoint Presentation, and classroom tasks). These documents were collected at the research site and triangulated with other collected data to advance a comprehensive conception of the EMI phenomenon from the angles of the different data sources. Regarding teaching reports, EMI lecturers submitted an individual written report on EMI implementation to HASS at the end of the course. The report was written during December 2016 in PDF digital file format (see Appendix 15). All reports were written in Thai. The length of each report was approximately 20 pages. The aims of the reports were to reflect the processes of the use of CLIL pillars in their instruction, to present the products of EMI, to indicate major problems occurring during use of EMI, and to voice any recommendations for better EMI implementation during the next semester. There were two main areas relating to my research included in the report: challenges of EMI implementation and recommendations.

These reports were written for the faculty management not for the purpose of my research, meaning that critical points lecturers made in the reports were directly addressed to the faculty authorities, not to me as the researcher. It emerged that the participants had different aims, attitudes, and motivations while composing the reports for their management. Thus, I compared and contrasted the points they addressed to the faculty with the points they said to me.

All lecturers were willing to share their teaching materials and reports with me. The Associate Dean for Academic Affairs gave me official permission to access and use these reports for the purpose of research (see Appendix 16). I was able to collect only four reports from the field as two lecturers (Tanya and Navin) had not yet submitted their reports to the faculty. Regarding the report usage, I added

photographs and PowerPoint Presentation in a lecturers' practices section to illustrate the lecturer's speech with concrete, visual evidence in the findings chapter (Chapter 5). In a reflective practices section, I combined the challenges and recommendation areas from the written reports with the stimulated recall interview data in order to have comprehensive coverage of data on the lecturers' voices, from the field.

3.4.6 Reflective Research Journal

The reflective research journal is positive and meaningful (Burton, 2009) because it involves both a process and a product that aids researchers to “capture an experience, record an event, explore our feelings, or make sense of what we know” (Boud, 2001, p. 9). There are several purposes for the use of journals. The first one is as a personal diary which involve the researcher's sensitive stories, feelings, thoughts, insecurities and insights, while doing research (Blaxter, Hughes, & Tight, 2010; Bryman, 2016). Another is that the researcher treats a journal as a research tool or field notes to record different stages of the research process, such as planning, development, and reflection until the completion of the research. S. Borg (2001) supports the use of reflective writing to document a researcher's personal experience during their research processes. Ortlipp (2008) reflects on her direct experience of the use of a reflective journal: “Keeping and using reflective journals enabled me to make my experiences, opinions, thoughts, and feelings visible and an acknowledged part of the research design, data generation, analysis, and interpretation process” (p. 705). This is an accepted practice from perspectives of interpretivist and qualitative inquiry (Bashan & Holsblat, 2017).

I used a reflective journal as a personal space to record incident events which other research instruments could not capture. I also employed a reflective research journal when expressing critical and analytical thinking about events in my research field. I decided to make my experiences, opinions, thoughts, and feelings visible and an acknowledged part of the research process through keeping a reflective research journal. In this journal I included field notes, incident events, actions, important notes, and comments on my own work. My reflective writing was evidence of a series of flashbacks of events, ideas, objects, experiences, and processes. My

reflective journal primarily emphasised incidents in lecturers' practices. Figure 3.5 illustrates reflective journal procedures.

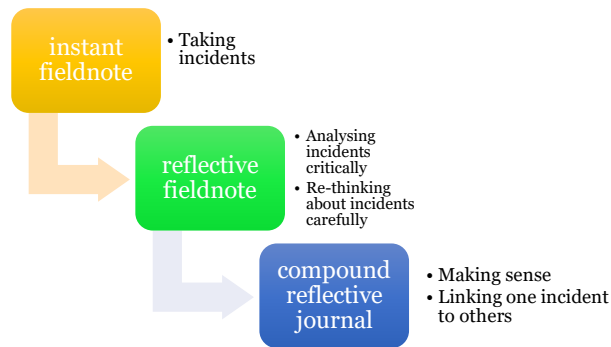


Figure 3.5: Composition in writing a reflective journal

In an instant field note procedure, it could be used to generate incidents for stimuli as much as possible. While I observed events, I instantaneously noted incidents. I wrote in full English sentences when details were needed. I also listed important points in a bullet point form when various incidents occurred in a series. In some events, unexpected situations did not allow me to record an instant field note. I decided to make mental notes instead of writing on paper. Later, I transformed these points to digital files.

In a reflective field note procedure, I aimed to re-think each incident. I used these bullet points and mental notes as stimuli to assist me in recalling the subject of a retrospective exhibit. To write the journal, I asked myself questions such as: What is it? What happened? What is important? And what have I learned from this? I intended to maintain the journal every fortnight. However, due to unforeseen circumstances, I could not do so. Writing comprehensive content and maintaining the reflective research journal with busy schedules on the research site is a major limitation.

In my compound reflective journal procedure, I aimed to make sense of key incidents. I linked one incident to others in the same events. I wrote and completed them when I had time. I wrote in a free text or free writing in English which had an open format to give me an opportunity to record activities and events using my own words (see Appendix 17 for an example).

3.5 Ethical Considerations

This section emphasises the ethical considerations to demonstrate my awareness of conducting research with human participants. It explains University of Waikato regulations and guidelines and process prior to visiting the research field. This sections also identifies three important ethical considerations which were derived from the fieldwork and influenced data quality. The first issue presents potential benefit and harm to participants. The second explains openness and consent focusing on deciding factors which influenced the participants' un/willingness to contribute to this research. The last issue discusses trust and honesty that may occur in the research field.

3.5.1 The University of Waikato regulations and guidelines

Cavan (1977, p. 810) defines 'ethics' as "a matter of principled sensitivity to the rights of others." It is necessary for applied linguistics researchers to take into account the possible effect of their research for participants (Cohen et al., 2018). Cohen et al. suggest that researchers must have an accountability to research participants "to act in such a way as to preserve their dignity as human beings" (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 112). Consideration for ethical conduct assists researchers in making appropriate judgments, sound decisions, and in choosing the right alternatives in order to shield and protect all from discomfort (Miller, Birch, Mauthner, & Jessop, 2012).

The University of Waikato has established regulations on ethical conduct in human research and related activities as good practice for designing and conducting research with human participants. The regulations illuminate the standard of ethical conduct required in research including human participants, such as minimisation of harm, informed consent, and non-exploitative relationships. They note that "[a] staff member, student or authorised person must not commence research or a related activity until it has been approved by the appropriate authority and in accordance with these regulations" (The University of Waikato, 2018). So, students must submit applications for approval for their research, or related activity, to the delegated faculties committees within the University.

My proposal was reviewed by the Faculty of Education's Human Research Ethics Committee, and I received their approval to proceed to conduct this study.

3.5.2 Potential Benefit or Harm to Participants

3.5.2.1 Benefit

The University of Waikato's Ethical Conduct in Human Research and Related Activities Regulations 2008 set a standard of value of research or related activities and the public interest. The regulations state that:

A researcher must be able to justify to his or her peers of the goals and methodology of the research and/or related activity in terms of its reasonably anticipated benefits balanced against any foreseeable risk of harm to the participants. (The University of Waikato, 2018)

My research offered potential intellectual benefits to participants such as self-reflective practices and self-awareness in the use of English and Thai, and pedagogy through data collection participation such as focus group discussions. These benefits would be derived from the participants' reflection on their own practices.

More importantly, it was the first time for them to reflect systematically their teaching practice regarding EMI. By so doing, my research activities contributed to the professional learning of participants that had begun in their actual classrooms. To illustrate this point, the participants were in a process of self-observation and self-evaluation through answering the following thought-provoking questions: What do you actually do in the EMI classroom? Why do you do it? Does it work or not? What makes it work?

3.5.2.2 Harm

The researchers should attempt to ensure that participants are protected from excessive intrusion, anxiety, humiliation, embarrassment, psychological and social harm (Stevens, 2013). A possible way to create unanticipated psychological harm is for the researcher to ask informants questions regarding their attitudes and

experiences on “sensitive” phenomena during the data collection process (McCosker, Barnard, & Gerber, 2001).

In my research, there were four parties who might encounter potential harm because they were closely associated in terms of EMI programme development. Regarding OverseasU, I used their workshop information only to understand background information about the workshop. I was aware that if I made negative criticisms regarding the CLIL workshop this might decrease their good reputation. My concern was that this study would not be a cause for tensions among parties, especially OverseasU and HomeU. This is because these two parties had established a good relationship over a period of time. I anonymised data and removed identifiers. CLIL workshop materials from OverseasU are not used as part of my data collection and analysis.

I was sensitive to revealing negative results of EMI activities at HASS. The top HomeU authorities might blame the HASS management for unexpected results since HomeU had invested heavily in this programme at HASS. Additionally, the HASS authorities might lose face if negative practices were revealed. At the same time, I was aware that as an ethical researcher I needed to maintain the overall integrity of the data and of the research.

In regard to participants, I had no positive or negative histories with most of them. However, my research might draw attention to the weak points of EMI practices in my thesis. A highly undesirable situation, might occur for the participants, such as if their criticism of the policy and unexpected practice were heightened in this thesis, creating a potential risk to promotion prospects. To diminish harm, I used pseudonyms, altered the names of the participants’ teaching subjects and omitted names of the departments. Although I used lecturer participants’ reports written for management, I selected only the potential issues that could be developed for the benefit of HomeU, HASS, lecturers, and students.

3.5.3 Consent

I informed potential participants about my research objectives and agenda as precisely as possible. I also distributed information letters to them. During data

collection, I provided an opportunity to the participants to talk about the research in progress. Later, I realised that my research framework had shifted from general lecturers' beliefs and practices about EMI to specific aspects on languages in the EMI environment. I was aware that the participants should know this. Again, I shared my current research with them in person when re-visiting the site.

Receiving the acknowledged, informed consent of participants is necessary for the ethical conduct of the research so that the participants are not misinformed about their agreement to data gathering activities, and is a commitment from the researcher regarding the subject of confidentiality and anonymity (Menter et al., 2011; Rallis & Rossman, 2009). Rossman and Rallis (2016) argue that participants should be made aware that their identities, such as names and positions, will not be displayed in any dialogues or written papers concerning the research.

As far as I was aware, I clearly explained to the participants about informed consent and that it was not merely a paper that was signed, but it was a voluntary agreement to participate in my research. Before so doing, they should have a full understanding of my intentions.

3.5.4 Trust

Social interaction with participants requires diplomacy and sensitivity on the part of researchers (Lub, 2015). Researchers should be responsible for maintaining confidentiality (Fossheim, 2015) and be realistic about the extent to which they can guarantee anonymity (Zeni, Prophete, Cason, & Phillips, 2001). To make certain that reliable ethical practices are in place, the researchers must be open, honest and humble enough to work on building and sustaining a good rapport with the participants (Costa, 2015; Heigham & Croker, 2009; Rallis & Rossman, 2009). Costa (2015) counsels the researchers to build trust and plan the research project in a way that also values the participants' communities, "that makes a matter of trust between you and the people in your research" (Menter et al., 2011, p. 58).

I was well aware of promoting and maintaining familiarity to, good rapport and interpersonal trust with the participants through the use of various personalising

dialogues and socialising activities. My research instruments allowed the participants the freedom to contribute data.

3.6 Data Organisation and Preparation

This section explains how research data sets in this study were systematically organised. All data sets were securely stored in the University of Waikato's computer and cloud. The *NVivo* and Google Drive were used to organise and store data. The key features in this section are naming files and folders, storage systems, transcription and translation processes, and transcription conventions.

3.6.1 Naming Files and Folders, and Storage Systems

Selecting a logical and consistent method to organise research data materials (i.e., audio records and electronic documents) allowed me, as a researcher, to easily trace and utilise them from a secure computer system in a timely fashion. To make my data sets identifiable and traceable, I used a simple referencing method for all electronic documents/files. Each document/file had a file name, date of creation and edit, and version number. For naming files, semi-structured interview transcripts were named by using pseudonyms (see Figure 3.6 below).

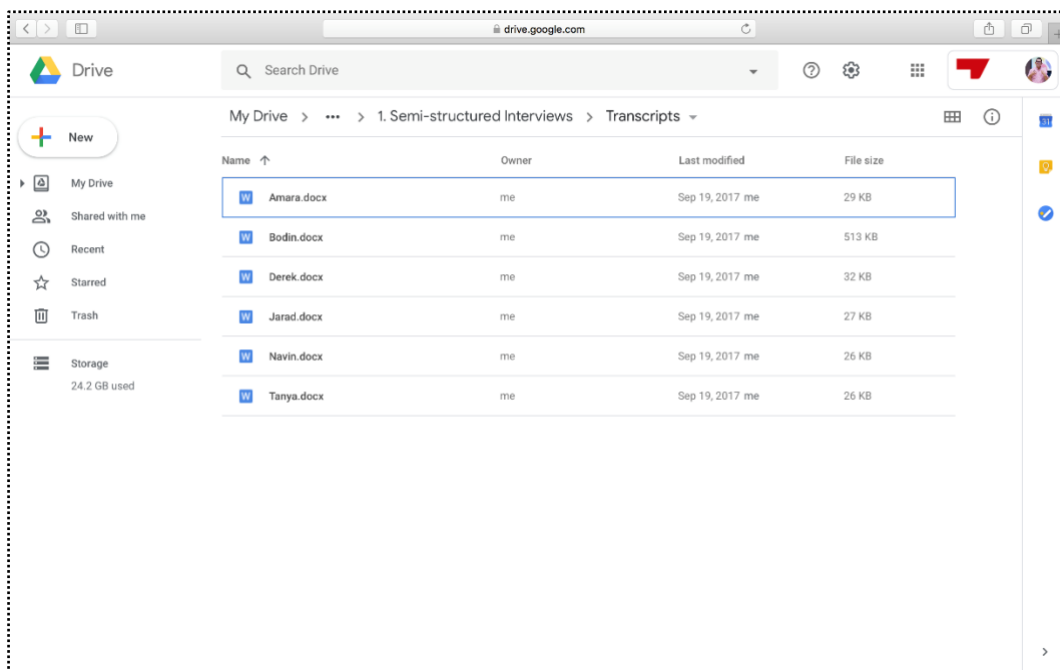


Figure 3.6: A sample of files named by using pseudonyms

To collate electronic files, I created folders and named them based on the types of data (e.g., transcripts) and data collection methods (e.g., semi-structured interviews). Figure 3.7 below displays names of other folders of my data set for this research project. It also indicates the latest date of modification.

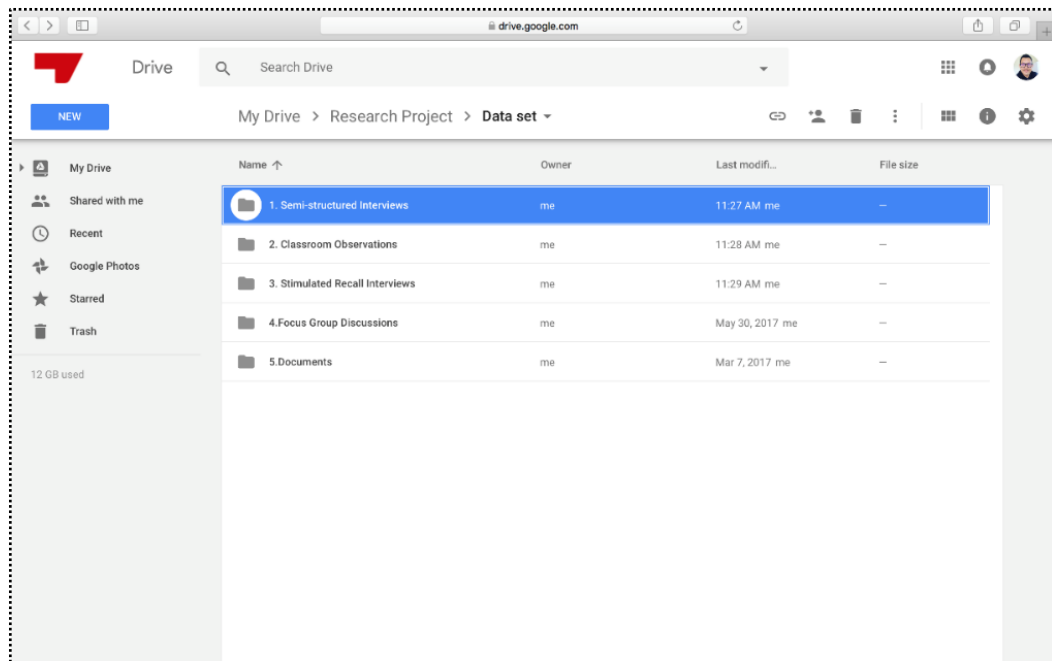


Figure 3.7: A sample of naming folders and storing data in the cloud

These two figures illustrate the surface of the cloud storage, in which all my electronic data was stored in logical pools. I used the cloud (Google Drive), which was provided by the University of Waikato, to securely store all data sets. In order to access the cloud, passwords are required.

3.6.2 Transcription and Translation Processes

Prior to data analysis, the raw data needed to be fully collated. Thus, it was essential to focus on formulating data activities. In this present research, qualitative raw data were spoken accounts by lecturers from various data sources. Figure 3.8 below shows the actual procedures and strategies for transcribing the Thai audio-recordings which were employed in preparing transcripts.

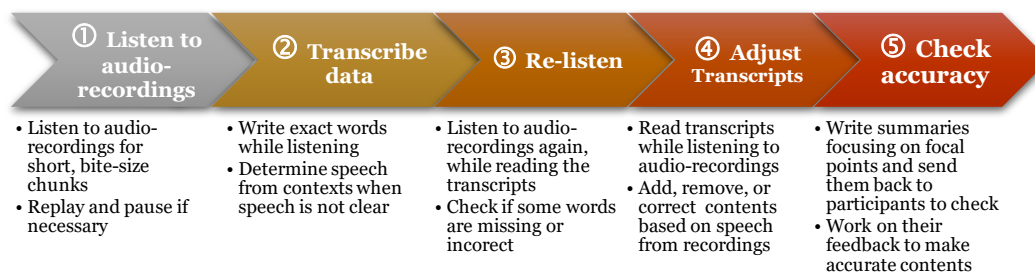


Figure 3.8: Procedures and strategies for transcribing audio data

I started transcribing spoken accounts by listening carefully to small chunks of the audio-recordings. Only related content was taken into account, so that small talk and personal statements were not transcribed in this process. I replayed and/or paused the audio player so that I could accurately transcribe content. When the spoken accounts were unclear, I reasonably determined applicable words based on the given context. In cases where I could not make a determination, I decided to leave blank spaces, indicating particular timing with parentheses, for example, (...45:30...). I did check that these missing words would not affect my focal points or content. Later, I listened to the audio again in order to do a double check, listening to the spoken accounts while reading the transcripts so that I could check the accuracy of the written content.

Immediately, I made any changes to inaccurate content. Next, I adjusted the transcriptions, focusing on any particular points. After revising the content, I re-read the revised items and played back the relevant audio for confirmation. The final stage was the accuracy check. This stage allowed me to seek help from my participants, and also allowed them the chance to see the data. I summarised key content from the semi-structured, stimulated recall interviews, and focus group discussions then sent summaries to the participants for their validation. In the event of there being comments and feedback, I would consider making adjustments before moving on to the data analysis stage. There was no negative comment on these summaries, and all participants concurred with key content.

However, I could not utilise the transcript data by employing *NVivo* because all transcripts were written in Thai. So, it was my personal preference to analyse English translations rather than the original Thai. The reason for this choice was because of my educational background; I was trained to carry out research on applied linguistics, not through Thai, but English. Thus, I had more confidence in

analysing English data than Thai. The transcripts used Thai as their original language and English was the target language in the process. Sameephet's (2014) translation framework and procedures were applied to this translation activity (see Appendix 18). I began the translation process by reading and scanning the Thai transcripts, piece by piece, then made a forward translation. At this point, I employed a word-by-word translation technique. Additionally, I employed sentence-by-sentence translation techniques when the sentence carried focal points at paragraph level or in a single line. In the case of large chunks of text, I also used paragraph-by-paragraph translation techniques when the paragraphs in the Thai transcripts contained some important content. I only used this technique when I had the confidence and capability to judge and make immediate decisions. When I was uncertain in my judgement, I decided to translate the content into English. Possibly this content would be relevant to my findings. If not, I could remove it later. Figure 3.9 displays a random example of English Translation Transcripts in *NVivo*.

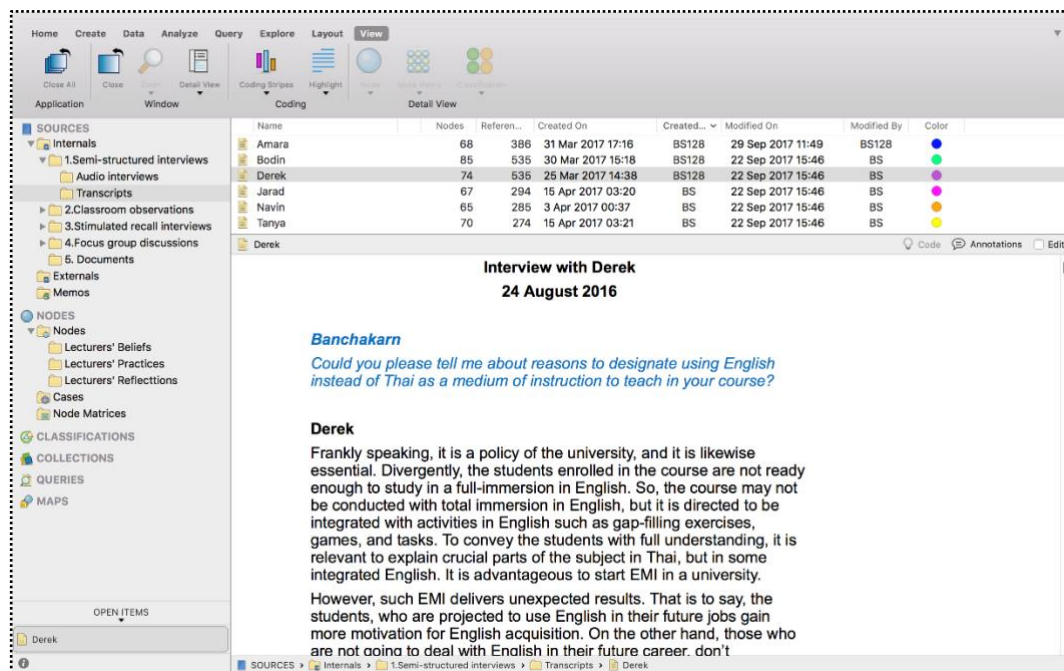


Figure 3.9: English translation transcripts in *NVivo*

After completion of the first drafts of the English transcripts, I did a cross-check through backward translation in order to review and revise the translated products in terms of semantics, syntax, and lexis. At this time, I read and scanned the English transcripts, line by line, then I focused only on the critical points that were problematic. Next, I compared these problematic areas to the original transcripts in

order to make a reasonable judgment. I derived great satisfaction from gaining the final English transcripts. Samples of the data and English transcripts were sent by my supervisors to an English and Thai specialist to validate their accuracy and reliability. Based on the specialist's evaluation, the English transcripts were deemed to be of sound quality and met the appropriate translation level.

3.6.3 Transcription Conventions

For the purposes of the lecturer talk analysis, I exploited transcription conventions to display the features of classroom interaction which the transcripts could not capture, such as incident movements. Thus, my annotated transcripts displayed interactions, talk, and context information about the talk and gestures to make the transcripts meaningful. From this, I was able to form insights that led to a clear analysis of lecturer talk in classroom settings. There were four main features in my transcription conventions: first, identity of the speakers (i.e., pseudonyms of the lecturers and students); second, intervals within and between turns (i.e., pausing and overlapping talk); third, characteristics of speech delivery (i.e., talk in English and Thai); and fourth, commentary in the transcript (i.e., description of events and non-verbal actions). Full details of transcription conventions are presented in Chapter 5.

3.7 Forms of Analysis and Interpretation

This section discusses a grounded theory approach as a strategy for analysing data, illustrating data analysis and engagement procedures. It then presents key selection criteria for assembling the findings from results.

3.7.1 Grounded Theory Approach as a Strategy for Analysing Data

Grounded theory is suitable for an interpretive research project (Cohen et al., 2007; Creswell, 2009; Dornyei, 2007; Owen, 2008) as this approach is designed to construct a theory, analytically and inductively (Charmaz, 2006; Charmaz & Henwood, 2007). Strauss and Corbin (1994) explained that “grounded theory is a general methodology for developing theory, that is grounded in data systematically

gathered and analysed” (p. 273), in order to provide the researcher with sufficient evidence to support their claims (Myers, 2009). Additionally, Pole and Lampard (2002) noted that it is “unencumbered by explicit expectations about what the research might find, or by personal beliefs and philosophies, hence authorizing the researcher to create enquiries without background knowledge” (p. 206). Charmaz (2014) emphasised that “[a] constructive approach theorizes the interpretive work that research participants do, but also acknowledges that the resulting theory is an interpretation. The Theory depends on the researcher’s view; it does not and cannot stand outside of it” (p. 239).

For Charmaz (2014), coding and categorising is the task of each piece of data being given a short name to identify what the data are about. Initial coding is the activity of expressing what data are about, of defining what is happening in the data, and of identifying what the data mean. She has suggested that researchers select words that constitute their codes to label and name data from the natural world in order to capture the empirical reality. Charmaz (2014) also introduced ‘line-by-line coding’ which assists in defining implicit meanings and actions, goes deeper into the studied phenomenon, and attempts to explain such phenomenon. Another strategy she suggested was ‘incident with incident coding’ which is:

isolated concrete, behaviouristic descriptions of people’s mundane actions [. These] may not be amenable to fruitful line-by-line coding, particularly when you observed a scene but neither interacted in it nor gained a sense of its context, its participants, or their intentions for their actions. (p. 128)

Focused coding aims to use “the most significant and/or frequent earlier codes to sift through and analyse large amounts of data” (Charmaz, 2014, p. 138). It requires and involves researchers’ decisions about which initial codes contribute the most analytic sense to categorise their data incisively and completely. These concepts are descriptive or explanatory ideas because the researcher has to understand the meaning from a word, label or symbol (Birks & Mills, 2015; Holloway, 2008). Theoretical coding is a complex degree of coding that follows the codes researchers have selected during focused coding. It aids the researcher to specify potential links between the categories they have developed through focused coding to relate to the

focal category. Theoretical coding can also support creating their analysis to be coherent and comprehensible. While initial and focused codes are for breaking down, theoretical codes merge the separated jigsaws back together into the frame to inform of the phenomenon under study.

In next section, I explain how I have applied these three coding steps/stages/techniques.

3.7.2 Data Analysis and Engagement Procedures

The present study applied three major strategies of Charmaz's (2014) grounded theory method: initial coding, focused coding, and theoretical coding. Figure 3:10, with the following descriptions illustrates, how I analysed and engaged with the data, and the process of establishing the findings.



Figure 3.10: Process of finding the findings

Step 1: Preliminary analysis to understand data in a holistic picture

I began an early data analysis in order to understand my holistic data before working on an in-depth analysis in the next step. This was the process of defining what the data were about. At this stage, qualitative codes were created by defining what could be seen from the data. Hence, I could identify emergent sub-themes and main themes of my data, but these themes could not represent the results. I employed an NVivo programme but only used a mind map format as a tool to assist me to build up my own understanding and to organise information. See some of the final products of the mind map below (Figure 3:11).

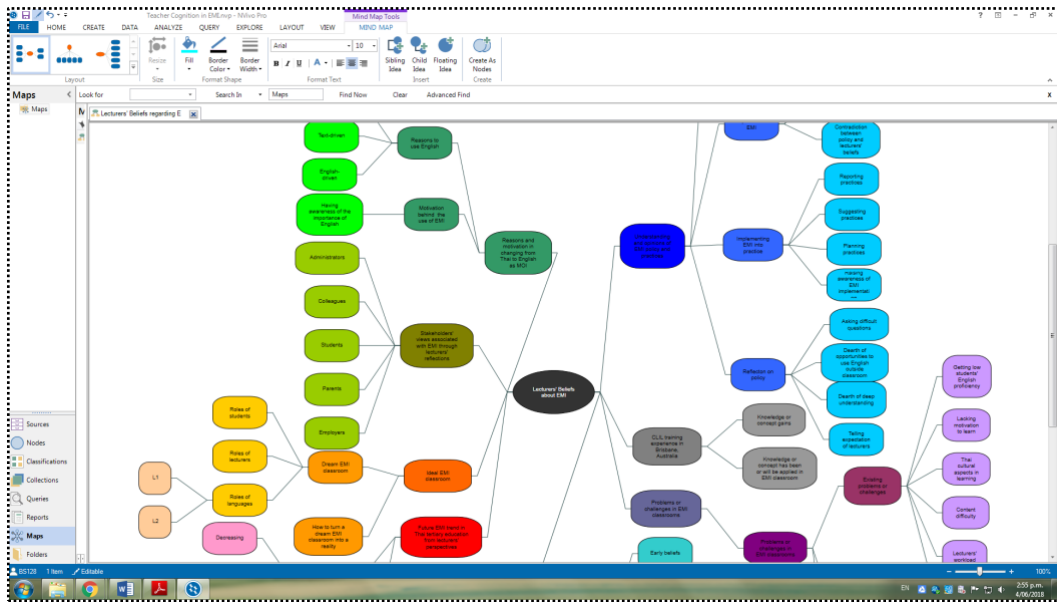


Figure 3.11: Mind map

This mind map illustrates how many key aspects in my data there are in the overall picture and its wide scope. Each key aspect had primary/secondary factors to support the key aspects. Also, the mind map showed their interconnected relationships.

Step 2: Initial coding on NVivo

I started to code data by focusing on instrument by instrument and participant by participant. I used NVivo 11 to assist me in organising and analysing data. It is suitable for a qualitative data analysis because the researcher can deal with very rich text-based data, where deep levels of analysis of large volumes of data are needed. Figure 3:12 displays how I coded interview data from one participant.

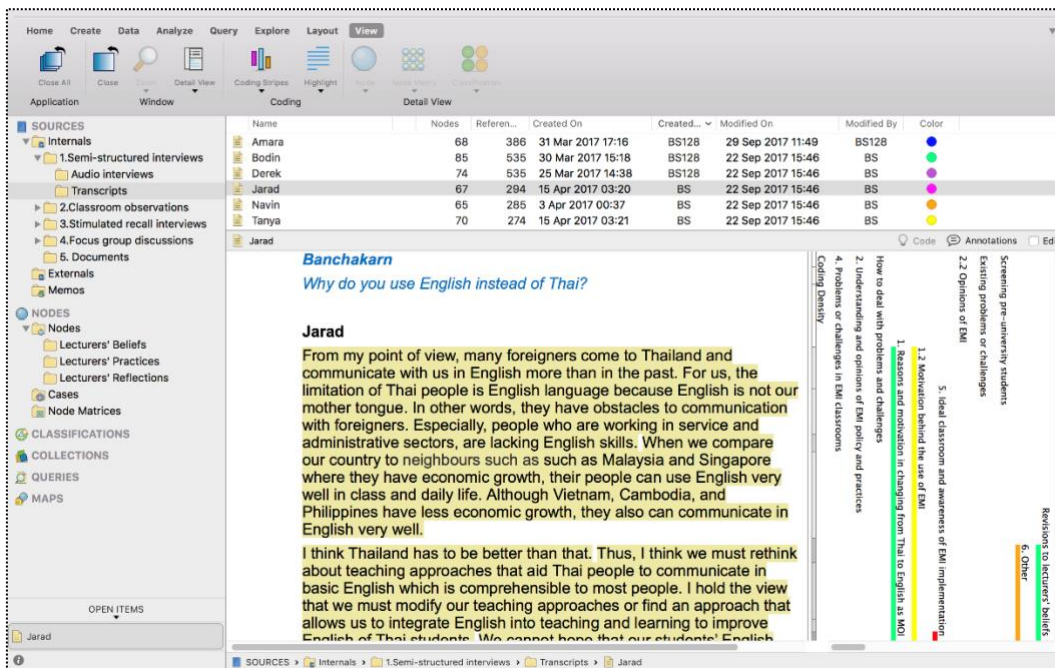


Figure 3.12: Initial coding on NVivo

In Figure 3:12 above, highlighted texts were the area that I coded and named the coding. In this step, I constructed the nodes to put each code in. I named each code individually, if new, if codes shared the same aspects they were in the same node.

Step 3: Focused coding in NVivo

I shifted naming and labelling codes activities from the initial coding to conceptual understanding of data, as focused coding was the pivotal intermediate step in developing the codes into categories. By doing this, I utilised products from initial codes to develop main themes and sub-themes. At this step, all themes were systematically organised in NVivo, but they were not well constructed in terms of narrative structure.

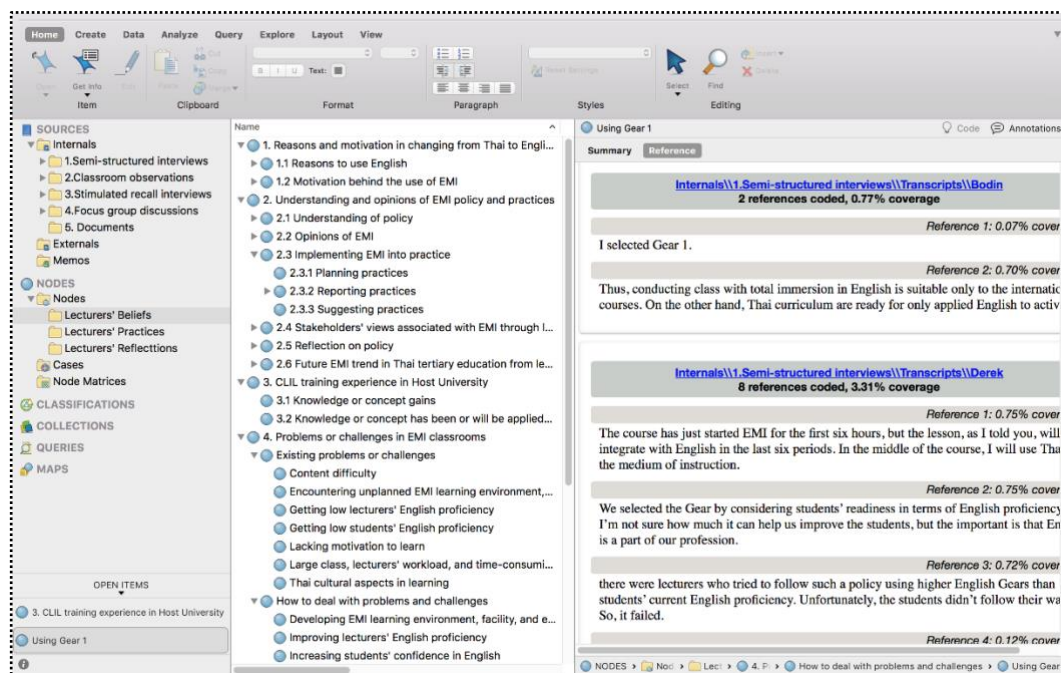


Figure 3.13: Developing themes and sub-themes on NVivo

Figure 3.13 presents main themes and sub-themes of data as resources available to shift to the next step of data analysis.

Step 4: Theoretical coding on NVivo

I worked on theoretical coding, which was a stage to develop, refine, or expand on the properties of tentative theoretical categories. I constructed the structures of themes and sub-themes in order to bond the results. I created these themes in chronological order, and also linked theme to theme to create a structure to tell the same story, with evidence from other accounts to support it. So, I defined the boundaries and relevance of the categories in order to develop the theoretical categories. At this point, in some blind events, I used my interpretation to explain key aspects of the participants' behaviours as the goal of analysis in naturalistic research.

Step 5: Confirm themes and evidence on NVivo

During and after analysing the data, I spent a great deal of time to re-check the results to ensure that they were named and categorised accurately. I re-checked all themes and sub-themes, and re-named if necessary. I also re-checked any codes which were ambiguous, moving them to their correct position.

Step 6: Select/put themes and evidence in tables

To prepare the results for presentation and interpretation, I selected confirmed main themes/sub-themes with accounts as concrete evidence on NVivo and inserted them into a simple table in a Word Document (see Figure 3.14 below).

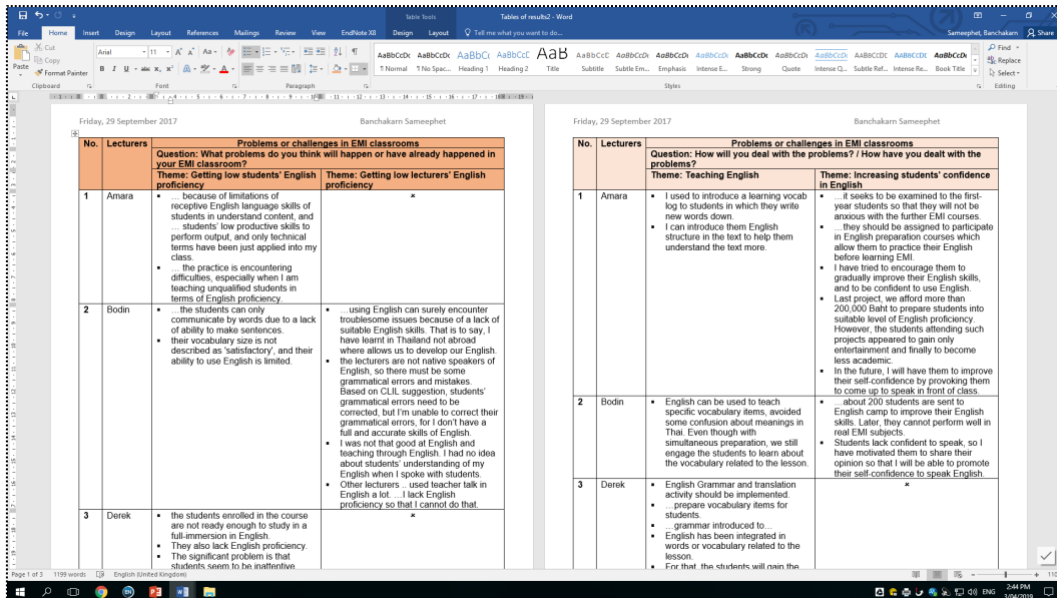


Figure 3.14: Tables of results

The top of each table has main/sub-themes. Under each theme there is supporting evidence in the form of bullet points. Every result can be traced back to the participants.

Step 7: Confirm key themes and evidence in tables

During and after results preparation in the form of a table, I once again spent a great deal of time to re-check the results to ensure that the results in the tables were most representative of their themes. I re-checked selected themes and sub-themes in the table to compare and contrast with other themes from the same categories in NVivo. I selected the new results and removed the old ones, as necessary. However, all the results in the table formats would not be presented as findings in Chapter 5. I had to evaluate which ones should, and should not, be presented under three criteria. Firstly, the findings must show *concurrency* with each other. Secondly, they would demonstrate a *contradiction* among them. Lastly, the findings would show the *uniqueness* of the individual.

3.7.3 Key Selection Criteria for Assembling Findings from Results

To present the findings in Chapter 5, I evaluated the results in the tables by considering various criteria. First, the findings should relate to the research questions. Second, the findings should reflect the common aspects that most, or all, participants believed and practised. Third, the findings should have concurrence among participants in order to develop a theme. Fourth, findings should show any contradictions among the participants. Fifth, the findings demonstrated a uniqueness in which many participants did not believe or practice, but some did. To incorporate all these findings, I had to construct a congruent story.

3.8 Validity and Trustworthiness

This section discusses the core conceptual framework for understanding trustworthiness in the conduct of qualitative inquiry. Rallis and Rossman (2009) defined “trustworthiness as a set of standards that demonstrate that a research study has been conducted competently and ethically” (p. 264). It presents focal criteria for a detailed assessment of research processes for ensuring rigour in this research. An explanation of crucial practices during carrying out this research is presented under each criterion below.

3.8.1 Validity of Research Instruments

Validity of research instruments refers to how accurately a method examines what it intended to examine (Cohen et al., 2018). Ary et al. (2013) and Flick (2014) highlighted the principles of validity in a qualitative inquiry. The simple principle was that they noted that the research processes are the main concern, rather than concentration on outcomes. Another principle is that the central source of data is from a natural setting. However, a setting is limited; its data have thick description, especially when the data represented the respondents’ voices, rather than those of the researchers. Charmaz (2014) suggested that “[w]hen you collect first-hand data, you see the settings, observe interaction, witness research participants’ non-verbal behaviour, and hear their voices, as well as their accounts” (p. 111).

Although the term ‘validity’ is usually associated with conventional quantitative research, some qualitative researchers utilise it to depict the legitimacy of their research instruments (Casanave, 2015). The validity of a research instrument proves that it is, as a tool, appropriate and accurate for use (Golafshani, 2003). Phakiti (2015) identifies how precisely the instrument yields data about the perspective under scrutiny. He suggests that an appraisal of the validity of a research instrument should consider the theory underlying the performances to be investigated. To evaluate such validity of qualitative inquiry, the researcher needs to have lenses which establish the researcher’s own standpoints and rationales (Creswell & Miller, 2000).

Where appropriate, using such lenses to gain validity, Maxwell (2013) claimed that he uses “validity in a fairly straightforward, commonsense way to refer to the correctness or credibility of a description, conclusion, explanation, interpretation, or other sort of account” (p. 122). In this case, the validity is affected by the paradigm assumption of the researcher, as well as their lenses (Creswell & Miller, 2000). I believed that reality is subjective and multiple as seen by participants in my research. I understood that my research is context bound. The lens through which I view the world is that reality is constructed by individuals interacting with their social worlds. Furthermore, validity should be articulated in terms of “attentiveness, empathy, carefulness, sensitivity, respect, reflection, conscientiousness, engagement, awareness, and openness” (Davies & Dodd, 2002, p. 288).

Here were the ways I obtained peer review of my data collection methods/procedures. My critical friend, who studied a similar discipline topic, ‘lecturer cognition,’ provided me with her thought-provoking questions about and commentaries on research procedures. My PhD supervisors thoroughly evaluated all research instruments as well as offering critical comments on certain points for further development. After this, while the proposal defence committee provided instructive feedback regarding research instruments, ethical consideration committees approved all research instruments prior to entering the field.

I presented my research project orally in two international arenas. I presented research trends and my research frameworks entitled “The Past, Present and Future of English as a Medium of Instruction in Asian Higher Education” at The Hong

Kong Polytechnic University, Hong Kong (Sameephet, 2016), and presented another paper entitled “Multi-Methods to Research: What Lecturers Think and Do about English-Medium Instruction Policy” at SEAMEO Regional Language Centre, Singapore (Sameephet, 2017). Peer-reviewed abstracts are in Appendices 19-20.

3.8.2 Credibility

The credibility refers to the extent to which the results of qualitative research are believable in terms of the accuracy of the findings can promote the credibility (Cohen et al., 2018). Lincoln and Guba (1985) argued that ensuring credibility is one of critical factors in forming trustworthiness. Prior to the first gathering of data, many scholars recommend prolonged engagement between the researcher and the participants to stimulate sufficient understanding of the culture of the institutions and to promote a close rapport between them (Creswell & Miller, 2000; Lub, 2015). Also, the study needs to be longitudinal to adequately represent the subject under discovery (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992), showing that the researcher has spent enough time “learning about, learning from, and learning with, the participants” (Rallis & Rossman, 2009, p. 265). When being present in the fieldwork, the researcher is able to enjoy the data of the phenomenon (Rallis & Rossman, 2009). As I was an insider researcher, I understood my institutional culture very well so that I appreciated how to behave in certain situations. I spent six months in the field. During that time, I learnt about what they believed, and I learnt from their practices.

The use of different research methods with the participants enables construction of a rich picture of the attitudes, behaviour or needs under scrutiny (Lub, 2015; Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2007). By doing so, it diminishes any opportunity for biases, allowing the researcher to gain more confidence in interpretations (Fielding, 2012; Maxwell, 1992). This is because “the more the categories and conclusions are confirmed by different data sources, the more valid the results” (Lub, 2015, p. 4).

My research had two types of triangulation: method triangulation and data source triangulation. These types of triangulation were categorised by Denzin (1978) and Patton (1999). I triangulated the data from multi-research instruments (i.e.,

interviews, observations, recalls, focus group, documents, and journal) and multi-data sources (i.e., lecturers, classrooms, and myself) with primarily the participants to capture different angles. By doing so, I was able to minimise bias when interpreting the findings.

An academic community may broaden the researcher's thoughts regarding data gathering, analysing, and interpretation (Rossman & Rallis, 2011; Lub, 2015). For example, peer review should be considered since the researcher should get constructive feedback at any conferences during the research project (Rallis & Rossman, 2009; Shenton, 2004). This is a scheme of external evaluation of the interpretivist research process in which the new viewpoints and difficult questions (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) from people in the community can challenge the researcher's assumptions when he/she could not see critical viewpoints.

The researcher's reflective research journal aims to record the intellectual journey which includes critical research activities, events, and movements throughout the data collection session, precisely and chronologically (Lub, 2015; Shenton, 2004). The researcher's background, qualifications and experience regarding the current research is of interest during data collection and analysis, and is particularly significant in qualitative inquiry since it is another way to build trustworthiness (Rossman & Rallis, 2011; Shenton, 2004). I maintained my reflective research journal at every stage of data collection. Although I was new to PhD research, I had experience in undertaking interpretivist research with a team under a project of the Thailand Research Fund, prior to starting the PhD, from 2014 to 2015.

For the purposes of reducing the risk of misinterpretation by the researchers, the participants have the chance to evaluate the credibility of the researchers' account (Lub, 2015; Stake, 1995). This technique is referred to as member checks in which participants check the accuracy of, agree or argue with, elicit further or extend, the gathered data in which they have participated (Rossman & Rallis, 2011). They can also verify theories and interpretations derived from their data (Brewer & Hunter, 1989; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Pitts, 1994). Detailed description aims to construct probability; it is "an important provision for promoting credibility as it helps to convey the actual situations that have been investigated and, to an extent, the contexts that surround them" (Shenton, 2004, p. 69). I sent summaries in Thai of the semi-structured interviews, stimulated recall interviews, and focus group

discussions back to the participants, to check accuracy. Regarding their feedback, some participants requested me to change word choices and adjust registers in the summaries, and all of them confirmed the accuracy of the summaries.

3.8.3 Transferability

The term ‘transferability’ is “concerned with the extent to which the findings of one study can be applied to other situations” (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015, p. 253). In qualitative inquiry, the findings are precise to a small scale of specific settings and participants. Qualitative inquiry “is assumed to be in flux, multifaceted, and highly contextual because information gathered is a function of who gives it and how skilled the researcher is at getting it” (Merriam, 1988, p. 171). Hence, it is inconceivable to determine that such findings can be directly generalised to other circumstances. However, it is possible for some interpretivist researchers to believe their situations and settings are comparable to other contexts, and the readers may be able to transfer the findings of an existing case study to their own context (Bassey, 1981; Firestone, 1993; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). And can be beneficial to other contexts when detailed description is offered through such research, so that the readers can select what they can adapt in their settings (Rallis & Rossman, 2009). Thus, “the results of a qualitative study must be understood within the context of the particular characteristics of the organisation or organisations and, perhaps, geographical area in which the fieldwork was carried out” (Shenton, 2004, p. 70).

3.8.4 Confirmability

Patton (1990) stated that, in qualitative inquiry, findings are derived from participants’ experiences rather than the researchers’ preferences. Shenton (2004) emphasised that “critical to this process is the ‘audit trail’, which allows any observer to trace the course of the research, step-by-step, via the decisions made and procedures described” (p. 72). Triangulation decreases the possibility of researcher bias. Also, the researcher should report beliefs underpinning decisions made, and methods adopted, within the research report. Although I used personal

interpretation of the events to make sense of findings, the key findings are derived from the participants' perspectives and experiences. I utilised multi-research instruments to triangulate and reduce the effect of my own bias.

3.9 Chapter Summary

In summary, to carry out this present research, there were numerous aspects to consider. The research paradigm underpinning this research was the interpretivist paradigm that views the nature of 'knowing' and 'reality' in a naturalistic way. The approach carrying this research is an intrinsic case study which offered space to discover actual beliefs and practices about a unique phenomenon rather than to generalise a theory. Prior to conducting the research, I piloted several procedures for instrument construction in order to design and elaborate the research tools. Six content lecturers voluntarily participated in this research. To collect data from participants, I employed multiple research instruments, that is, semi-structured interviews, classroom observations, stimulated recall interviews, documents, focus group discussions, and reflective research journal. I triangulated the data from the various instruments in order to capture the diverse dimensions of the phenomenon. I utilised purposive sample technique to recruit the core participants. I was aware of the ethical issues so that I applied universal perspectives of ethical considerations to local practices. I also paid attention to the data organisation and preparation aspects of my research process, as the transcription and translation processes were performed with rigour prior to data analysis. This research applied the Grounded Theory approach as a strategy for analysing data through initial, focused, and theoretical coding. I also emphasised the quality of the process and product of this research through validity and trustworthiness viewed from three different angles: credibility, transferability, and confirmability.

The full findings, as the product of this recent research, are presented in Chapter 5. Prior to that, Chapter 4 provides details of contextual information regarding EMI programmes and other key, relevant components.

CHAPTER 4

EMI PROGRAMME AND ITS CONFIGURATIONS AT A HOME UNIVERSITY

This chapter identifies the distinguishing features of the EMI programme at the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences (hereafter HASS), Home University or HomeU (pseudonym), from policy to practice. Section 4.1 describes the top-down policy from the national economic and social development plan as the origin of the EMI practices of HomeU and HASS. Section 4.2 presents and discusses EMI preparation such as classroom infrastructure, students' English skills, and lecturers' pedagogical knowledge. Section 4.3 explains the CLIL workshops, which were the main support for the policy implementation. This section also highlights the three CLIL pillars regarding knowledge the lecturers had potentially gained. Section 4.4 presents the EMI programme in HASS and clarifies the terms of EMI and CLIL used in the faculty. It also presents English Linguistic Gears and their related components and activities in the post workshop period.

4.1 EMI Policy in HomeU and HASS

This section explains the origin of the top-down policy from the national level to the local university. It presents dynamic movements, in relation to EMI, from different periods of time and also highlights HomeU and HASS and their activities in responding to the top-down policy. It introduces the instructional policy in HomeU as well as the in-house policy and actions within HASS. Although all information in relation to policies at the research site (HomeU and HASS) are available online, the identities of their authors in this study must remain anonymous. This agreement was reached between the gatekeeper and me as the researcher. Thus, I do not provide direct quotations or references, as these are easily traceable. Figure 4.1 presents a timeline of EMI policies and implementation in HomeU.

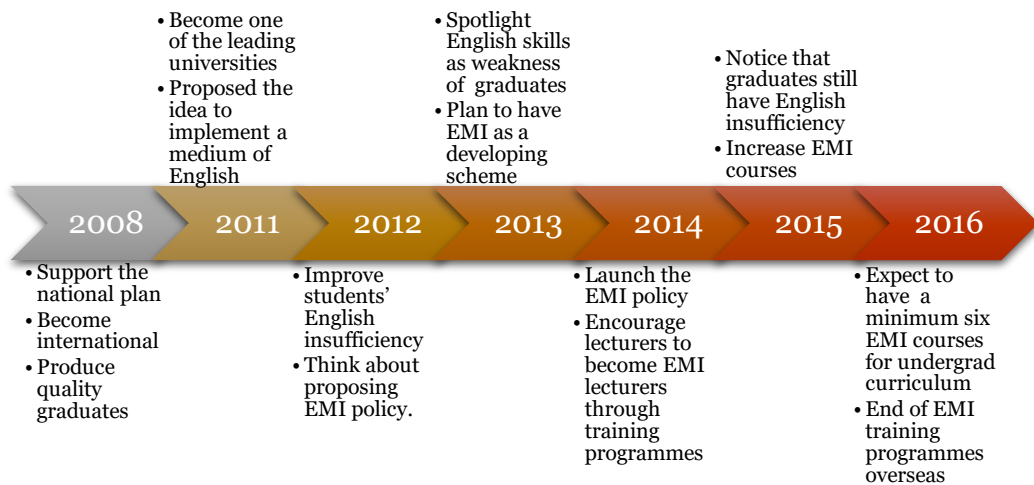


Figure 4.1: Timeline of EMI policy and implementation

In 2008, HomeU announced the long-term plan 2008-24, in response to, and in support of, the Second 15-Year Long Range Plan on Higher Education in Thailand. The teaching and learning focussed on the following: first, to meet international academic standards; second, to produce high quality graduates; third, to shift teaching and learning to becoming more international; and fourth, to have the best teaching innovation among other universities. Hence, HomeU introduced a large number of English language teaching courses in order to improve their students' English communication skills. The authorities believed that with high quality English skills, students could meet international standards to compete with other countries.

In 2011, HomeU presented an action plan for 2012 that prolonged the long-term plan 2008-24. HomeU had a vision to become one of the leading universities at national and international levels, one of the top three universities in Thailand, the top eighty in Asia, and the top four hundred in the world. To fulfil this great vision, the authorities proposed the idea of implementing EMI for the first time. They believed that EMI could assist them to create a reputation for academic excellence and to become an education hub.

In 2012, HomeU revealed another action plan for 2013 that was a continuation and further expansion of the previous vision. The plan to be continued was the improvement of English skills because HomeU viewed that their students' English insufficiency was a great weakness and delay to moving the university forward. Thus, HomeU provided English skills to improve students' English ability to work

in national and international markets (Wara-Aswapati Charoen, 2012). HomeU also believed that EMI was a content-driven teaching approach through which students' English language proficiency would be developed alongside their competence in the disciplinary content (Soodphakdee, 2012).

In 2013, stakeholders from inside and outside HomeU identified that HomeU graduates lacked English proficiency and confidence in using English, so much so that this limited their job opportunities in the real world. Hence, to bridge the gap, the authorities had a serious executive plan for upgrading development of English Medium Instruction to become a dedicated scheme. Hence, HomeU shifted their attention from English language teaching to EMI.

In 2014, HomeU launched its EMI policy to support the ultimate goal of becoming one of the leading universities. In having EMI, they wished to produce quality graduates in terms of knowledge and English skills. So, HomeU encouraged content lecturers to become new EMI lecturers through training programmes.

In 2015, HomeU discovered that graduates still had English insufficiency. The university launched a short-term, strategic plan for 2016-19 which aimed to establish a greater number of EMI courses than before by replacing half of the Thai medium instruction courses with EMI. Alongside this action plan, HomeU paid attention to developing content lecturers to be able to teach content subjects through the medium of English.

In 2016, HASS officially introduced an in-house policy to sustain the EMI policy from the top. HASS's EMI policy set a target that all undergraduate curricula must conduct two academic subjects in EMI, for each academic year. In order to put this policy into operation, HASS initiated its EMI programme in 2014. From 2014-16 HASS expected to have a minimum of six EMI courses for each undergraduate curriculum. From 2014 to 2019 there were more than 200 EMI courses taught in HASS. It showed that HASS had exceeded expectations.

4.2 EMI Preparation in HASS

This section presents and discusses the preparations for implementation of EMI in HASS. It sheds light on the non-readiness of classroom settings and infrastructure in support of the EMI learning environment. This section also discusses an English intensive training programme for prospective EMI students. At the end of the section, intensive CLIL workshops for prospective EMI lecturers, at an overseas institute, are discussed.

4.2.1 Classroom Setting and Infrastructure to Support EMI

Classrooms were not carefully constructed or redesigned to support EMI pedagogical requirements. Based on my observations, the infrastructure in many classrooms was not supportive of EMI teaching and learning. For example, HASS had weak internet connection that interrupted teaching and learning. Many classrooms had not been checked, renovated, nor had equipment been repaired. In reality, tables and chairs were fixed so that they could not be rearranged for group work and to provide adequate learning space. Moreover, little of the available equipment worked well. Unstable electricity and equipment affected teaching and learning; for instance a power failure blacked out the classroom, and the lecturers could not follow EMI lessons. Figure 4.2 below illustrates a sample layout of a typical classroom from the research site.

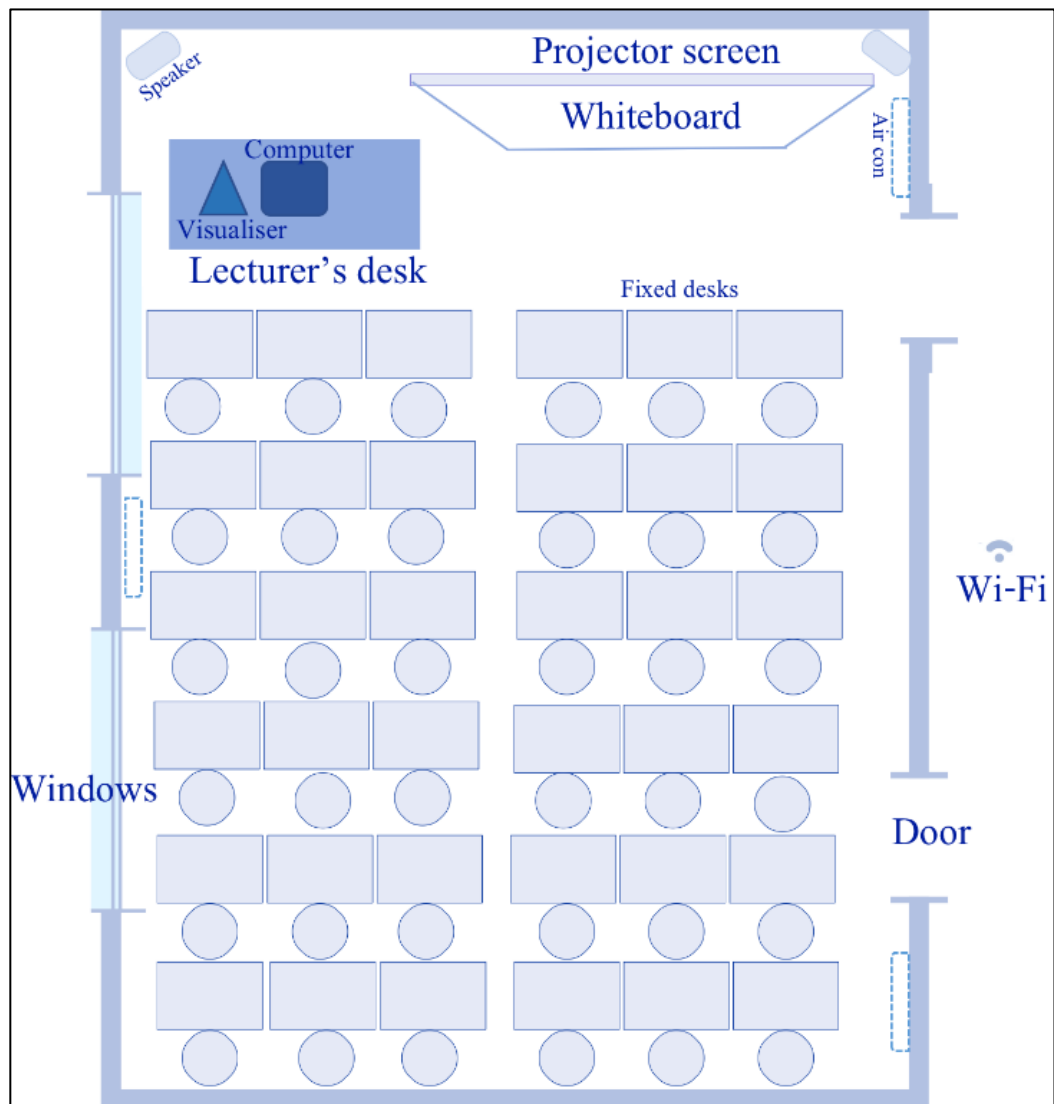


Figure 4.2: Layout of current classroom

Figure 4.2 above shows that EMI classrooms were packed with students. It was difficult for the lecturers to facilitate and monitor learning. This would be problematic if lecturers had to deal with a large class. Apart from inside the classroom, the current atmosphere outside EMI classrooms did not support EMI implementation. Due to a dearth of opportunities to use English outside the classroom, both lecturers and students were able to use English to communicate in class, but not in daily life.

4.2.2 An English Intensive Training Programme for Prospective EMI Students

From 2014, HASS launched an intensive three-day English training course (6-8 hours per day) for prospective EMI students. The objectives of the programme were to improve the readiness of students to learn EMI; to improve English skills; and to draw awareness to the importance of the use of English in learning. Each year had different learning topics, English trainers, and target students. In 2016, there were 120 students (20 students per a group) and six language lecturers who participated in this programme. Participation depended on the willingness of the students to take part. Students were seated on a first-come, first-served basis, meaning that not all new EMI students were able to attend this programme.

Regarding teaching and learning management, the students were divided into six groups, and each station had lecturers and assistants to facilitate learning. Each group visited one learning station at a time; then, they rotated and visited different stations. Each topic lasted 50 minutes per learning period. Concerning English topics, this year there were six English topics under the themes of Valentine’s Day. Topics are displayed below in Figure 4.3.

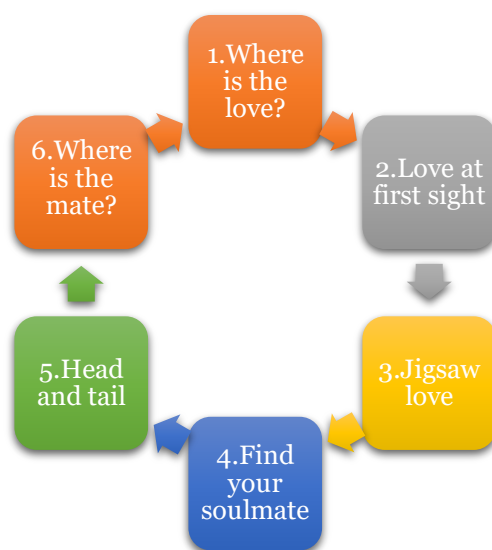


Figure 4.3: English learning topics

In my considered opinion, these English topics were entirely suitable for English language students who needed general English practice. They promoted the students’ English accuracy/fluency through these topics. This learning experience

might give the students confidence in their use of English. However, topics lacked focus in terms of the roles of English for learning academic content. Thus, this training was inappropriate to prepare prospective EMI students. This programme was supposed to be launched before the semester began, but it was delayed for about four weeks. In 2016, this programme operated for the last time.

4.2.3 Pedagogy Intensive Workshops for Prospective EMI Lecturers

Apart from the students' preparation, the HASS authorities paid attention to developing the pedagogical knowledge of prospective EMI lecturers. HASS funded their air tickets, tuition fees, living and other expenses during the workshop in an English-speaking country. During 2014-16, more than 30 lecturers were sent to attend the CLIL workshops in OverseasU. There were three main reasons why the authorities decided to deploy the CLIL approach at OverseasU as the pedagogical basis for teaching academic content in English. First, there was a lack of understanding of differences between EMI and CLIL. Second, EMI workshops were not available elsewhere in 2014. Third, there was an academic connection between HASS at HomeU and OverseasU. Full details of the CLIL workshops are given in the following section.

4.3 CLIL Workshops

This section gives an account of the CLIL workshops as the main resource of the pedagogical knowledge of the EMI lecturers at my university. This section provides general workshop information from the overseas institute. It also presents a school of thought regarding CLIL, according to the understanding and perspectives of the host institute. It gives precise details of the three CLIL pillars, as the core pedagogical knowledge which the trained lecturers took back to their home university.

4.3.1 Workshop Information

Each item of information (including Figures 4.4 and 4.5) provided in this section is derived from various sources (e.g., documents and websites) owned by the Overseas University, or OverseasU (pseudonym). Figure 4.6 is mine, based on the content of the course undertaken by the lecturers at OverseasU.

4.3.1.1 Location and Course

The workshops were delivered by OverseasU. Indeed, OverseasU has been locally and internationally renowned for its high standards of English teacher training and professional learning programmes over the past three decades. The main target groups were EMI lecturers from non-speaking English countries. Each individual workshop was taught by qualified and experienced trainers. Specifically, OverseasU had extensive practices and expertise in enhancing HASS to advance pedagogical skills in teaching academic content in English.

4.3.1.2 Support and Underlying Principle

CLIL workshop programmes at OverseasU had a solid emphasis on the development of practical skills for lecturers to apply pedagogy to their own teaching contexts. The head of teacher-trainer at OverseasU believed that to have a successful outcome to learning and teaching, this workshop paid close attention to participatory teaching, which allowed students to interact with lecturers, classmates, and active class activities. That is, passive teaching and learning (e.g., lectures and inactive reading) would not be their main areas of focus.

4.3.1.3 Outcomes and Contents

CLIL provided lecturers with opportunities to enhance their abilities in terms of pedagogy and English to deliver academic content in English. At the end of the workshop, it was intended that content lecturers should have used these opportunities to develop a number of skills: enhanced their English language skills; gained awareness of the language demands of their input materials; developed the ability to increase strategies for planning lessons, creating tasks and materials;

helped their students' language development while instructing academic content; developed the ability to build hands-on skills to effectively organise the learning process; gained an awareness of the principles of best practice; and developed an ability to offer constructive comment on practices, which could be useful to colleagues. The workshop combined nine aspects to construct and shape CLIL lesson models, as illustrated in Figure 4.4.

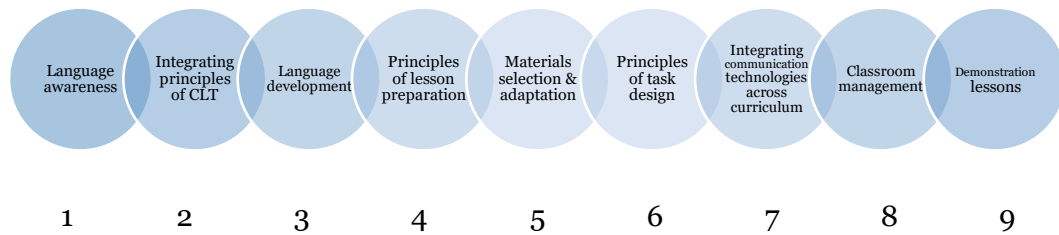


Figure 4.4: Lesson modules

The first aspect concerned English language awareness when teaching through English with students for whom English was not their first language. The second one combined communicative language teaching with an approach to the content subject matter class. The third aspect linked to the English language development of students. The fourth introduced the principles of lesson preparation. The fifth aspect focused on material selection and adaptation. The sixth was based on principles and task design. The seventh aspect related to integrating communication technologies across the curriculum. The eighth aspect focused on strategies for classroom management. The last lesson covered demonstrating lessons to peers.

4.3.1.4 Workshop Approaches and Delivery

The workshop was a practical training vehicle that promoted the active participation of participants. The taught contents were based on general pedagogical principles, but such knowledge was able to be adapted to local practices. The workshop began with the principles of CLIL and then narrowed down to practice. The head of teacher-trainers at OverseasU clearly gave details of how the workshops worked.

Practical workshops typically include activities that require participants to apply strategies, presented during the program lesson modules, to their own teaching contexts using materials

from their own curriculum. During the peer teaching component of the program, participants experiment with the materials they have planned, designed and created by teaching their peers. Peers also act as mentors and provide constructive feedback on the features of the lesson which helped or hindered their learning.

In delivery and duration, this was an intensive workshop that typically lasted for three weeks. The following schedule is a sample of the weekly training.

Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
8.45-10:30 Focus on CLIL Foundation Pieces 3 Pillars	Focus on Pillar 2: Language Related Learning Outcomes	Making CLIL Work	Project Work	Presentation of Project Work (Peer Teaching)
Break				
11:00-12:45 Reading & Speaking The CLIL Approach	Focus on Pillar 3: Outcomes Related to General Learning Skills	Making CLIL Work	Project Work	Presentation of Project Work (Peer Teaching)
Break				
1:45-3:30 Focus on Pillar 1: Content Related Learning Outcomes	Vocabulary Extension	Making CLIL Work	Project Work	Peer & Tutor Evaluations

Figure 4.5: CLIL sample timetable

After this workshop, participants returned to their HomeU with the intention of implementing what they had developed during the workshop, in their own classes. In some cases, they had to develop or create new teaching materials because they were assigned to teach new subjects. There was no follow-up on CLIL implementation, in actual classrooms, from the trainers.

4.3.2 Three CLIL Pillars

According to Coyle, Hood, and Marsh (2010), CLIL comprises four pillars: Content, Language, Learning, and Culture. Figure 4.6 illustrates the pillars. The fourth pillar, Culture, recommended by the scholars cited, was not part of the course.

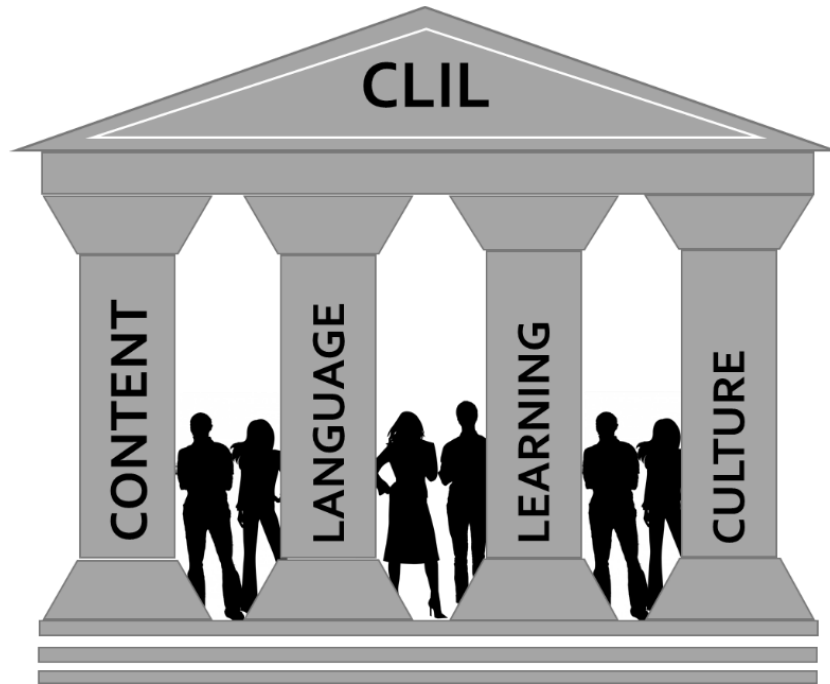


Figure 4.6: Four pillars model of CLIL

Hence, the pedagogical knowledge presented in the workshops was contained in a so-called ‘three pillars model of CLIL’. In brief, the Content Pillar focused on how to make academic material more accessible to students and how to deliver comprehensible content to them. The Language Pillar paid attention to English, for example, in supporting learning content. The Learning Pillar emphasised learning activities that supported learning content. A detailed explanation of each pillar is given in the following section.

4.3.2.1 Content Pillar

The Content Pillar had content-related learning goals as the direction of work on this pillar. It concentrated on the pre- and during-instruction stages. The pre-instruction stage focused on material preparation for instruction. This pillar encouraged lecturers to clarify and enhance their materials to make the content more accessible to the students. In order to develop input materials, they were trained in

how to identify clear objectives and make the main points of their lessons. Lecturers learnt how to highlight keywords or concepts on slides and handouts; they also knew that the material should provide links to useful websites. They realised the importance of providing synonyms in parenthesis, glossaries or footnotes in input materials. They were able to decide when to use visual organisers such as Venn diagrams, tables, and charts.

The during-instruction stage highlighted explicit instruction, meaning that the content instruction through EMI must be clear to the students. They could provide input through reading and/or listening. However, this pillar encouraged lecturers to use other types of instruction rather than a lecture-based approach. Lecturers were introduced to *'hooks'*, *'scaffolds'*, and *'links'* to instruct content. To begin with, hooks activated the students' schemata to get ready for the lesson. Lecturers could provide useful background information on content. They could use personalised questions, raise problems in relation to lessons, use statements for discussion, and give a quick revision quiz. For scaffolds, the lecturers were trained how to use guided note-taking handouts, highlight key words/main points, and conduct brainstorming. Moreover, they gained an awareness of giving the students time to find answers, in pairs, and to allow them to assess their answers within the criteria given. Lecturers could guide students to analyse and find evidence from input materials to support their answers. Lecturers appreciated how to provide chunking, repackage knowledge (using acronyms), and foster cognitive skills. Regarding links, they were trained how to review, preview, and link lessons. They also learned how to use a lecture glossary and visual or graphic organisers to link between content. Lecturers were shown how to employ personalisation linking theory into the students' own lives, and vice versa. The lecturers also linked new knowledge to prior knowledge.

4.3.2.2 Language Pillar

The Language Pillar focused on language-related learning outcomes in lessons. It highlighted practical and methodological notions of developing students' English in content classrooms. The students could learn useful English expressions, content-obligatory lexis, and content-compatible lexis. Likewise, they could participate in

language-teaching activities to support communication, learning, and performance. In this pillar, there were distinctive facets of English.

English for communication provided the students with English language sentence stems, to aid them in expressing themselves and to interact with others. Lecturers learnt how to use classroom language in various events such as opening classes, giving directives, grouping, asking students to recognise/identify/select information, and in closing classes.

The workshop raised awareness of using English in class. For example, directives should not be given when the students were still talking. In some cases, loud and clear voices should be good for students to hear. Short sentences and simple English language should be employed to promote easy understanding. Instruction-Checking Questions should be used to check students' understanding of what to do. Lecturers were encouraged to use gestures to help the students better understand meanings.

English for learning content encouraged lecturers to clarify and instruct in important lexis before starting instruction. Lecturers could let students guess the meaning of new words and identify key subject-specific lexis. There were English language activities to use in classrooms such as Bingo, Dictogloss, Academic Word List Gap fills, and error detection in lecture notes/materials, and also sentence completion.

English for learning performance supported the students in demonstrating their learning output. Lecturers could help them develop productive skills for showing what they understood about subject content. Students needed to summarise, paraphrase, express and interpret facts, information, and knowledge. Lecturers learned how to provide lists of key phrases or words, both written and spoken.

There was the lack of attention to academic English in all three facets of English. It was because the characteristics of English for communication was everyday English. English for learning seemed to relate to academic English, but the lecturer participants learnt how to simplify academic English rather than the use of academic English. English for learning performance introduced only general English expressions and useful sentence stems for particular language functions. In addition to English, it was anticipated that lecturers would use their first language for specific purposes, for example, explaining a difficult concept, checking that

students understood, and consulting a bilingual dictionary. Nevertheless, in the Language Pillar, the lecturer participants were not encouraged to deploy their first language in all three facets of English.

4.3.2.3 Learning Pillar

The Learning Pillar set learning skills objectives which facilitated students' learning content. This pillar highlighted the construction of learning activities taking into account cognitive levels, learning styles, learning strategies, and interactive class tasks. Cognitive skills assisted lecturers in designing learning tasks according to diverse cognitive levels. Lower Order Thinking Skills (LOTS) and Higher Order Thinking Skills (HOTS) were presented to lecturers. While LOTS had more concrete content, in HOTS the content was more abstract. Learning styles were introduced in four types. Firstly, students who learnt best when they read/wrote information. Secondly, visual students who learnt well when they saw visual information/graphical form. Thirdly, kinaesthetic students who learnt best when they had hands-on and tactile tasks. Fourthly, students who learnt best when they listened and spoke.

Learning strategies took place during different instruction stages. At the pre-instruction stage, the students could predict content before learning, and they were allowed to work alone, or in small groups, to analyse the activity and its purpose. At the during-instruction stage, lecturers were able to offer tasks that required note-taking, summarising, brainstorming, problem-solving activities, critical thinking exercises, and personalising learning. At the post-instruction stage, lecturers allowed students to exchange output products with peers and asked for feedback. Interactive class tasks drew the students' attention to learning. Lecturers had experience in designing interactive tasks through the use of digital technology and websites such as Kahood, Quizlet, Padlet, Mentimeter, and Quizizz. Lecturers also gained new ideas about designing paper-based activities such as Jigsaw reading, question to answers, and information gap.

Due to various aspects in each pillar, it appeared that the lecturers would decide which aspects would and would not be of value for them to apply. Chapter 5 will discuss the extent to which they actually practised the pillars in their EMI classes.

4.4 EMI Programme in HASS

This section presents the terms EMI and CLIL, viewed by the university through my lens. It also explains how the university managed the EMI programme in the post-workshop period. This section explains the English Linguistic Gears or ELGs and obligatory EMI activities used in HASS. In 2016, the HASS authorities decided to withdraw from this CLIL workshop at OverseasU due to financial restrictions. Today, this programme is no longer available.

4.4.1 Taking CLIL to EMI Programme

EMI at HASS played a crucial role in creating instructing and learning excellence at national and international levels, and in developing undergraduate students' competency in English as the lecturers' and students' first foreign language. EMI lacked pedagogical knowledge and guidelines for subject-content lecturers to instruct content through English. Hence, HASS authorities were expecting that the lecturers would apply three CLIL pillars in their classrooms even though they are working on an EMI environment.

Some issues were raised when using the CLIL approach in an EMI programme. CLIL originally was designed to teach primary/secondary students. In contrast, EMI initially was planned to employ with university students. In other words, CLIL and EMI were used in different contexts: school and university. HASS authorities decided to use CLIL with undergraduate students instead. In HASS, while CLIL was treated as a pedagogy of content instruction, EMI was viewed as a different aspect from CLIL. Indeed, CLIL focused on both content and language. It had a clear pedagogy that became an important aspect of instruction in language. Thus, CLIL directly taught target language to students. However, EMI did not focus on the English language instruction, but emphasised content instruction only. That is, EMI could promote students' language acquisition through reading and listening to input materials. Although there was some similarity in EMI and CLIL in that they shared the same aspect of English as the choice of MOI, in the CLIL approach, lecturers could make choices of whether to use English or other foreign languages. However, English was the choice of language selected by the HASS authorities in

order to introduce to the lecturers to conveying academic content to students in EMI classrooms.

It seemed that the lecturers would also weave the CLIL Language Pillars into English Linguistic Gears prior to their instruction.

4.4.2 English Linguistic Gears

EMI in HASS at HomeU offered lecturers a wide range of English utilisation during the delivery of subject matter. Figure 4.7 below illustrates features of English Linguistic Gears or ELGs.

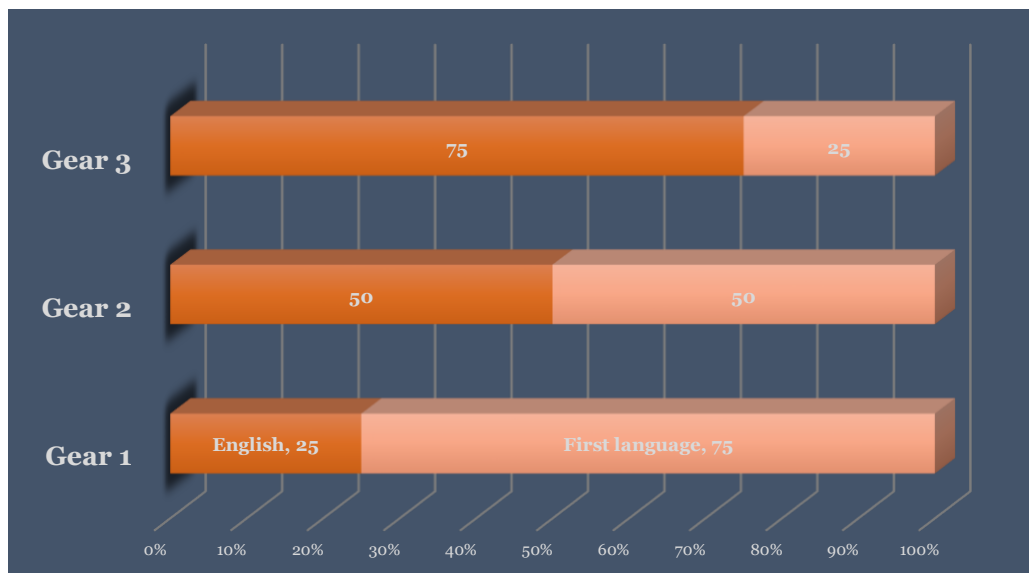


Figure 4.7: English Linguistic Gears

There were three Gears of English immersion levels: Gear One required that EMI classes must use English at least 25 percent of the class time throughout the semester; Gear Two involved English use of 50 percent; and Gear Three stipulated that English must be used during at least 75 percent of class time. ELGs also display a conceptual understanding of Thai levels that can occur in EMI classes. ‘Weak EMI’ allows Thai to be used for 75 percent of the whole course. In ‘Mild EMI’ involving 50 percent, Thai equally stands with English. ‘Strong EMI’ provides the use of less Thai for 25 percent.

In addition to lecturer talk, each Gear had particular requirements for instructing and learning types. Gear One involved the use of English handouts, input instructional materials, resources, and other documents. It required the use of English, in giving lectures or running classroom tasks, for at least 12 out of 48 hours. Gear Two required all materials and resources to be in English. Written reports and/or oral presentation must be in English. It required the use of English in class for at least 24 hours over the duration of the course. Gear Three stated that all materials, and resources must be written in English. Written reports and/or oral presentation must also be in English. Mid-term or final term examinations must be done in English. English must be used for at least 36 hours. Also, the classroom tasks should be ‘hands-on’ tasks, and such tasks should also promote classroom interaction.

In ELG documents, there is no stated guideline about assessment items and how much students are expected to use English in class. The major areas relate to the content lecturers’ practices rather than assessment and students. While ELGs have a strong influence on content lecturers, the requirements for proportions of L1 and L2 to be used by students in class were disregarded. However, at one point in the ELG documents, it is stated that, in Gears Two and Three, the students should “write reports and/or give presentations in English” (p. 3) (Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, 2016a). What is more, in Gear Three, the content lecturers should provide “midterm or final term test items in English” (p. 3) (Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, 2016a); however, it does not state which language the students should use for the tests.

4.4.3 Activities in Post-Workshop

After the workshop participation, all the trained EMI lecturers immediately signed up to the English-medium instruction agreement to deliver one EMI course for the first time. The faculty also encouraged them to use EMI by offering funding for EMI subjects according to levels of the Gears. Lecturers who were eligible to have funding, must have lecture-based subjects; lesson plans, content in relation to the lesson plans; and English in lectures or classroom tasks. They must not be English

specialists that normally conducted English subjects. New EMI lecturers, who were using Gear One for the first year, received 2,000 Baht (NZD 80) per each enrolled credit, but not more than three credits. Normally, one subject was awarded two to three credits. Gear Two was worth about 4,000 Baht (NZD 160), while Gear Three offered 6,000 Baht (NZD 240) per credit.

All EMI lecturers were required to select one ELG to use in their subjects. They should choose appropriate ELGs to employ as guidance tools to control speed, effort, and power involved in using English. Other than that, the lecturers were expected to apply what they learned from the workshop in the three CLIL Pillars, to their contexts from preparation to instruction stages. Although this requirement was not explicitly stated in the policy/document, the HASS authorities expressed their expectation that the lecturers would have successfully integrated ELGs into the CLIL Pillars in their practices. Lecturers prepared instructional materials such as reading, handouts, and PowerPoint Presentation. These things were content input materials written in English. They also designed classroom tasks that helped students gain more understanding. Some lecturers prepared their lecture notes in English. Although they had learned pedagogical knowledge from the workshop in groups, they personally applied such knowledge to their own instructing preferences and contexts. With preparation for EMI lessons in the near future, the content lecturers had confidence (to some degree) in deploying both ELGs and the CLIL Pillars at the first attempt under the new circumstances (e.g., new semester, new subjects, and new students).

4.5 Chapter Summary

In conclusion, EMI policies in HomeU and HASS were originally derived from the National Economic and Social Development Plan. The plan intended to develop Thai citizens to live and work in domestic and international arenas, so English skills were essential aspects to take into account. Focusing on actions, HomeU followed the national plan and developed its own policy to construct it to be more contextual and more reflective of HomeU's expertise and needs. Particularly, English as a medium of instruction planning and action was the main focus. Once the policy passed to HASS, the faculty made it more practical for their content lecturers since

they were unable to follow the institutional policy fully. There was convincing evidence of this when the lecturers were sent to attend CLIL workshops in OverseasU. Later, they had to apply what they had learnt to their own EMI classes. In HASS, three elements of CLIL, known as the ‘pillars model of CLIL,’ were applied in EMI programmes as the main pedagogy.

The next chapter will present the findings of lecturer cognition and practices regarding the implementation of EMI policy, English Linguistic Gears, and the Pillars.

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATION

This chapter reports the important findings of lecturer cognition and practices regarding EMI in a Thai university. This study does not discuss student language use. As clearly reflected in all research questions, the study focuses on the lecturers. This chapter addresses the following research questions which are based on the provisional research questions at the end of Chapter 2. They more accurately reflect the detail and sequencing of the chapter content.

- RQ 1. What are the lecturers' beliefs about the implementation of EMI in their setting?
- RQ 2. What are the proportions of Thai and English used in the observed EMI classrooms?
- RQ 3. What are the purposes for which English was used in the classrooms observed?
- RQ 4. What issues emerge from the lecturers' post hoc reflections on practice?
- RQ 5. What is the relationship between code-switching and translanguaging in the EMI setting?
- RQ 6. How do the findings of the study contribute to academic and professional understanding of 'language' in the EMI context? (This question will be addressed in Chapter 7.)

The above research questions differ slightly from the provisional research questions in Chapter 2. Some questions have been removed and/or reformed. That is, the provisional RQ2, about convergences between the lecturers' beliefs and practices, was removed due to insufficient evidence to establish relationships between beliefs and practices. Moreover, there were fewer contributions to and implications for the context when focusing on this issue. The above RQ3, about purposes of deploying English in class, was separated from the provisional RQ3. Simply stated, there were

rich data on this subject. Likewise, the new RQ4 has been introduced as a result of critical incidents which emerged from post-lesson discussion data. Other research questions remain the same.

The principal findings are presented according to the chronological sequence of the different data collection procedures used in this study and are as follows: pre-instruction practices, during-instruction practices and post-instruction practices.

Pre-instruction practices: All six lecturers were interviewed individually and displayed a consensus about embracing the Language Pillar as described in Chapter 4. While the Language Pillar as the pedagogical content knowledge encouraged the lecturers to use English predominantly, the English Linguistic Gears suggested to use Thai predominantly to deliver content in the classrooms. This led to the dilemma in lecturers' minds as to whether to follow the former or the latter in terms of the use of languages in the classrooms.

During-instruction practices: According to the classroom observation data, five of the EMI lecturers were unable to follow the requirements of the Gear One, as stated in the faculty's EMI regulations. Only one lecturer exceeded the English requirements of Gear One. Regarding their use of English, the lecturers mainly used code-switching as the social function for socialising and translanguaging as the instructional function in instructing content.

Post-instruction practices: The data from the stimulated recall interviews, focus group discussions, and written teaching report showed that the six lecturers had developed an awareness of three factors that influenced their actual practices. Firstly, it was challenging for the lecturers to transfer and integrate the OverseasU pedagogical content knowledge to the domestic policy of Gear One. Secondly, the lecturers reflected that poor classroom infrastructure and the students' poor English skills hampered the effectiveness of their practice. Thirdly, the lecturers reflected on their own varied personal reasons for employing code-switching and translanguaging in their classrooms. Therefore, data suggested that they were in need of an in-house professional development framework which could assist them in developing pedagogical content knowledge to use EMI effectively and systematically within their context.

The research questions above are fully and explicitly answered in different sections in this chapter. This chapter is divided into five main sections. Section 5.1 reports the lecturers' attitudes towards the policy, Language Pillar as pedagogical content knowledge, and anticipation of their future practices (RQ1). Section 5.2 presents quantitative data about the proportions of lecturer talk in English and Thai (RQ 2). Section 5.3 focuses on lecturer's practices in terms of four language functions: socialising, organising, instructing about language, and instructing content in their EMI classrooms (RQ3). Section 5.4 presents the lecturers' reflections on the various factors influencing local EMI practices in reality (RQ4). Section 5.5 is based on my interpretation and reports the phenomenon of using code-switching and translanguaging across language functions found in the EMI classrooms (RQ5). Unlike other sections, the final section is more of an interpretive discussion of the research question rather than a pure presentation of the research findings in relation to data. This is because this section attempts to theorise the status and interconnection of code-switching and translanguaging in EMI.

5.1 Lecturers' Beliefs about English Medium Instruction

This section provides responses to the first research question about the lecturers' initial beliefs at the beginning of their first semester of EMI teaching in HASS at HomeU. Indeed, this section sheds light on the six lecturers' attitudes towards the EMI policy and its implementation, the extent of their pedagogical content knowledge of CLIL derived from their overseas training, and their assumptions about language practices in their EMI classrooms in their faculty. All the findings in this section are derived from the semi-structured interviews which took place prior to teaching, which were conducted in Thai, and have been translated into English by myself. *Italics* are translations of original speech in Thai. Section 5.1.1 presents ambivalent attitudes towards the current EMI policy implementation. Section 5.1.2 reports the lecturers' pedagogical content knowledge about the Language Pillar. Section 5.1.3 illustrates their anticipation of challenges to future practice and their proposed solutions.

5.1.1 Ambivalent Attitudes towards the EMI Policy

This section reports the participants' understanding of the motivation for the change of policy regarding the medium of instruction. The section also reports both negative and positive attitudes of the lecturers.

5.1.1.1 Motivation for the Change of the Medium of Instruction

Institutional Policy-driven Effort as a Reason

The interview data suggested that an institutional policy-driven effort influenced all lecturers' decision-making regarding the change of the medium of instruction (MOI). They all viewed the implementation of EMI at the faculty as having been derived from a top-down instructional policy without asking people from the bottom of the system. One lecturer responded that, "*as a practitioner, when the policy comes, I have to implement it straightaway*" (Derek, SSI). There appeared to be a lack of platforms to discuss this subject with the authorities prior to translating policy into practice. One lecturer revealed that:

Although I lacked an in-depth understanding of the policy, I was requested to change the medium of instruction from Thai to English after the faculty declared such policy. (Amara, SSI)

From the practitioners' perspectives, EMI in HASS was going ahead because "*the faculty authorities accepted the top-down policy from the University's top management. So, the policy had a huge impact on the change of medium of instruction across the Thai curricula*" (Tanya, SSI). They aggressively pushed the lecturers towards their plan because "*EMI acted as an indicator of a university's teaching quality and internationalisation in the university*" (Bodin, SSI). Consequently, all lecturers agreed that the top-down policy not only directly affected the lecturers but also the students. One lecturer responded that, "*Not only were the lecturers urged to use EMI, but the students were also required to use English more than ever*" (Derek, SSI). Some lecturers raised conventional perspectives on the changed MOI. One lecturer stressed that, "*Thai as a medium of instruction should not be replaced by EMI in some disciplines related to local knowledge and culture*" (Jarad, SSI) because "*Thailand has its own beautiful Thai language*" (Derek, SSI). That was well-suited to describe knowledge and culture

of Thailand. However, *“the university authorities still expect each faculty to use EMI in all subjects by 2022”* (Tanya, SSI). Although all lecturers were not entirely willing to use EMI, they had no opportunity to decline the policy. As one lecturer said, *“If we didn’t follow the policy this time, it would come to us sooner or later...”* (Bodin, SSI). Only two lecturers adopted EMI voluntarily. One lecturer reported that, *“I didn’t feel compelled to practise EMI because EMI would be beneficial for the students. ... even if there was no EMI policy, I would do that [changing Thai to English as a medium of instruction]”* (Jarad, SSI). Another one mentioned that, *“my decision to do EMI crucially depended not on the policy but my motivation for achievement”* (Navin, SSI). Jarad and Navin believed that personal motivation was the principal factor that influenced their decision behind the change of MOI.

An Awareness of the Importance of English as a Motivation

All lecturers perceived that the motivation behind the sudden change of MOI was awareness of the importance of English for competition in the international arena. Indeed, *“English is a working language in ASEAN”* (Derek, SSI) in different settings across Southeast Asia (Jarad, Bodin, & Derek). They strongly believed that because of the importance of the English language, Thailand’s neighbouring countries played a leading role in business and education in the international arena. One lecturer emphasised that, *“Malaysia and Singapore have economic growth because their people from prime ministers to taxi drivers speak English very well”* (Jarad, SSI). Most of the lecturers agreed on the statement that there was greater mobility of skilled labour across ASEAN countries for those who had a good command of English. However, Thailand lacked exported skilled labours due to a low level of English proficiency of graduates. As a result, *“Thailand was less competitive in labour and career mobility in job markets in ASEAN”* (Tanya, SSI). One lecturer remarked that, *“if we didn’t pay attention to English, Thailand would be left behind in ASEAN”* (Navin, SSI).

All lecturers also believed that English was a prestige language because it would bring the future competitiveness of Thailand’s graduates standing in a global arena. One lecturer stressed that, *“having English skills would help Thai graduates compete with others in ASEAN”* (Amara, SSI). Another added that, *“our graduates*

would miss a chance to get good jobs if they couldn't speak English" (Bodin, SSI). Some made the point that, *"not all graduates had the same expectations as the lecturers"* (Derek, SSI). He strongly argued that it was not necessary for some graduates to compete with other ASEAN graduates for their jobs in overseas, and the majority of new graduates planned to work in local sectors. This was because *"the ultimate aim of our department is to produce graduates for local and social development across Thailand"* (Derek, SSI).

However, all lecturers wished to prepare high-quality graduates with *"standard knowledge and English skills"* (Amara, SSI). They also believed that EMI could promote the quality of content subjects and improve English skills of the current students to become the future competitive graduates because EMI should:

allow us to integrate English into teaching academic content to improve their [the students'] subject matter knowledge and English skills. (Jarad, SSI)

This extract suggests that Jarad believed that EMI was appropriate to improve the quality of graduates' capabilities to compete against other graduates in the ASEAN community. The belief behind these responses was that, *"English is the language of higher education. So academic disciplines should be taught through English"* (Jarad, SSI).

5.1.1.2 Attitudes towards the Policy Implementation

Negative Attitudes to English Linguistic Gears

When all lecturers were asked to express opinions about the policy implementation in their faculty, they expressed negative attitudes on the use of English Linguistic Gears (ELGs) as concrete indicators of EMI implementation. For example, they thought it was very difficult to track and calculate proportions of Thai and English in each Gear. One lecturer argued that, *"each Gear roughly informed us how much English should be used, but while using it we could not simply measure it"* (Navin, SSI). In addition, all lecturers believed that ELGs were problematic. As one lecturer put it:

Although the faculty introduced English levels [English Linguistic Gears] to us, their regulations would not work well in reality. (Bodin, SSI)

Bodin offered several reasons for this. Gear One required only twenty-five percent of lecturer talk in English, and *“the students would not subsequently improve their English proficiency”* (Bodin, SSI). This was because they would have little language exposure. By contrast, in Gear Three, which offered seventy-five percent of lecturer talk in English, the students would have considerable opportunity to be exposed to the English language. However, another lecturer expressed concern that: *“using so much English may cause unexpected results [a low outcome of content knowledge learning]”* (Tanya, SSI). She explained that Gear Three demanded a high level of English proficiency to understand academic content in English. All lecturers agreed that Gear Three would not be appropriate to use with their students. One lecturer said, *“I didn’t believe that Gear Three was a practical one for my students”* (Amara, SSI).

The interview data suggested that ELGs lacked explicit guidelines on how to deploy English or Thai for particular functions. One lecturer stated that: *“I had no idea how to use English in classes in order to give classroom language or lectures”* (Derek, SSI). Another one revealed that, *“although I have been using ELGs for more than a year, I still question the accuracy of my language implementation”* (Tanya, SSI). Data suggested that the lecturers had uncertainty about the use of ELGs in practice.

More importantly, the lecturers felt some concern about the true quality of EMI. All lecturers questioned whether ELGs could bring the quality of instruction in academic subjects. One lecturer responded that, *“I never used ELGs before. So, I could not tell a result”* (Jarad, SSI).

Although Amara, Tanya, and Navin had some experience in using ELGs, they lacked confidence in reviewing the use of ELGs to produce the desired outcome. As Amara put it, *“education was a long-term investment. I was unable to confirm success in using ELGS at this point”* (SSI), and *“we were not sure about what the students would really gain and lose in each Gear”* (Derek, SSI).

Positive Attitudes about the Value of the Overseas Training

A common view amongst the lecturers was their positive attitudes toward the limited amount of support for the policy. One lecturer said, “[w]e are lucky that the faculty sees the importance of lecturer development, and the policy supports us in terms of teaching training” (Jarad, SSI). They were grateful that the faculty had provided funding for the CLIL workshop participation in an overseas country to improve not only pedagogy but also their English skills. Bodin said that, “I had more chance to practise and use English since the environment forced me to speak it” (SSI). Although all lecturers responded that they were comprehensively exposed to English in the English-speaking country, they realised that a substantial improvement was not possible with only a three-week stay in the country. However, at least, “it allowed us to brush up on English communication in the real situation” (Navin, SSI). This activity was also beneficial to Amara, who revealed that, “I had a chance to recycle my English before using it with students” (Amara, SSI). The interview data suggested that the use of English in the real world would be transferred into classrooms because “this experience was designed as a rehearsal for us before bringing it all to EMI classes” (Bodin, SSI).

Regarding pedagogy, they were satisfied with the CLIL Language Pillar because it widened their pedagogical knowledge horizons. Derek (SSI) shared his experience of gaining pedagogy:

Previously, I knew only giving lectures in Thai that duplicated the teaching style of my former lecturers. Currently, I have learnt new things such as academic content delivery in English...

The most striking result to emerge from the data was that the rest also agreed that the Language Pillar strongly influenced the ways they thought of and taught EMI. One lecturer revealed that, “EMI was more than just the use of English to deliver content lessons” (Tanya, SSI) because it involved the art of using English for specific functions. To elaborate this point, all agreed that only knowing English was insufficient to do EMI, as “we all needed to know how to use English pedagogically in classes based on CLIL” (Bodin, SSI). Thus, the Language Pillar would eventually shift the way they instruct academic content and extend the focus

because all lecturers believed that the Language Pillar could advance the students' content knowledge and English proficiency. Accordingly, all lecturers revealed that their previous background knowledge of instruction only emphasised one focus: the students' content knowledge. The workshop certainly expanded their knowledge. One lecturer noted that, "*I found new pedagogy that enhanced not only content but also language*" (Navin, SSI).

Therefore, all lecturers appreciated that the workshop was very useful for new EMI lecturers, who had only experienced teaching content in Thai. A reason for this was that, "*EMI totally differed from Thai [as a MOI] ... we would not know it, if we had not attended the workshop*" (Amara, SSI). One lecturer supported this point, "*I was very worried about EMI because I never knew and used it before. The workshop helped me a lot*" (Bodin, SSI). The interview data suggested that all lecturers gained confidence in EMI instruction after the workshop. However, "*there was no guarantee of success in future practice*" (Derek, SSI). A possible explanation for this was that they realised that the workshop was too short. So, the lecturers were aware that they could not gain an in-depth understanding about the pedagogy for EMI, but it was better than no preparation at all.

The next section of cognition is concerned with understanding of the Language Pillar that the lecturers gained from the workshop.

5.1.2 Pedagogical Content Knowledge about the Language Pillar

The lecturers emphasised the importance of the language pillar because they assumed that this pillar was instrumental in bringing about content delivery and content learning. Hence, this section presents what they know about how to use English to instruct their academic content.

5.1.2.1 English for Communication

All lecturers agreed with the statement that everyday English played an important role in classroom interaction. So, in the Learning Pillar, the lecturers were told to use everyday English as much as they could because "*English is the tool to communicate in class*" (Bodin, SSI). Hence, there were high expectations that both lecturers and students had to speak English in classes to let EMI lessons flow. Thus,

“we should use everyday English with the students to promote lecturer-student interaction” (Navin, SSI). However, all lecturers were aware that the students lacked confidence in their oral skills in English. Their students were *“worried about being grammatically incorrect while speaking”* (Amara, SSI) because *“classmates normally laughed at them when they said something ungrammatically. That made them lose face”* (Tanya, SSI). All lecturers understood that the classroom would be silent if the students were worried about their grammar. Hence, all of them accepted grammatical errors while speaking. One lecturer said that:

I accepted the use of poorly spoken English in EMI classes as long as listeners received what speakers said. ... We [lecturers and students] are not native speakers of English. So, there are bound to be some grammatical errors and mistakes. (Bodin, SSI)

This comment illustrates that accurate English was not the focus of attention. However, the emphasis was very much on intelligibility of the spoken language for the purpose of communication. Thus, for the students, *“there’s no need to speak perfect English... because I can’t speak English perfectly either”* (Bodin, SSI). The rest also paid attention to understanding messages exchanged between interlocutors because *“English errors weren’t the central focus”* (Tanya, SSI). Although during the CLIL course all lecturers had been given some training in correcting the student’s English errors and mistakes, the majority of them revealed that they lacked confidence in doing so. Concerns were expressed about English error treatment. One lecturer responded that, *“actually, I can spot simple English errors only, but I’m not prepared to for complex ones”* (Derek, SSI). Working on students’ language errors was demanding. As one lecturer added, *“we not only detected the errors but also treated the errors. ...However, my English skills are not at that advanced level to do both things”* (Tanya, SSI). Another said, *“I’m unable to detect language errors, for lack of accurate English skills”* (Bodin, SSI). In contrast, Navin responded that this was not an issue for him. He claimed that, *“I’m able to monitor my students’ English grammatical errors because English was not my problem”* (SSI).

With regard to English teaching, when the students could not communicate in English, some lecturers strongly believed that they should teach everyday English.

To help the students on this regard, “*we should teach them some basic English for communication in class*” (Navin, SSI). This idea was derived from applying their understanding of the Language Pillar. They explained that it was compulsory for them to instruct about the English language to the students who lacked the target language to communicate in English. Indeed, “*we were taught how to teach English by CLIL trainers*” (Amara, SSI). However, in their self-reported data, no evidence was found for their understanding of any specific English language teaching pedagogy. The interview data suggested that the majority of the lecturers appeared to be avoiding instructing about everyday English. One lecturer explained that, “*I’m not an English lecturer. So, I don’t really know English language teaching methods*” (Tanya, SSI).

5.1.2.2 English for Academic Content Instruction

In principle, all the lecturers understood that English should be employed to deliver content to the students since discipline-related English terminology carried academic content; for example, the Language Pillar, “*expects us to use academic English in teaching content subjects*” (Jarad, SSI). Also, many English terms have been added into Thai, as one lecturer reported, “*our fields use many English key terms without translating them into Thai. So, English terms only should be used in class*” (Bodin, SSI). However, some argued that in practice, it was impossible to use many English terms without giving Thai explanations for the first time because “*I care a great deal about the students’ comprehension*” (Amara, SSI). Derek (SSI) clarified this claim:

I’m aware that academic English should be frequently used for academic content delivery. However, it was unnecessary to do it when the students can’t understand the content properly. As lecturers, we should finally turn back to teach content in our own language. Remember, the syllabus mainly focuses on content understanding.

This comment suggested that Derek recognised that the goal of the course was content gain so that the use of too much academic English would not help the students make sense of academic content. When working on understanding of

content, he posed thought-provoking questions about replacing English with the mother tongue: *“What’s the point of attempting to use English for academic content instruction when we know the students couldn’t understand? Or just for the sake of following the Language Pillar? ...So what? Is it more practical to use mother tongue for this purpose?”* (SSI). The lecturers were fully aware that academic English might impact on understanding when the students were unable to access academic content.

To assist the students in gaining entry into academic content, some lecturers agreed that academic English should be taught. One lecturer stated that, *“we should teach academic English to the students to gain meanings of English terminologies”* (Navin, SSI). Other lecturers disagreed with this idea because instructing about the English language was not their job, *“I’m a content specialist, so my job is to teach academic content only”* (Bodin, SSI). Another suggested that, *“the best one to teach English is an English lecturer, not me”* (Tanya, SSI). One lecturer also suggested that, *“we should only add academic English in the lesson when it is necessary”* (Derek, SSI). For example, the lecturers agreed that core concepts and technical terms should be presented in English first and then in Thai, where necessary. To explain academic content, one lecturer suggested that, *“we can choose whatever languages they [the students] could gain a better understanding”* (Derek, SSI) with various teaching materials (e.g., PowerPoint Presentation, handouts, and visual aids) to facilitate instruction.

Data suggested that the notion of the Language Pillar appeared to be in conflict with the Gear One. All lecturers realised that Gear One allowed them to utilise the first language in input/output learning. However, the Language Pillar encouraged them to use as much English as possible in both areas, rather than twenty-five percent of the time allowed to them in Gear One. One lecturer reported that, *“the CLIL trainers encouraged us to use English to the best of our ability. But, the first language was left behind”* (Bodin, SSI). Unlike Gear One, another one noticed that, *“although the use of Thai is discouraged, Thai is not prohibited”* (Tanya, SSI).

5.1.3 Anticipation of Challenges of Future Practice and Their Solutions

This section presents the last findings of the individual interviews, which reported the challenges the lecturers anticipated in future practices due to the lack of English proficiency of both themselves and the students, and their solutions for the management of these challenges.

5.1.3.1 Lecturers' Insufficient English Proficiency

When the participants were requested to anticipate challenges, Bodin, Amara and Tanya straightforwardly said that their low English proficiency would prevent them from implementing EMI effectively. Bodin acknowledged that:

I lack English productive skills to deliver content [and elaborated]. My insufficient English skills would block my genuine knowledge as English limited my [linguistic] ability to express what I certainly knew. ... And the English language that expressed content, would be grammatically wrong. ... The effect of these would create troublesome issues in the future. (Bodin, SSI)

Amara agreed that, although “*we have a good command in reading academic texts*” (SSI), she found it difficult to teach in English. Similarly, Tanya commented that, “*I have a problem with it because my accuracy and fluency in speaking English was not the same as Thai*” (SSI). In short, lack of confidence and competence in oral English was a major cause of lecturers feeling insecure, “*I felt concerned that my English would cause the students' confusion, and EMI lessons would not yield good returns*” (Bodin, SSI). A possible explanation for this was that when “*we used the wrong words or grammar structures, our content would be misinterpreted*” (Navin, SSI). As a result, the students would gain inaccurate content. The others also worried that the students would acquire poor English from their lecturers. One lecturer was concerned it was possible that, “*the students might obtain incorrect English pronunciations and accents from the lecturers*” (Jarad, SSI).

The interview data reported that Jarad and Navin had confidence in their English ability. They claimed that English did not present a challenge for them. Jarad shared his experience that, “*I gave lectures in English for one hundred percent to postgraduate students last semester*” (SSI), while Navin mentioned his current

academic activity noting that, *“I normally use English to communicate with partnerships in an international organisation”* (Navin, SSI). Although Derek avoided talking about his English skills in detail, he responded that overall, his English was not a problem either. As he put it, *“well, when we were PhD students, we passed English language courses, academic content courses, and English tests... So, these proved that all university lecturers have sufficient English proficiency”* (Derek, SSI). Data suggested that these lecturers believed that they had sufficient English skills to do certain tasks in academic settings.

5.1.3.2 Students’ Insufficient English Proficiency

All the lecturers anticipated that a common barrier to success in EMI learning would be the students’ insufficient English skills. They predicted that firstly, the students would find it very difficult to use their limited receptive skills to understand the content in English. One forecast that, *“they would have trouble in listening to my lectures”* (Jarad, SSI), while another one thought that the students’ reading skills would not be effective enough so that, *“they might struggle with getting deep comprehension of the input reading materials they were given”* (Derek, SSI). Secondly, the students would face difficulties in using productive skills to conduct negotiations with peers and respond to the lecturers. Tanya foresaw that, *“the negotiation of meaning about academic content lessons would not occur when I asked them to use English”* (SSI). Another lecturer anticipated that, *“my lesson would be delayed because they couldn’t use simple words to answer my questions promptly”* (Bodin, SSI). All lecturers agreed with Bodin’s point that:

The majority of the students only communicated at the word level due to their lack ability to make sentences. ... their vocabulary size was limited, and overall English can be described as unsatisfactory. (Bodin, SSI)

As the quotations show, the students were unable to use everyday English to respond to lecturer talk. Thus, all lecturers foresaw that it would be very difficult to employ much everyday English to communicate in class. Beyond everyday English, a concern was raised about using academic English to deliver academic content,

even though all lecturers realised that academic English was an important aspect in academic content instruction, some lecturers agreed to avoid using it. One lecturer raised the point that, *“I didn’t think about the use of academic English with my students, as their everyday English is still underdeveloped”* (Jarad, SSI).

Although there were some competent students, most of the lecturers felt that these students would be afraid of using their English due to the nature of Thai students. It was likely that, *“when these groups of the students used English in class, other students [who lacked English abilities] thought that they wanted to show off their English skills in class”* (Tanya, SSI). As a result, *“the students with English competency wouldn’t bring energy and enthusiasm to EMI lessons”* (Jarad, SSI).

Regarding writing as another productive skill, the lecturers did not believe that their students would have appropriate English writing skills to show their accurate understanding. One lecturer provides a reason, saying that, *“English writing is an advanced skill. I didn’t think that they will have yet developed this skill”* (Amara, SSI). Hence, the lecturer foresaw that if the students presented their understanding in poor English written form, the lecturers would not see their actual understanding. Derek explained that they had the cognitive capacity to understand academic content. However, *“English would blind their genuine understanding, if I checked their learning output through English writing”* (Derek, SSI).

5.1.3.3 Solution: Using English Linguistic Gear One

When the lecturers were requested to share solutions to the insufficient English proficiency of lecturers and students, they all reported that Gear One had been chosen to be employed as a solution for the first encounter with their students. Some lecturers fully accepted that their insufficient English was inappropriate to utilise higher Gears. However, Navin, Derek, and Jarad argued that this was not the reason they selected Gear One, the students’ English ability was the key criterion. Navin said, *“My English skills matched Gear Three, but my students’ English did not”* (SSI). All three realised that only twenty-five percent of English in the EMI classroom would not lead to real language gain by the students. However, they saw the potential benefits of using Gear One in terms of content gain. The students would face less difficulty in understanding academic content because

there was less requirement of using English [for input and output learning] in the level one [Gear One]. So, it seemed to build up the students' understanding of academic content. (Jarad, SSI)

All lecturers agreed with the statement that the use of a small proportion of English could avoid a misunderstanding and facilitate the students' understanding of academic content. They also recognised that Gear One provided them with an opportunity to deploy two languages. Navin said, *"I assumed that we could use English and Thai in EMI class"* (SSI). Another argued that, *"lectures must be done in Thai only"* (Derek, SSI) because Gear One offered seventy-five percent of lecturer talk in Thai. Derek believed that a large proportion of Thai in Gear One allowed him to *"convey various crucial messages to the students in order for them to gain a full understanding"* (SSI).

The interview data suggested that the ELGs afforded the lecturers a degree of freedom of selecting language levels. They had an opportunity to select how much English and Thai should be used instead of a one-size-fits-all approach such as would be the case with total English immersion programmes. From how the lecturers responded, they felt comfortable to use English within the lowest Gear. All lecturers revealed that there was no guarantee of success in implementing this solution since instruction was a complex activity. Hence, all lecturers agreed that they also needed appropriate infrastructures to support their instruction because now *"we lack good appropriate classroom infrastructures"* (Amara, Tanya, Bodin, Derek, & Jarad, SRIs). Although the lecturers suggested solutions to deal with these challenges, they could not confirm what would genuinely happen in their future practices. One lecturer said, *"I have never used Gear One before, so I really don't know what things would come"* (Bodin, SRI). While another lecturer, who had taught EMI the previous semester, said that *"although I experienced it, I still couldn't tell what the result would be as courses and students are new every time"* (Navin, SSI).

5.1.4 Section Summary

In summary, the semi-structured interview data reported lecturer cognition encompassing beliefs, attitudes and anticipations. Most of the lecturers believed that they were required to implement EMI as a result of pressure from the university authorities, although two said that they would adopt EMI anyway. All of them thought English was very important to prepare many, but not all, of their students to compete internationally. Concerning attitudes towards the implementation of the policy, they felt that the twenty-five percent of English required in Gear One was not enough to develop their students' English proficiency, but the larger amount of Thai would promote the students' understanding of academic content. Regarding anticipation of challenges in future practice, concern was expressed about the insufficient English language of both lecturers and students, and the limitations of the contextual infrastructure.

To understand a holistic picture of how they employed Gear One, the next section presents quantitative data of lecturer talk in the six classes.

5.2 Quantitative Data of Lecturer Talk

This section addresses the second research question regarding the proportions of Thai and English deployed in the observed EMI classrooms. This section presents an overview of lecturer talk in their EMI classrooms. All the recorded classroom talk was transcribed, and the proportions of Thai and English were calculated according to the amount of time accorded to each and the purposes for which the two languages were used. Explanations for some speech are taken from data in the stimulated recall interviews (SRI) or from my reflective research journal (RRJ). Section 5.2.1 describes the proportions of Thai and English use in EMI classes. Section 5.2.2 discovers the proportions of functions of all languages in lecturer talk. Section 5.2.3 describes the respective proportions of Thai and English in each function.

5.2.1 Proportion of Thai and English Use

There were six classroom observation recordings. Overall, lessons lasted between 90 and 180 minutes. Table 5.1 below displays overall information on lecturer talk.

Table 5.1: Percentages of Thai and English use

Lecturer	Length of lesson (min/s)	Length of lecturer talk (min/s)	Total lecturer talking time (%)	Lecturer talk in L1 (min/s)	Lecturer talk in L1 (%)	Lecturer talk in L2 (min/s)	Lecturer talk in L2 (%)
1 Derek	180'00"	53'18"	29.5%	51'68"	97.0%	1'51"	2.8%
2 Navin	90'00"	28'64"	31.8%	25'33"	88.4%	3'31"	3.7%
3 Jarad	90'00"	53'18"	59.1%	50'57"	95.1%	4'24"	8.0%
4 Amara	90'00"	37'85"	42.1%	32'76"	86.6%	5'09"	13.4%
5 Bodin	180'00"	43'00"	23.0%	33'77"	78.5%	9'23"	21.5%
6 Tanya	180'00"	54'71"	30.4%	28'43"	52.0%	26'28"	48.0%

It was noteworthy that in practice, the longest lecturer talk lasted only 92.44 minutes out of three hours of class time, while the shortest lasted only 28.64 minutes in a class of one and a half hours. A possible explanation for this might be that, *“there was no lecturer talk when the students worked on classroom tasks (e.g., reading and writing summaries) and disappeared during a 15-minute break”* (RRJ). This table shows outstanding difference between the Thai language and English language use. Although Gear One required the lecturers to deploy English for 25 percent, the majority of lecturers could not fulfil this obligation. For example, Derek used Thai for 97 percent of the whole talking time, and English for only 2.80 percent. The lecturers who used Thai beyond the restriction, shared one reason for doing so, that the students gained in-depth subject matter knowledge in Thai. One lecturer said, *“I used English to convey the subject-matter knowledge, but the students learn the content at a surface level. When I used Thai, they gained new knowledge at a deeper level...”* (Amara, SRI). Another added, *“my students were able to develop their full understanding of academic content because I myself delivered a thorough knowledge of the subject in Thai”* (Bodin, SRI).

In sharp contrast, Tanya employed Thai for 52 percent of the time, and she utilised English for 48 percent, thus actually exceeding the English requirement of Gear

One. When she was asked in a post-lesson discussion why she had exceeded Gear One, she offered three reasons. Firstly, she recognised that most of the third- and fourth-year students in her class were able to understand English. Secondly, when she used English, she often used teaching materials to support comprehension. Tanya said, *“I had PowerPoint Presentation, handouts, and pictures to support [instruction]”* (SRI). Thirdly, she simplified her English for the students to access content easily. She revealed that, *“I used simple English and avoided using academic English when speaking”* (Tanya, SRI).

Moving now to the functions of languages in lecturer talk during their EMI practices, further details are presented below.

5.2.2 Proportions of Functions of Lecturer Talk

After transcribing classroom lecturer talk, an analysis of functions of languages revealed a total 32,837 words in Thai and English. These two languages were constructed into one dataset. From the analysis of these data, it was apparent that four classroom interaction functions dominated the lecturer talk: socialising (SOC), organising (ORG), instructing about language (INS-LANG), and instructing content (INS-CON). In SOC, the lecturers used either language to promote rapport, to praise, and to reduce the students’ anxiety. In ORG, the lecturers organised different phases of the lessons and instructed students to do certain things. In INS-LANG, their focus was on helping students to understand the English needed to support the academic content. In INS-CON, the lecturers delivered new content knowledge.

The proportions of these functions were measured by timing the movement of languages across all the functions. According to statistical timing analysis, these four functions were unequal in length. Figure 5.1 below displays the proportions of the language functions in lecturer talk.

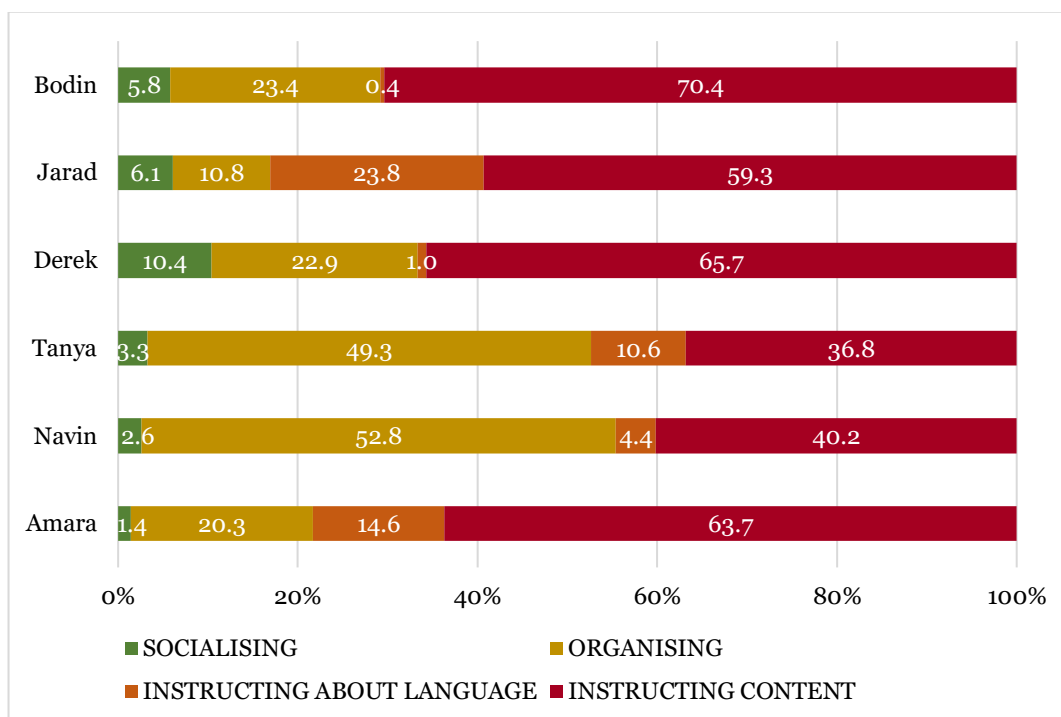


Figure 5.1: Proportions of functions of lecturer talk

Figure 5.1 illustrates that the proportions of functions were unequal due to the academic subject of the course and instructional styles. INS-CON was the most widely used function (mean = 51%): the majority of lecturers used their available linguistic repertoire to instruct subject matter knowledge. The largest proportion was in Bodin's lesson because he presented new knowledge to the students. Derek's lesson also concentrated on content instruction since his lesson was a brand-new topic. The second largest proportion of all functions among the lecturers was ORG (mean = 29.9%), although Tanya spent less time on INS-CON than on ORG. A likely reason for this was that a half of her lesson was a lesson continued from the previous week, and she focused mainly on reviewing the students' learning. Navin's lesson had the largest proportion of organising across the six lecturers since the nature of this lesson was the same as Tanya's, although he also paid attention to giving directives for classroom tasks. INS-LANG was the second smallest of the proportions of all functions (mean = 9.1%). As the figure above shows, Jarad's lesson had the largest proportion of INS-LAN since he spent more time on explaining key terminology than the other five. SOC was notably the least of all four functions (mean = 4.76%): The smallest proportion of SOC across the six was in Amara's class because her focus was on instructing content.

The next section reports the proportions of the use of Thai and English in different functions.

5.2.3 Proportions of the Use of Thai and English in each Function

Lecturer talk contained 32,837 words in total; 5,845 in English and 26,992 in Thai. Thai was the main use in all four functions in order from greatest to least INS-CON, ORG, INS-LANG, and SOC, as shown in Figure 5.2 below. The figure also shows the proportions of Thai and English in each function of the individual lecturers.

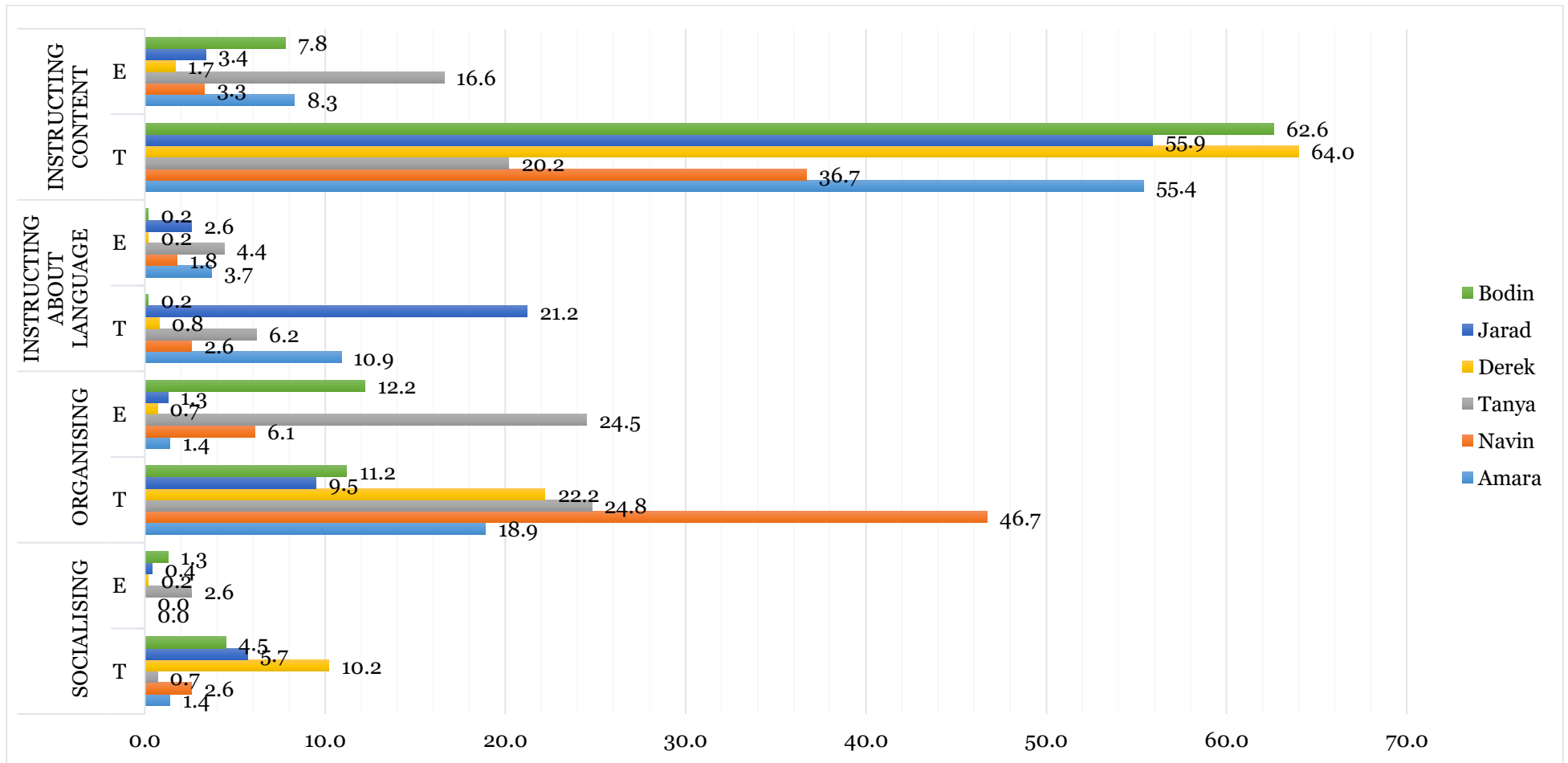


Figure 5.2: The proportions of the use of Thai and English in different functions

The statistical data in Figure 5.2 above shows that all lecturers used Thai the most in (INS-CON) in order to meet the curriculum's goal (content comprehension). Bodin's lesson had the largest proportion (62.60%), whilst the smallest was in Tanya's class (20.20%). It may reasonably be inferred that this was because Thai, as a valuable linguistic resource, supported the students' meaning-making process in understanding complex content. The lecturers deployed mainly Thai to organise the lesson to ensure that their lessons were well-structured to facilitate the meaning-making process. Navin's ORG was the largest quantity (46.70%), while Jarad had the smallest quantity (9.50%). In instructing about language, all the lecturers used Thai more than English; Jarad's INS-LANG was the largest (21.20%), and Bodin's the smallest (0.20). They used Thai to convey the meanings of English words to make meaning of the complex terminology in the English language in print materials and PowerPoint Presentations. It was evident that the lecturers mostly used Thai, rather than English, to socialise with the students; Derek's SOC was the largest percentage (10.20%), while Tanya was the smallest (0.70%).

Data indicated that although English was used in the same functions as Thai, English was a minority language in all functions. Concerning the use of English, statistical data disclosed that Tanya's ORG had the largest proportion (24.50%), whereas Derek had the smallest proportion (0.70%). The lecturers mostly used simple English to organise the students to do certain actions while a meaning-making process was taking place. Tanya's INS-CON was the largest quantity (16.60%); Derek's was the smallest quantity (1.70%). Although the lecturers had English as one of their linguistic resources, they used very little English to convey the complex content or to help the students to negotiate new content. Tanya's use of English in INS-LANG was the largest (4.40%), while Bodin and Derek was the least (0.20%). The lecturers rarely used English to explain English words. Surprisingly, Tanya's SOC was the largest proportion (2.60%), while Amara and Navin used none. Although there was little space to use English to socialise in class, socialising contained a long chunk of English (RRJ). The lecturers employed English to fulfil the Gear regulations in socialising without considering the students' understandings since socialising was not the ultimate aim of the curricula. In some classes, they had no use of English in socialising because some did not pay attention to socialising through English.

5.2.4 Section Summary

Overall, these results indicated that the majority of lecturers were unable to follow the requirements of Gear One. The lecturers incorporated the two languages into four functions of languages in their talk: socialising, organising, instructing about language, and instructing content. To illustrate these points, socialising was significantly the least used, while instructing content was significantly the largest. Together, these results provided important insights into the use of Thai and English in EMI classrooms. English was used the most in organising, but least in socialising. Although quantitative data suggested that there was the potential for code-switching and translanguaging taking place in lecturer talk, quantitative data is unable to capture an in-depth example of such language practice. In reality, language practices were much more complex than displaying proportions of Thai and English used because the lecturers' language practices were flexible and dependant on moment-by-moment decisions. Qualitative data is able to reveal evidence of language practice in classrooms.

Attention now turns to the exploratory evidence of code-switching (CS) and translanguaging (TL) in the four functions.

5.3 Lecturers' Language Practices

With respect to the third research question, about the purposes for which English was employed in the classrooms observed, this section provides empirical evidence of the four functions of lecturer talk in the actual observed classroom practices. This section also focuses on CS and TL as linguistic performances occurring across the four functions. Section 5.3.1 presents the socialising functions and the ways in which the six use CS to socialise in class. In the transitional space, section 5.3.2 presents organising functions and the way CS moves to TL. Moving beyond CS, section 5.3.3 moves from socialising and organising functions to how TL played a role in English language instruction. Section 5.3.4 presents instruction of content functions and how TL was used to instruct academic content by the six lecturers.

The following acronyms and transcript conventions are used to present observational data in this chapter.

Table 5.2: Transcript conventions

1, 2	number of extract
01, 02	speaker turn
Ss	more than one student speaking
]	overlapping talk
/, //, ///	pause (length of seconds)
bold	emphasis given by speaker
(xxx)	unintelligible talk
(hello)	guessed talk
[i]t [lesson]	modified original transcriptions or added clarification
...	removed irrelevant talk
{ }	activity associated with the talk
< >	interpretive comment
<i>italics</i>	translation of original talk in vernacular

Note: No attempt has been made to ‘tidy up’ inaccurate English spoken by the lecturers in their classrooms.

5.3.1 Socialising

Based on lecturer talk data, CS was most prominent in socialising. Data showed that the lecturers employed socialising to greet and farewell; use anecdote and humour; and praise and reassure the students.

5.3.1.1 Greeting and Leave-taking

In opening a class, only Bodin and Tanya chose English to greet the students with friendly salutations prior to instructing academic subjects. Below is an instance of lecturer talk is taken from Bodin’s class.

Extract 1

- 01 **Bodin** <starting class> *Hello. ...Good afternoon, everyone.* How are you today? <showing a shy smile>
- 02 **Ss** {in chorus} Good afternoon, teacher. I am fine. Thank you, and you?
- 03 **Bodin** {laughing} **Thank you.** Thank you for your attention.
- 04 **Ss** {laughter}
- 05 **Bodin** **OK. //// OK. ///**

02'16" to 02'30", (COB, 26/09/16)

As shown in the extract above, Bodin and the students used English to exchange greetings. Each greeting was short in length because he did not make small talk to lengthen this social event. In turn 01, he used tag-switching in greeting: “*Hello. ...Good afternoon...*” For the rest, although only English was used in greeting, it was so simple that everyone could understand. For example, in turn 02, the students used a formulaic salutation pattern that all Thai students have known since primary school. Data suggest that little emphasis was placed on greeting because this event was not related to content instruction.

Moving now to closing a class, not only did the lecturers use English for farewell, there was room for Tanya to code-switch to assign some unfinished tasks in class for the students to complete outside the class. The following extract illustrates this.

Extract 2

- 01 **Tanya** ... I want you **prepare** the content...that you will...put in your e-learning *na ka*. ... And next, we will **design** how to interact with the lesson, ...to teach the student. And activity that we will put, we will set in our (next) class. ... **For today**, do you want to ask anything or any questions?
- 02 **Ss** {silent}
- 03 **Tanya** OK. For today, ...thank you very much your attention. Thank you *////* and enjoy your lunch and enjoy your weekend. OK. If you have any question and you don't want to ask in this class, you can ask any times. *Now. it's time for lunch.* Let enjoy your lunch. OK.

Thank you very much. **See you next weeks!** Bye-bye. <waving hand> **Bye.** < and ending class>

133'41" to 136'41", (COB, 07/10/16)

It was apparent that in turn 01, Tanya used tag-switching to assign an unfinished task, as she switched codes: "...**prepare** the content...in your e-learning *na ka*." Adding '*na ka*' here at the end of the sentence made this command sound politer. For the rest, only English was used to inform the students about the next week's lesson. She also gave the students a chance to ask questions, but no one took the opportunity. In turn 03, she used a large amount of English to thank the students and made good wishes, and also reminded the students to ask her questions outside the class. She also used intrasentential code-switching to socialise before ending the class: "*Now. it's time for lunch.* Let enjoy your lunch." At the end, she thanked the students again and said goodbye.

5.3.1.2 Using Anecdote and Humour

Tanya used English to ask the students about their midterm tests, as indicated in the extract below.

Extract 3

- 01 **Tanya** ////////////// This week is a midterm test, right? How was your test *ka*?
{laughing}
- 02 **SS** {silent} ////
- 03 **Tanya** **Very bad.** {laughing} ////////////// My son is fail in Thai. Thirty points, he get fifteen point. But, he said but he is good in English and Chinese. He get full-full score from Chinese and English. And I asks: what he want to be? He said: he want to be the **farmer**.
{laughing}
- 04 **Ss** {laughing}

03'08" to 04'05", (COB, 07/10/16)

As apparent from the extract above, in turn 01, although Tanya used simple English to question the students, none of the students responded to her question. Moreover, tag-switching was also used: "How was your test *ka*?" The function of '*ka*' here

was used as a politeness marker of Thai females in speaking after a question. In turn 03, she decided to use an anecdote in English to fill dead air. Tanya's anecdote was not associated with any lesson but her son's personal story. She continued to use English to tell the anecdote presumably to establish a close rapport with the students and to create a friendly atmosphere before turning to a serious subject.

During class, the lecturers used humour in relation to the lesson to create a relaxing environment. The following is evidence of how Jarad used CS to add humour to make the students laugh.

Extract 4

- 01 **Jarad** *Enforceable is to compel people to use the policy. Having the policy that cannot be put into practice is not a good policy. The policy must be doable. ... We are not NATO <North Atlantic Treaty Organization>. We fight against NATO.*
- 02 **Ss** *<confused>*
- 03 **Jarad** *NATO refers to No Action, Talk Only na krub.*
- 04 **Ss** {laughter}
- 05 **Jarad** {laughter}

47'18" to 48'45", (COB, 26/10/16)

This extract showed that Jarad initiated an explanation of a good policy. Then, in turn 03, he utilised intrasentential code-switching to build humour: "NATO refers to No Action, Talk Only na krub." He added a Thai phrase, 'na krub' at the end to confirm his interpretation and show politeness. The data suggest that he had successfully made the joke because the students understood and laughed out loud.

5.3.1.3 Praising and Reassuring

All lecturers deployed English words to praise the students, who in return also used English to respond or interact with the lecturers. Bodin employed CS to praise the students for contributing correct answers, as indicated in this extract.

Extract 5

- 01 **Ss** <saying something in English> (xxx)
02 **Bodin** <looking at the students' answers> *What? Can you get it right? ...*
OK. **Good-Good-Good-Good**. Specific query, researcher want to
answer research question. Right? OK. **Next, yeah!**
03 **SS** <getting ready>

07'32" to 07'55", (COB, 26/09/16)

As shown above, after responding to Bodin's question, the students said something in English. In turn 02, Bodin initiated and praised the students' response through intersentential code-switching: "*Can you get it right? ... Good-Good-Good-Good.*" He rapidly repeated the adjective 'good' as a compliment word to the students. This was perhaps because the lecturer was surprised to receive the students' answer in English (RRJ). This praising also played a role as a positive evaluation of the students' answers. Thus, there was an overlap between affectively praising the students' response in English and cognitively evaluating the students' answers. At the end, Bodin gave a typical boundary marker in English to move to the next event.

The lecturers reassured students that they had nothing to worry about when they faced language difficulties. Taking Navin's lesson as a case, the students were supposed to write an explanation in English; however, Navin noticed that his students felt uncomfortable to do it. He used CS to comfort the students, as indicated in the following extract.

Extract 6

- 01 **Navin** **Hello. Hello.**
02 **Ss** {silent}
03 **Navin** ... I guess everybody finish step one. Step one *is* Now you understand principle of Utilitarianism or Kantian principle. I think nobody has problem with either. *I think nobody has problem with either.* Has any group? *Has any group? ...*
04 **Ss** {silent} <Many students showed their facial expression of stress.>

05 **Navin** **No problem na krub.** ... *I allowed you to write content in Thai sentence by sentence first. Then, you put them in Google [translations]. Let Google translate. Google will give you incorrect pieces of translated work na kub. You read it and edit language. I want to see your ability to edit language from Google. After that, we will learn how to edit correct the English language. So, you make a draft first.*

06 **Ss** <starting to write in Thai>

07 **Navin** We have half an hour. So, at least I want (you) to finish the Thai version at the end of the class. So, in half an hour you should finish the Thai version of the presentation. And the English version will be your homework. ...

52'04" to 58'57", (COB, 01/11/16)

As shown in this extract, in turn 01, Navin used the word English 'hello' to call the students' attention. In turn 03, he reported what they had completed in the first procedure. Navin then asked the students to ensure that they fully understood the two concepts because they had to apply them in the following task. However, in turn 04, there were no responses from the students, but signs of stress were visible (according to notes in RRJ). In turn 05, Navin used intersentential code-switching to reassure them: "**No problem na krub.** ... *I allowed you to write content in Thai...*" In this case, Navin changed the language to complete the task from English to Thai, perhaps to minimise students' anxiety. After offering a clear Thai explanation, in turn 07, he used only English to reset the directives.

For the second function of lecturer talk, the next findings present the use of CS and TL in organising lessons and students. The next section is a grey area of linguistic performance where there are blurred distinctions between CS and TL.

5.3.2 Organising

According to lecturer talk data CS and TL had developed primarily three functions in organising: to give directives, review lessons, and preview lessons.

5.3.2.1 Giving Directives

The majority of directives, both individual and in series, were given in English. Data suggested that there were two types of directives: unplanned and planned.

Regarding spontaneous directives, these usually occurred when the lecturers commanded the students to do a specific act instantaneously. For instance, Bodin asked them to select an information sheet for reading.

Extract 7

- 01 **Bodin** **One piece** <showing handouts in hands>
02 **Phupa** <reluctant to take it>
03 **Bodin** **One piece** <waving handouts and looking at Phupa>
04 **Phupa** One piece <one handout was taken.>
05 **Bodin** <visiting another group> **One. Choose one. Choose one.** ...*You choose one. Choose one.*
06 **Hana** <taking one handout>
07 **Bodin** OK.

117'24" to 117'53", (COB, 26/09/16)

In turns 01 and 03, Bodin used and repeated a short directive very quickly. He used simple English so that the students could react straightaway. In turn 05, he used tag-switching for interaction with the students outside an academic area: “**Choose one. You choose one.**” Non-verbal communication such as gestures and eye contact were also employed. However, there was no written form, as it was an unplanned directive. So, in this event, listening skills were required to gain an understanding of the directives. In turns 04 and 06, the students could react to the directives. So, CS seemed to play a part rather than TL because this event was not associated with the academic content.

Concerning the planned directives, Navin prepared some tasks for the students. Afterwards, he had set English directives on the slides to require the students to follow them to complete such tasks. For example, he displayed the series of directives on the slides and read it out loud.

Extract 8

01 **Navin** **Direction.** <emphasising the word on the slide to call attention>
Form group of eight, nine members. <showing fingers of eight and
nine> Then, study the principle of either Kantian Ethics or Mill
Utilitarianism. **Direction.** *Form group of eight, nine members.
Then, study the principle of either Kantian Ethics or Mill
Utilitarianism.* Apply one to the situation of Jean Valjean to
explain that stealing food of the rich to feed the hunger is not wrong
and morally the right thing to do. *Apply one to the situation of Jean
Valjean to explain that stealing food of the rich to feed the hunger
is not wrong and morally the right thing to do.* **Presentation.**
<again, emphasising the word on the slide to call attention> This is
the way you are supposed (to) write your explanation in English
with the help of online translator. It should be half of four A page
long. **Presentation.** *This is the way you are supposed to write your
explanation in English for a half of A four page long. You can use
an online translator to help you.*

02 **Ss** <listening to directives while reading on screen>

30'50" to 32'14", (COB, 01/11/16)

From the directives above, it seemed that Navin deployed intersentential code-switching to give directives: "Form group of eight, nine members... *Form group of eight, nine members...*" Hence, CS appeared to be moving from socialising to organising classroom tasks. TL seemed to get involved in this event because the multimodality was also used to facilitate an understanding. So, planned directives move more closely to TL. The students had a chance to listen to both English and Thai and read directives in English simultaneously.

5.3.2.2 *Reviewing Lesson*

In another lesson, English and Thai were used in reviewing the lesson. The previous week, Bodin had provided reading material in English to the class, and he had already explained the content of this material in Thai. Hence, now he reviewed that

lesson through interactive English online quiz games. He displayed questions/alternatives in English on screens for twenty seconds. Later, the students used digital devices to answer the questions. CS also took place in his classroom interaction. Figure 5.3 and Extract 9 are presented below.

Extract 9

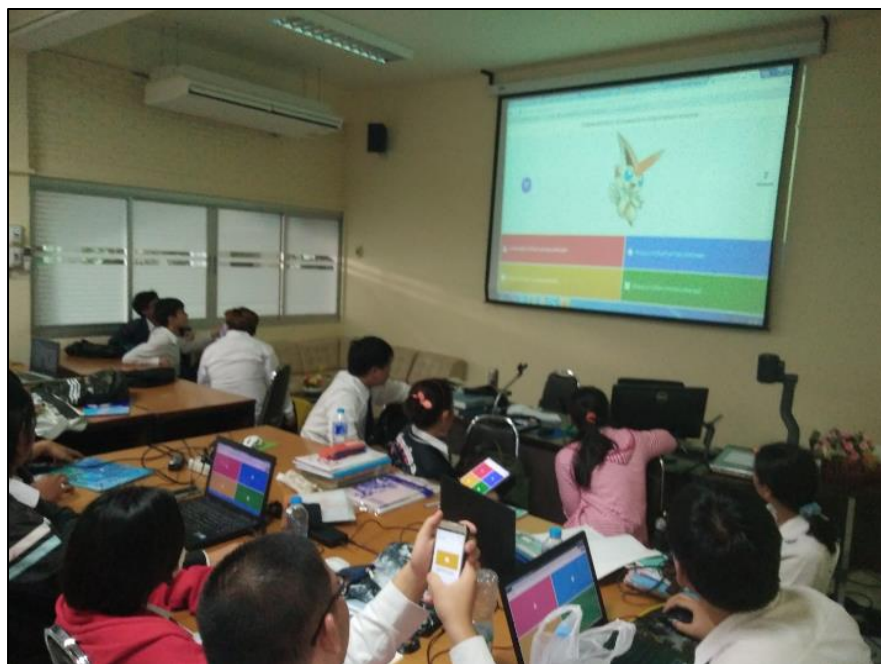


Figure 5.3: English interactive online quiz game

- 01 **Bodin** How to developing research problems? (This one) select a broad area (then) narrow topic to focus inquiry. Yeah? *Who took the first choice? Which group?* {laughter}
- 02 **Ss** (xxx)
- 03 **Bodin** (The answer is) experience fieldwork social issue theory idea from external source research problem. ... *It's the place where we can find* research problem.
- 04 **Ss** <celebrating>
- 05 **Bodin** OK. *Two groups gave the correct answers.* Good. Thursday *still leads the groups.* OK. Next.

12'53" to 13'32", (COB, 26/09/16)

English and Thai had different functions in this reviewing lesson. That is, English was mainly deployed for a review of the content, while Thai was primarily used for interactions. In turn 01, Bodin used intrasentential code-switching to interact with

the students: "...select a broad area (then) narrow topic to focus inquiry. ...*Who took the first choice?*" Extract 9 above showed that the games assisted the students to recall prior knowledge to answer the questions. Likewise, the students could have used collaborative learning strategies with peers, as although they actively participated in the interactive game in English, the students still lacked interaction with the lecturer (RRJ).

Taking Navin's lesson as another example, before this class, he had introduced an English film *Les Misérables* played in English to the students to watch outside the classroom. So, the students received input content in English. Today, Navin used entirely Thai to retell a noteworthy scene in the film, as in Extract 10.

Extract 10

01 **Navin** ... *The main character, Jean Valjean, was sentenced to prison for nine years because he stole a piece of bread for five people who fainted with hunger. On that day, he had no food so that he was hungry as well as his family. He decided to steal a piece of bread from a bakery for survival. He thought that law was not fair for him. Impartiality was wrong, society was wrong, law was wrong. This was our previous topic. Right?*

02 **Ss** <nodding>

06'05" to 08'59", (COB, 01/11/16)

TL seemed to be occurring in this event because Navin first used the film in English as input material. The extract above showed that he retold the main scene in Thai for the students to have a clear-cut understanding before matching the story with relevant theories. No evidence was found for classroom interactions between the lecturer and student; however, the students nodded in silent agreement (RRJ). Data suggests that the students' comprehension of the previous lesson had yet to develop; thus, the Thai language played the leading role in this reviewing lesson.

The next findings of lecturer practices and talk are concerned with a previewing lesson with different genres.

5.3.2.3 Previewing Lesson

All lecturers previewed their lessons by describing the structure of that day's lesson. Amara applied CS and TL techniques to preview the input material (A research article in English) into the class. Prior to using the material, Amara paid attention to key components of the article, as demonstrated in this extract.

Extract 11

01 **Amara** <looking and reading article on her hand> *A full name of this article is **What do we mean by Library Leadership?** And it has sub-title **Leadership in LIS education.** So, I bring only the key content about Leadership in LIS education na ka. ... If we scan roughly, this article has important issues for how many? // **It talks about transformation leadership.** ... **Quality of library leaders** ... *quality of leader* in LIS education.*

04'51" to 05'33", (COB, 10/11/16)

This extract shows that Amara used Thai and English to inform the students about both main and sub-title of the article. Basically, she read information indicated in the article. She deployed Thai when she stressed her focus and repeated English information. She also advised the students on the main theme, content and author of the article. By doing so, evidence of CS practice occurred. The instance of her Intrasentential code-switching was: "*A full name of this article is **What do we mean by Library Leadership?***" Amara explained a reading technique to the students, as well as locating the main content in the article. It seemed that TL also played a part in Extract 11 because she introduced English teaching material in a mixture of Thai and English for the students to understand. The occurrence of English in her talk was derived from the written material. TL seemed to be involved because this linguistic performance aimed to construct an understanding related to the content. The majority of lecturers would use TL as a pedagogy to preview lesson, for they deployed one language to preview content that was in another language.

A clear example of this was in Derek's lesson. Derek mainly used Thai to introduce some content in an English documentary on Singapore's modernisation and labour

shortage. Later, he previewed a task to the students in Thai. Evidence of this could be seen below.

Extract 12

01 **Derek** *Today, we have a video to // watch and find out the fact. How many times does // Singapore // **rebuild or renew country?** // Until now building construction is still underway. The most important thing is its / in need of labourers. Right? Singapore has a population of four million /, but they don't have labour //. So, labour is imported from abroad /. This is a video for you, so please try to listen to it. Today, the warm-up task is English listening.*

02 **Ss** <surprised> **Listening?**

03 **Derek** *Yes, // you have to listen to English just for one round. {laughter} The next class, teaching materials will be in Thai. For this round, more English should be integrated because English should be used for twenty-five percent. {laughter}*

04'50" to 05'54", (COB, 01/11/16)

Although there was no socialising, the use of CS appeared in this event because in turn 01, Derek switched languages to preview the English input material. Evidence of intrasentential code-switching occurred: “*How many times does // Singapore // **rebuild or renew country?***” Derek previewed his lesson by setting an information extraction task for the students to find an answer while watching, and also pinpointed the focus point in the documentary. In turn 03, he directly informed them about the first task for today's lesson. It seemed that TL occurred in this incident. This was because an introduction of the input material was in Thai, and the input was in English.

5.3.3 Instructing about Language

As can be seen from lecturer talk data, TL seemed to play the leading role in the instruction of language. All lecturers utilised both Thai and English to provide meanings of academic English words, while presenting new knowledge.

5.3.3.1 Giving Meanings of Content-compatible Words

Amara's class did not go smoothly because her students did not understand the academic word 'respondent' in the article. Hence, she stopped her content instruction for a little while to give a direct meaning of the word through the use of CS and TL and an online dictionary, as demonstrated in this extract.

Extract 13



Figure 5.4: Meanings of the word in online dictionary

- 01 **Amara** ... **Respondent** is, who? /// Respondent. *Who is* respondent?
02 **Ss** {silent}
03 **Amara** <consulting with an online dictionary and showing meanings on the website> *The first noun. A person* who responds or **makes reply.**
04 **Rita** *Respondent*
05 **Amara** *Aha! Respondent.*

23'14" to 23'31", (COB, 10/11/16)

As in turn 01, Amara deployed CS to initiate a request for a response from the students. Nevertheless, turn 02 showed that they had no willingness to contribute verbal responses to these questions. In turn 03, Amara decided to consult an online monolingual English dictionary to show a written meaning on the screen, and she then read it out loud with an emphasis on the word 'person' to cue the students (see

the meaning in the box). Thus, evidence of intersentential code-switching and elements of TL occurred: *<showing meanings on the website> “The first noun. A person who responds or makes reply.”* Subsequently, in turn 04, Rita, a female student responded to the written and oral English meaning with a Thai equivalent. In turn 05, Amara promptly echoed Rita’s response to confirm it, so that all the students could hear.

5.3.3.2 Giving meanings of Content-obligatory Words

It was a serious challenge when the students did not understand content-obligatory words in input materials because such words carried academic meaning. Therefore, the majority of the lecturers could not proceed to instruct in-depth content knowledge. To manage this challenge, they deployed TL to give meanings to this type of word.

The case above involved a short CS while giving the meanings of significant words. In contrast, the following case used more complex TL to give meanings of the content-obligatory word. Prior to proceeding to instruct profound knowledge, Jarad displayed the definitions of an English word ‘public’ on the screen, and he then verbally provided meanings in Thai to the students, as seen in Figure 5.5 and Extract 14 on the next page.

Sources	Definitions
Cambridge English Dictionary	Involving people in general, rather than being limited to a particular group of people
Macmillan Dictionary	Owned by the government, not by a private company
Oxford Dictionaries	Concerning the people as a whole

Figure 5.5: Definition of content-obligatory word (slide)

01 **Jarad** *The word ‘public’ is taken from dictionary of Cambridge. Public is about for all people not for specific groups. Macmillan dictionary said public is the government’s duty and responsibility. Public is not belonging to the private sectors but the government. Oxford dictionary said public is whatever project we have and no matter who run it, the vast majority of people gain advantages of it. ...*

02 **Ss** <taking notes>

08’10” to 11’12”, (COB, 26/10/16)

As shown above, Jarad explained the meanings of ‘public’ in Thai. Hence, evidence of tag-switching arose: “*The word ‘public’ is taken from...*” In doing so, the students had opportunities to read the English meanings while listening to verbal meanings in Thai. The students took notes immediately after hearing an explanation in Thai (RRJ). In this case, there appeared to be more note-taking activities when the explanation of words was given in Thai rather than in English (RRJ). Data suggest that there were strong elements of TL - both the lecturer and the students were working bilingually to co-construct meaning. Indeed, TL catered to the needs of low-level students to access the English word to gain an understanding of input academic content, as it offered Thai explanations to them. Furthermore, TL in this

case also offered exposure to the academic English language in written forms to the students.

5.3.4 Instructing Content

5.3.4.1 Presenting New Knowledge

The most use of TL occurred when the lecturers were instructing content. The lecturers mostly used Thai to present new knowledge accompanied by English PowerPoint Presentation. Looking at Jarad's lesson, he displayed components of a good public policy through the acronym 'CARE'. Each capital letter had its own meaning, as shown in this extract.

Extract 15

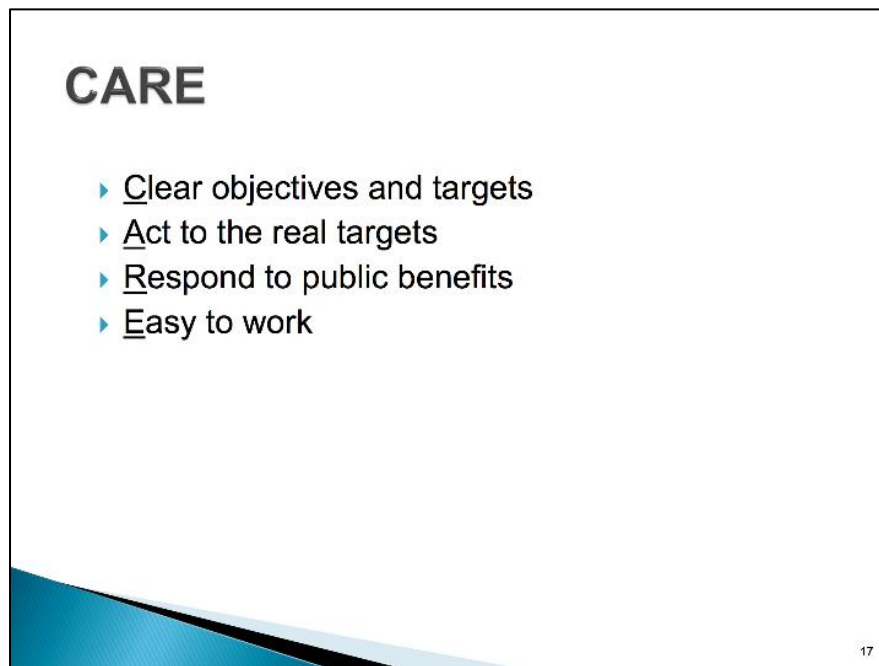


Figure 5.6: New knowledge presentation slides

- 01 **Jarad** *A good public policy must // <pointing to the acronym>*
02 **Mata** **CARE]**
03 **Jarad** **CARE]** *It must CARE. CARE means what? Meaning? ... CARE means what? <touching the left side of his chest (heart)> CARE*
04 **Ss** {in chorus} *Care.*

05 **Jarad** *Care. Right? ... So, the good public policy must have clear objectives and targets. So, having clear objectives and targets, C. It must bring to practice according to its target. Practicable. Act, A. R response to the public, meaning that responds to public benefits. Responds to public benefits, R. And the last one is E easy to work. Easy to work, E. CARE. Right? ... This is the public policy what we want.*

48'45" to 51'57", (COB, 26/10/16)

In turn 01, Jarad initiated the topic in Thai. In turn 02, the student recognised the learning topics shown on the slide. In turn 03, Jarad elicited background knowledge of the English word 'CARE' from the students. He also used gestures to make meaning of care through touching the left side of his chest (heart); he used this gesture to represent care (RRJ). In turn 04, the students literally responded in Thai. In turn 05, Jarad repeated the students' answer to confirm the response. He also read some content in English on the slide aloud, and then he explained each bullet point, mainly through Thai. As he clarified and exemplified content in Thai, the students seemed to obtain a better understanding (RRJ).

When new knowledge was presented, all lecturers progressed to fulfil the students' underdeveloped knowledge/experiences through various practices. The following section demonstrates how the lecturers used TL to bridge the gap between the students' prior and new knowledge.

5.3.4.2 Bridging the Gap between Students' Prior and New Knowledge

According to classroom observation data, bridging the gap between students' previous and new knowledge occurred since all lecturers had to ensure that the students developed an understanding of academic knowledge before performing the output of learning in classroom tasks (RRJ).

Navin assigned one task to the students to complete that required the students to produce their understanding through an English written form. To form the content, Navin and his students discussed academic content using Thai to bridge the students' prior and new knowledge. Prior knowledge was devised from an English

film, *Les Miserables*, and reasons to steal food. New knowledge was extended through the reading on ethical theories Utilitarianism and Kantian Ethics. Materials were in two languages (English and Thai). The students could read either of them—whichever they preferred but Thai materials were selected by all groups (RRJ). Navin made sure that the students could link stealing food to sound ethical principles, as shown in the following extract.

Extract 16

- 01 **Navin** *From your understanding, what's utilitarianism?*
- 02 **Jan** *If Kant is interested in methods of getting bread, it is illegal because the main actor stole. Right?*
- 03 **Navin** *You don't need to talk about Kant because your selection is Utilitarianism.*
- 04 **Rome** *He is interested in the result other than the method.*
- 05 **Navin** *OK. Answer me, why is stealing right?*
- 06 **Rome** *He said that if people have to decide between two different options to do the worst way, make sure that they select one causing the least suffering. That is not wrong.*
- 07 **Navin** *What? But the bakery owner loses his bread.*
- 08 **Sam** *He lost it, but he still survives. The children will die if they don't have food.*
- 09 **Navin** *... OK. Every action will have happiness or suffering. However, we must evaluate the pros and cons—that is the principle of Utilitarianism. Should decide to do an action that creates more pros than cons.*

39'41" to 45'21", (COB, 01/11/16)

From these interactions, TL was in the large proportion of the Thai language due to abstract and complex subjects being discussed. Navin asked a question to start a discussion to promote enhancement in students' knowledge. The students exchanged answers with Navin, and he then monitored and evaluated their answers alongside. Data suggested that one correct answer derived from one student seemed to be useful to other students because they could learn from it. In the end, Navin summarised new knowledge for the students. Compared to the previous findings,

this type of TL seemed not to provide room for the students to practise English skills or expose them to English, but from the data in the interactions above, it was apparent that a deep understanding of content was facilitated (RRJ). When the students seemed to have gained some accurate knowledge and extended their current knowledge, Navin then directed them to write a conclusion of a group discussion in English (RRJ).

Thus, the students used writing as a productive skill to form the output of learning in order to demonstrate their enhanced understanding. The next section presents how the lecturers checked their students' learning output.

5.3.4.3 Checking Students' Understandings of New Knowledge

In all the cases, the lecturers evaluated their students' understanding of new knowledge through evidence of the output of learning. As Tanya's lesson, the students produced written learning objectives in Thai, and their written work was on a screen. Tanya then deployed TL to evaluate the end product of learning, as in this extract.

Extract 17

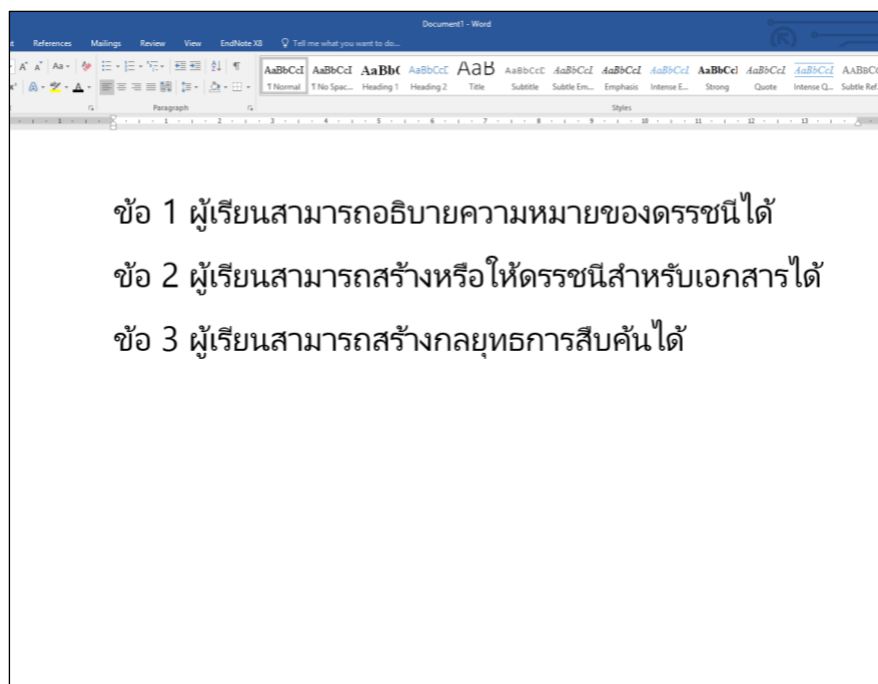


Figure 5.7: Students' output learning in Thai

- 01 **Tanya** The first objective, they say <reading Thai on screen> *Learners can explain* ///// Learners can **explain** the definition of indexing. Next, the learners can **build** or give indexing for any documents.
...
- 02 **Ss** <reading Thai on the screen, while listening to English>
- 03 **Tanya** ... The third one, learner can **choose** indexing tools. Umm /// *Explain. OK. The third one, search technique, and strategies. {laughter} OK. Learner can set the searching strategy, right ka? ///// Learner can set the searching strategy. That's right.*
- 04 **Ss** *Yes*

74'44" to 77'15", (COB, 07/10/16)

What stands out in this lecturer talk is the dominance of TL. In turn 01, Tanya read aloud the output of learning in Thai, and she immediately presented Thai content in English. Data suggested that she accepted the first two objectives because no critiques were raised. In turn 03, when it came to the third one, she returned to read an original content in Thai to reconstruct new content for the students. After a long pause, Tanya then reproduced that new objective in English to replace the Thai version.

5.3.4.4 Repairing Students' Misunderstanding

TL played a significant role in repairing students' misapprehension of new knowledge. Considering Derek's lesson as a case, he realised that the students were unable to demonstrate an understanding of a crucial content from the English documentary about Singapore because they seemed to use their interpretations more rather than facts given in the documentary. Hence, Derek stepped in to repair the students' comprehension through TL, as in this extract.

Extract 18



Figure 5.8: Some parts of English documentary

01 **Derek** *In 1960, the government launched the policy to // renew their country. Right? They moved people to live in small flats and tall flats. Now they have no land to build new flats. So, they have to remove cemeteries and use that land. Chinese Singaporeans // never remove the cemetery because this will affect the prosperity of their families such as the way of life and happiness. That's why you can hear the word '**prosperity**' and '**prosperity for all**' every time. This policy is changing their life so that people in the video disagree with this policy, and they need to protest against the government's decision.*

02 **Ss** <listening and taking notes>

49'12" to 50'46", (COB, 01/11/16)

As evident, TL scaffolded the students to re-make sense of English content in the documentary. What Derek did in Thai was that he concisely recapitulated the main content in the chronological order. He re-introduced events through the timeline in the documentary into the class to learn the sequence of important events. He also used Thai to explain the English keyword 'prosperity', and then he recycled and emphasised such word from the documentary. There was no lecturer-student interaction involved this episode because the students paid attention to Derek's talk and took notes (RRJ).

5.3.5 Section Summary

In summary, these findings show that lecturer talk embraced CS and TL. There were four functions of linguistic performance: socialising, organising, instructing about language, and instructing content. As apparent, CS played a leading role in socialising. Although there were blurred distinctions between the CS and TL in some events, it appeared that the lecturers used CS for organising and instructing about language. CS was used to manage lessons and the students, while TL was implemented in teaching the English language to access the content. Beyond CS, TL had a focal area in instructing content. Overall, the data suggest that practices with the English-only implementation were problematic (the Language Pillar's expectation) due to lack of success in making the meaning clear. The lecturers decided to integrate English in the Language Pillar with Thai in Gear One to promote the students' understanding of academic content.

Findings from the classroom observation showed code-switching and translanguaging were used for different purposes along a continuum. CS was first naturally initiated for socialising, mostly at the beginning, during classroom tasks, and ending the lessons, TL was used for teaching purposes in classrooms to facilitate the students' understanding of the content. Moreover, the practices of the two were also different in this study: CS practices emphasised Thai and English in one unit (tag-switching, intrasentential code-switching, and intersentential code-switching), and CS as social functions focused on switching languages orally without the use of teaching materials. However, TL practices promoted the use of available linguistic resources without language boundary. TL as pedagogical functions concentrated on the use of multimodalities (e.g., PowerPoint Presentation, documentary and film). More importantly, TL had its own space where input and output were in different languages. For example, input was English, but output was in Thai. Although the two linguistic performances are dissimilar, they were able to flow from one to another - CS moving towards TL. On the fluidity of these linguistic performances, there was a grey area in transition between CS and TL, and as a result, there were blurred distinctions between the two on some occasions.

The next section of the findings is concerned with reflective practice. All lecturers reflected their actual practices to examine the critical factors impacting on their

practices, outcomes of their practices, and some possibilities to improve EMI lessons in the future.

5.4 Lecturers' Reflections on Language Practice

With regard to the fourth research question, concerning issues emerging from the lecturers' post hoc reflections on language practice, this section presents the views of lecturers on the key factors that influence their EMI practices. All the findings in this section are derived from the stimulated recall interviews, focus group discussions, and written teaching reports. These data gathering activities were conducted after lecturers had taught. Section 5.4.1 presents policy factors impacting a radical shift in instruction and the quality of instruction. Section 5.4.2 presents local infrastructural factors and student factors causing the unpleasant lecturer practices. Section 5.4.3 presents personal factors influencing the lecturers' linguistic performances when instructing academic content.

5.4.1 Policy Factors

This section presents the main factors and reasons for changes in the lecturers' instruction. It also provides an adequate explanation for uncertainty about the quality of new instruction.

5.4.1.1 A Shift in Instruction

A common view amongst the lecturers was that the Language Pillar and the Gear One shifted their content instruction. In the shift, stimulated recall interview (SRI) data confirmed that there was a conflict in practice between these two mechanisms. The policy of Gear One allowed the lecturers to use English less than Thai, while the Language Pillar, as a pedagogical guideline, implied the use of more English than Thai. Subsequent practices confirmed that these mechanisms involved a radical shift in instruction. One lecturer reflected that, "*the reality of the context EMI made us step outside our comfort zone to experience a new instructional sphere*" (Tanya, SRI). Data from SRIs also indicated that to implement new pedagogical knowledge successfully, the Language Pillar should be contextualised to the faculty context (Amara, Jarad, & Derek, SRIs). Otherwise, the lecturers had

to face the realisation that all attempts and efforts at the practices were doomed to failure. Derek (SRI) had witnessed his colleagues' unsuccessful practices in the field and commented that:

My colleague experienced failure in English Medium Instruction. She said that it didn't work because she did it very quickly after finishing the workshop. I thought it was impossible to follow such policy implementation [the Gear One and the Language Pillar] without considering reality in the context before doing it.

The possible explanation for this event was that the lecturers were “*immediately assigned to implement EMI without carefully and systematically mapping this newly-acquired knowledge onto the context*” (Bodin, SRI). All lecturers reflected that they had not yet been constructively introduced to the Gear One by the policy-makers. Thus, they had “*rough ideas of integrating the Language Pillar as the new pedagogical knowledge and the Gear One as the in-house innovation*” (Amara, SRI). Concerning actual existing practices, one lecturer reflected that, “[*o*]ur instruction came from our imaginations” (Navin, SRI). That is, the lecturers had to improvise with what they understood about the two mechanisms. Moreover, many lecturers revealed that their first attempt was an experiment on utilising these mechanisms. One lecturer reported that, “*my first lesson turned out to be my experiment because I wasn't sure what to do and what not to do to suit my context*” (Bodin, SRI).

5.4.1.2 Uncertainty about the Quality of New Instruction

When the lecturers reflected on the quality of their new instruction, the majority commented that academic content was watered down. Basically, input in written materials such as textbooks, research articles, and academic articles contained unfamiliar English terminologies, complex structures and particular generic structures (Amara & Tanya, SRIs). Hence, all lecturers were afraid that their lessons would not achieve the curriculum goal. To make academic content more accessible, one lecturer reflected that to meet the students' current English proficiency, “*I*

simplified academic English used in the input materials to simple English” (Amara, SRI). So, *“they could benefit most from the material”* (Derek, SRI). However, when they still could not gain knowledge from simplified materials, another lecturer said that, *“I deleted hard texts that used complex words”* (Tanya, FGD).

SRI data showed that the lecturers not only simplified the written materials but also simplified their lecturer talk while instructing content. Amara (SRI) explained her practice:

At that moment, I used everyday English, talked about only the surface concepts without in-depth and detailed explanation because the first-year students couldn't handle a long and difficult English text.

It seems that Amara adjusted degrees of difficulty of input content by using non-academic English. She also taught key concepts without giving an in-depth explanation. SRI data indicated that these incidents illustrated common practices in this context. To make the concept easy to understand, Tanya explained, *“I used simple words and sentences to explain the key concept to the students”* (SRI). Navin (SRI) agreed that this method aided the students in accessing English content. With regard to content output, Focus Group Discussion (FGD) data highlighted that the quality of students' written output was the major challenge. Some lecturers revealed that the application of Language Pillar EMI did not enable the students to produce written work to meet the curriculum standard. As one lecturer commented, *“I expected the students to produce one research project, but they ended up with a research proposal instead”* (Bodin, FGD). Once the output learning went below the curriculum standard, the lecturers were reluctant to assess the students' work. FGD data captured that:

- 01 **Amara** ... [T]heir poor quality of writing affected content so that I didn't know how to give marks. So, I decided not to do so, for I was afraid they would get low marks and fail.
- 02 **Tanya** Now and then I couldn't assess students' work. I only gave comments.
- 03 **Bodin** Yes, we were in the same boat.

In this case, these lecturers raised concerns regarding the effectiveness of the new instructional approach. One lecturer said, *“I’m not sure how successful my class is”* (Bodin, FGD). FGD data also reported that the lecturers showed their intention to reconsider the use of EMI again in next semester under the same mechanisms. Amara and Bodin agreed on Tanya’s statement that *“we wouldn’t implement EMI again—unless we have found a good practice”* (Tanya, FGD).

SRI and WTR (Written Teaching Report) data indicated that in order to continue to implement EMI, all lecturers were in need of the Language Pillar and Gear One integration and adjustment (Navin & Tanya, SRIs; Jarad, Derek, Bodin, & Amara, SRIs, WTRs). They strongly suggested that the faculty should offer in-house professional development programmes to enhance the quality of instruction.

The following sections report research findings on other key factors influencing the lecturers’ practices.

5.4.1.3 Local Infrastructural Factors and Student Factors

This section presents insightful information about unplanned classroom infrastructure that limited the lecturers’ EMI practices. This section also sheds light on students’ lack of English proficiency that directly impacted on the efficacy of EMI.

Unplanned Classroom Infrastructure

Data from SRIs and WTRs revealed that classroom infrastructure was a critical factor that impacted on lecturers’ practices. The majority of the lecturers agreed that the classrooms available had been ineffective in encouraging lecturers to provide multimodalities via on/offline networks that could help to support instruction and understanding of content. This aspect was confirmed by FGD as illustrated below.

01 **Amara** ... *the classroom didn’t facilitate instruction because classrooms have poor infrastructure.*

02 **Tanya** *Right. My class went wrong when the Internet disconnected.*

- 03 **Bodin** *Also, I couldn't rearrange classroom seating and learning space because of long and heavy tables.*
- 04 **Amara** *Apart from that, our class was quite large. There were almost fifty students.*
- 05 **Tanya** *Well, the number of students really influenced classroom management.*
- 06 **Bodin** *So, the class size and infrastructure need to be changed to meet CLIL standard.*
- 07 **Tanya** *I agree.*

Poor infrastructure had influenced the way the lecturers practised in classrooms. For example, Jarad could not actively use a wide variety of linguistic resources in the online world to make sense of his instruction (SRI). He said, *"I couldn't open online dictionary websites and supplementary materials to explain my lesson"* (SRI). Thus, data suggested that existing classroom infrastructure obstructed his effective instruction and EMI implementation. Class size was also a significant concern in EMI practices. One lecturer reflected, *"it's impossible to have interaction with all students. I only had individual interaction with some students sitting in the front"* (Jarad, SRI). These concerns prevented lecturers from monitoring students' learning and understanding. Another one lecturer reflected that: *"due to many students, I couldn't visit all groups to facilitate and check their learning"* (Navin, SRI).

In relation to dealing with these existing challenges, one lecturer said that, *"at that moment, I did what I could under the limit"* (Bodin, SRI). One lecturer suggested that: *"some lessons needed to be modified to match with available classrooms"* (Amara, WTR). All lecturers reflected that to gain the maximum benefit and long-term positive effects from instruction, the faculty should carefully consider classroom facilities and size (WTRs). The primary data that formed the new layout of ideal classroom was derived from SRIs and FGD. All lecturers initially gained these ideas from OverseasU. As one lecturer noted, *"our EMI classrooms should be like the one in the training school"* (Derek, SRI). Bodin clearly explained that, *"our classroom should be small in size but was well equipped. Besides, we should*

have hi-speed Internet, learning space, moveable desks and chairs, and whiteboards on the walls” (FGD).

As all lecturers perceived, although good classroom infrastructure was an external factor, it was the essential ingredient for EMI implementation. Moreover, all lecturers agreed that students’ lack of English proficiency significantly impacted on their practices.

Students’ Lack of English Proficiency

In the data from SRIs, FGDs, and WTRs, all lecturers raised concerns about the students’ limited English proficiency to study content in English. As one lecturer noted, *“their English competence was the main struggle in the instructional process”* (Jarad, WTR). Although some students had an intellectual ability to understand complex knowledge, they lacked both everyday and academic English skills to access content (Jarad, SRI; Bodin, WTR). Derek gave details, *“in my lesson, I noticed that some top students were good at learning academic content in Thai, but when it turned to English, they stared at me with a blank expression on their face”* (SRI). Some students knew everyday English, but they lacked academic English to understand deep knowledge so that they could not formulate ideas to demonstrate profound insights (Tanya, SRI). She reflected, *“some students in my class were good at spoken English, but they couldn’t produce a sound understanding of academic content”* (Tanya, SRI). Therefore, many students did not respond correctly to questions in class (Amara, Tanya, Jarad, Navin, & Bodin, SRIs). One lecturer said, *“I was very happy to hear some of my students spoke English with me in class”* (Navin, SRI), while another commented, *“[but] I was so disappointed when they gave me incorrect answers that I had recently just taught”* (Bodin, SRI).

Consequently, SRI data suggested that all lecturers concurred with the suggestion that all students needed to have sufficient English proficiency to gain knowledge and understanding. The suggestion above was given since the majority of lecturers revealed that, *“the students had mixed abilities of English”* (Jarad, Bodin, & Navin, SRI; Amara, Tanya, & Bodin, FGD), which made it difficult to conduct lessons in

English for a wide range of English skills. Thus, “*EMI is suitable for the students who have the same levels of English competency*” (Tanya, FGD). In the faculty, some students went abroad for a while so that they could speak English fluently (Bodin, SRI; Amara, FGD), yet, others could not speak English. Navin (SRI) emphasised this point:

I couldn't use as much English as I wished since the students in my class had different English backgrounds. It was apparent that some were fluent in English; but that some had never spoken English in their life.

This comment clearly indicates that a mixed-ability class caused some difficulties in EMI lessons. Some lecturers reflected that weak students felt bored when they were not on the same page, while competent students also felt bored when the lecturers slowed the lesson down for the weak ones (Amara, FGD; Jarad, WTR). All lecturers agreed with the statement that insufficient and mixed abilities of English delimited the use of English of the lecturers in EMI lessons.

The next findings are concerned with reflection on personal factors that influenced the lecturers' practices. The key factors are discussed in detail below.

5.4.2 Personal Factors

This section presents the lecturers' personal factors that impacted greatly on their losing and gaining confidence in EMI. This section also presents the lecturers' main reasons to deploy code-switching and translanguaging in the classrooms observed.

5.4.2.1 Losing and Gaining Confidence in English Medium Instruction

Losing Confidence in Their own English

SRI data reported that some lecturers lost confidence in using English in academic settings. A common reason given was that they viewed themselves as non-native speakers of English. As a result, some lecturers believed that their English abilities were insufficient for teaching in academic modes. As one lecturer wrote in his Written Teaching Report, “*my English oral skills couldn't suit academic instruction*

as much as communication” (Bodin, WTR). Bodin (SRI) reflected on what he did in his class:

At that moment, I couldn't speak English accurately and fluently. I couldn't form English sentences to make things clearer. So, I was afraid that my English would cause misunderstanding.

The majority of lecturers agreed that their academic English was inadequate for instruction. Hence, on some occasions, they deployed everyday English to instruct academic content. Some lecturers reflected that it was not necessary to use academic English every time. One lecturer said, *“I blended together everyday English with academic English”* (Jarad, SRI) to promote the students’ understanding. However, there was no guarantee of success, as *“only forty percent of the students understood my instruction”* (Amara, FGD).

SRI data revealed that although Navin and Jarad had confidence in their capability to use EMI, they made their own choice not to use English. Jarad (SRI) said, *“I had no problems with using English to deliver content.”* However, Navin, (SRI) felt that, *“my English is good. I can decide when I should use English. I can use English all the time, but it's impossible for students.”*

Instructing about Language to Access Academic Content

SRI data reported that the lecturers positioned themselves differently to the Language Pillar based on their abilities and preference. Some lecturers reflected that content instruction and English instruction were their roles. Navin considered that he was able to be a good English model, and he put grammatical aspects before content knowledge. He said that, *“I placed importance on vocabulary and grammar first, I sometimes avoided instructing content”* (Navin, FGD). He explained that the students could check content on websites by themselves, but they could not correct grammatical errors. Amara (SRI) said:

My role was not only a content lecturer but also an English lecturer. In my class, I taught English vocabulary and

distributed the lists of transitive verbs, adjectives, and nouns.

This explanation indicates that Amara identified herself as both a content and English specialist because she was confident about her English skills. Other lecturers strongly argued that their role was to instruct content, not English (Derek, Bodin, & Tanya, SRIs; Bodin & Tanya, FGD). The reason for this, according to Derek (SRI) was that, *“improving English skills of students is not my responsibility but that of English lecturers.”* Although some lecturers wished to avoid a role as an English lecturer, in some cases, some worked on the students’ English language. Another lecturer commented, *“my purpose at that time was to help him [the male student] when he couldn’t think of any English words”* (Jarad, SRI). Subsequently, this issue was also raised in a focus group discussion. Bodin and Tanya disagreed with Amara on holding a role of an English lecturers. FGD data pinpointed this:

- 01 **Amara** *Did you remember that the CLIL trainers taught us how to teach the English language? I thought we should implement what we learnt to our classes. In my class, I taught both English and academic content.*
- 02 **Bodin** *I remembered that we saw only examples from the trainers where they gave meanings of words, corrected wrong pronunciation, and treated students’ errors. I lack English skills and English language teaching methods to do so. Still, I couldn’t grade their English competency but academic content knowledge.*
- 03 **Tanya** *It is good if we could hold both roles. But, for me, I wasn’t satisfied with my English language skills. ...I’m not good enough to be an English lecturer. Although CLIL expected us to teach English, I thought it was impossible for me to be an English model for speaking for communication.*
- 04 **Bodin** *Right! I was unable to play both roles.*

Due to a lack of English skills and English language methodology, Bodin and Tanya disagreed that they could take the role as the English language lecturer.

Gaining Confidence in EMI When Students had Prior Knowledge

SRI data showed that, despite the general points made above, when the students had prior knowledge, all lecturers gained self-confidence in deploying English as a medium of instruction. One lecturer reflected that, *“I felt confident of instructing academic content in English with my students doing their homework [reading suggested texts]”* (Tanya, SRI). Another one said, *“my EMI class went smoothly because the students had background knowledge of the lesson”* (Derek, SRI). To prepare prior knowledge, most lecturers assigned the students to read input materials in Thai beforehand. As one lecturer noted that, *“I assigned them to read Thai texts before class, so they possibly knew Thai content”* (Bodin, SRI). Another said that, *“the students were welcome to search for Thai texts to support their understanding”* (Jarad, SRI). English vocabulary lists were also provided before class so that *“they would look up the meaning before coming to class”* (Tanya, SRI). One lecturer realised that this method was useful, thus, before the next lesson, she would provide them the reading passage and glossaries (Amara, SRI). She reflected that, *“there was no harm in letting students read Thai or English texts and pre-learn vocabulary lists for the next lesson because they gained knowledge of what I was going to teach in English”* (Amara, SRI). In some critical cases, Jarad, who did not provide the terms beforehand, spent a significant amount of time to clarify key vocabulary items. He reflected that, *“I spent too much time on trying to use the easiest language to explain complicated words”* (SRI).

When the students understood the key terminology, some lecturers reflected that they could employ academic English words without translation (Derek & Bodin, SRIs). One lecturer said, *“I could use English terminology because the students were already acquainted with it”* (Derek, SRI). Bodin (SRI) supported this point:

I didn't translate the English technical terms and keywords such as chronological [order], theme, logic, and background, development of ideas, model, and ontology. These terms could be understood without translation.

As the extract shows, some English technical terms were not translated into Thai because Bodin expected the students to understand them before instruction. In

contrast, one lecturer argued that even though the terminology items were provided beforehand, they should also be explained in class. A reason for this was that, “*it was necessary to explain English terminology through Thai to make sure that the students shared the same understanding*” (Amara, SRI).

In summary, SRI, WRT, and FGD data suggested crucial factors in both decreasing and increasing the lecturers’ self-confidence in EMI implementation. Indeed, confidence in EMI diminished when the lecturers taught English to the students in order to fulfil an obligation arising from the Language Pillar. In an attempt to follow the Language Pillar, the lecturers came to realise that they were unable to instruct about language to due to a lack of pedagogy for English language teaching. More importantly, the Language Pillar caused confusion about what the main role of the lecturers should be—content lecturers or English lecturers. The lecturers’ self-confidence in EMI grew when the students had English skills and prior knowledge of the lessons. However, in reality, the lecturers not only provided content instruction in classrooms, but also had to promote social relationship with the students. The next findings are concerned with code-switching as a linguistic strategy to promote social relationships in the classrooms.

5.4.2.2 Linguistic Performances in Reality

Code-switching as Social Functions

SRI and FGDs revealed that the lecturers deployed code-switching (CS) to socialise with the students outside instructional spheres. As one lecturer said, “*I have frequently switched between English and Thai [and vice versa] in the beginning, while doing tasks, and at the end of the lesson*” (Bodin, FGD). When starting a class, most of the lecturers used CS to promote rapport (Tanya, Bodin, & Jarad, SRIs) to reduce the students’ anxiety before instructing content (Tanya, SRI). One lecturer reflected, “*I used English for making small talk to make the students feel comfortable*” (Tanya, FGD). While doing tasks, the lecturers used CS to praise and reassure the students. One lecturer reflected that, “*I just realised that I used two languages to give compliments to the students*” (Bodin, SRI). When the class came

to an end, the lecturers also used CS to say their farewells. One said, *“I switched two languages at the end of the lesson before we left the room”* (Jarad, SRI).

All lecturers attempted to use English as much as possible because *“English for socialising was not difficult for the students to understand”* (Amara, SRI). Indeed, some lecturers reflected that using English in this area was not problematic. One lecturer gave a reason, *“the students are supposed to get familiar with everyday English used in English classes because English lecturers normally used everyday English to socialise with them”* (Bodin, SRI). Data indicated that if the students did not understand the lecturers’ spoken English while socialising, there was no cause for concern. One lecturer reflected that:

...nothing to worry about if the students couldn’t understand my talk because it wasn’t related to academic content. (Bodin, SRI)

Thus, CS contained a large proportion of everyday English. One lecturer confirmed, *“I recognised that I used English a lot in less important areas”* (Navin, SRI). The lecturers reflected that the students were able to be exposed to English and practise oracy skills in this area. One lecturer explained that everyday English was used in CS. Therefore, *“I wished the students could use their everyday English to communicate in class and bring English in class to real-life situations”* (Bodin, FGD).

The emphasis was very much on switching from English to Thai in socialising. One lecturer reflected that, *“... different languages had different voices, tones, styles, and feelings. For us [including the students], the mother tongue seemed to hit home”* (Derek, SRI). Derek appreciated the use of their mother tongue in socialising because he believed that its use could reduce the psychological and emotional distance between lecturers and students. Tanya, Navin, and Jarad reflected CS could also call the students’ attention (SRIs). As one lecturer said, *“I switched to Thai to draw attention after using English for a while”* (Tanya, SRI). A possible reason for this was the students were suddenly alert when the lecturers switched languages. As Jarad elaborated, *“I noticed that after I kept using the same language for quite a while, they did not actively pay attention to my talk. However, when I switched languages, they turned out to be attentive audiences...”* (Jarad, SRI).

SRI data suggested that most of the lecturers normally planned to use code-switching to fulfil the English requirements of Gear One and expectations of the Language Pillar. One lecturer reflected, “*I designed where and when to use CS beforehand to meet the requirements*” (Amara, SRI). Another added that, “*during my lesson planning, I tried to make short lists of areas to say in Thai and English*” (Bodin, SRI). Another reflected that, “*I used CS carefully because I intended not to interrupt content while switching between English and Thai, and vice versa*” (Navin, SRI). However, data indicated that CS also occurred as an unplanned language practice. One lecturer reflected that, “*although I had a rough plan to switch languages, I couldn’t follow my plan because I encountered unexpected situations*” (Jarad, SRI). In reality, classroom incidents happened rapidly and unexpectedly. Hence, “*switching two languages in my class had to go with the flow*” (Bodin, SRI). As an inevitable product of CS, many lecturers reflected they possibly could not follow both the Gear One and the Language Pillar. Amara and Derek estimated that they “*used eighty percent Thai and twenty percent English*” (SRIs). While Tanya said, “*I used approximately sixty-five percent Thai and thirty-five percent English*” (Tanya, FGD). Jarad accepted that, saying, “*I used not more than twenty-five percent English*” (SRI).

In the development of the students’ understanding of the content, translanguaging was a crucial linguistic performance.

Translanguaging as Pedagogical Functions

SRI data showed that all the lecturers used translanguaging (TL) to negotiate meaning of academic content written in English. One lecturer said, “*we must help the students to ‘get [the] idea’ of new knowledge in another language immediately*” (Navin, SRI). An awareness of using language to facilitate the students’ understanding intensified across the six lecturers. One suggested that, “*...your language of instruction should depend on the students’ background [knowledge and language skills]*” (Derek, SRI). As a result, to achieve the understanding point instantaneously, all lecturers concurred with an integration of the students’ weakest academic language (English), strongest academic language (Thai), and other

linguistic resources (multimodalities) in the community. One lecturer reflected on integrating English and Thai to use as media of instruction in his actual practices.

I had no principle behind the use of English and Thai to instruct this content at that time. The reason for that was I was oblivious to using these languages. So, they came out naturally. (Jarad, SRI)

As indicated above, during instructing content, Jarad spontaneously deployed whatever spoken linguistic resources that were available to make sense of his lesson. Furthermore, most of the lecturers reflected that they deployed language unconsciously during content instruction (SRIs). Tanya said that, “*Oh yeah, I used language without thinking about Thai or English.*” From this data, it was reasonable to infer that the lecturers’ practices by far transcended the boundary between languages that had been specified in the Gear One and Language Pillar. Data suggested that the lecturers found using TL inside instructional spheres was second nature to them. Moreover, there were no fixed formats in using these two languages in instruction (Derek, Jarad, & Tanya, SRIs). One lecturer disclosed that, “*I sometimes started Thai first and then followed by English. And sometimes I used English first then use Thai afterwards. It depends on the moment*” (Tanya, SRI). Taken together, data suggested that TL appeared to be both pre-planned and unplanned language practice. As indicated in the previous section, CS, merged into TL with the use of multi-modal support such as PowerPoint Presentation, handouts, visuals, digital dictionaries. A lecturer reported, “*I displayed English materials first, then read English texts and used Thai to make meaning*” (Amara, WTR). FGD data illustrated how TL worked in academic content classrooms.

- 01 **Bodin** *I used Thai and English interchangeably while presenting new knowledge due to the difficulty of academic content, the degree of English in materials, and students’ English knowledge.*
- 02 **Amara** *For my lecture, I used Thai and English because first-year students never knew the concepts of management at the company. As a result, they understood English content more than ever.*

03 **Tanya** *Well, the students ignored my instruction when I only spoke English and requested them to speak English only. When Thai and English were used, they eagerly participated in instruction. They also actively cooperated in classroom tasks and interaction. This was what I called a successful EMI lesson.*

Lecturers used TL to balance four aspects: content difficulty, a high degree of English language, current students' English proficiency, and students' background knowledge. If they did not balance all aspects, the students would not pay attention to instruction because they could not make meaning of lecturer talk. The students might not find the lesson meaningful to them. With TL, the students could make sense of lecturer talk, and they actively participated in the lesson by working with, and between, the two.

Regarding an advantage of TL in terms of academic language exposures, all lecturers reflected that the students had a good opportunity to learn the content in both English and Thai. One lecturer discovered the key advantage of TL. Amara said, *"although using two languages in instruction was repetitive, it offered the students a chance of listening to content twice to ensure that their understanding was accomplished"* (SRI). As far as Tanya was concerned, TL offered the students the opportunity to acquire the same academic content twice because *"...the students were able to learn both academic languages"* (Tanya, SRI).

Reasons to Use Thai in Input Learning in Translanguaging Practice

According to SRI data, there were three main rationale for the use of the students' first language in input learning. The first reason was to simplify complex ideas. The majority of the lecturers agreed that Thai could clarify difficult concepts (SRIs). Amara, Bodin and Tanya agreed that Thai should be used more than English when presenting complex content (FGD). As one lecturer reflected, *"I used Thai to deliver core academic content because it made things clearer than English"* (Amara, SRI).

Another lecturer confirmed that, “*the students understood content clearly when using simple Thai*” (Jarad, SRI). The second reason was to avoid any misconstruction of complex knowledge. One lecturer frankly said that:

At that moment, I told my students not to read English slides yet because I needed them to pay attention to my lecture in Thai.
(Derek, SRI)

Derek was well aware that academic content on his PowerPoint Presentation would cause his students’ misunderstanding because “*my slides contained complex and abstract concepts in English*” (Derek, SRI). He decided to explain this academic content in Thai. Similarly, other lecturers also used Thai in their input process. One lecturer noted, “*I privately deployed Thai to weak students to re-explain concept [to them]*” (Tanya, SRI). The reason to support this decision was that, “*English would create more convolutions, and I had learnt that EMI without Thai was impossible*” (Derek, SRI). The third reason was to create the flow of teaching and learning. In common, SRI data revealed that all lecturers realised that English delayed the lesson because a great deal of time had been spent on knowledge explanation and task completion. One lecturer reflected that, “*my first class had inefficient use of time in instruction and tasks*” (Derek, SRI). Navin reflected on his practice, saying that, “*I wanted to create the flow of my instruction. I continued using Thai until they [the students] were ready to learn through English lectures*” (SRI). He was aware that his students were not ready to use English for the whole lesson. He carefully assessed the situation that if he decided to use English, the lesson would get stuck. Thus, Navin decided to use Thai, and he would use English in particular events when the students showed readiness.

Reasons to Use Thai in Output Learning in Translanguaging Practice

All lecturers agreed to deploy Thai to facilitate the students’ knowledge production. Although they had learnt from the Language Pillar that, “*using English to produce the students’ output learning seemed to be a good practice*” (Bodin, SRI), when they encountered actual EMI classrooms, they reflected that “*it was problematic*” (Derek, SRI). Taking Navin’s case as an example, “*I assigned the students to write*

answers in English. Surprisingly, there was only one group which completed it. Hence, I allowed other groups to use Thai” (Navin, FGD). The reasons were that, “Thai was convenient for the students” (Navin, SRI); and all lecturers agreed that Thai strongly supported the students in expressing their ideas. Navin (SRI) elaborated:

If the students could form beautiful Thai sentences, they were likely to form good English sentences too. If their Thai sentences were ambiguous and unclear, their English sentences would be incomprehensible. Later, Thai sentences with clear ideas could be translated into English.

As the evidence above showed, when it came to the students’ understanding of knowledge, Navin paid attention to ideas rather than language aspects. It is undeniable that lecturers could check the students’ comprehension from Thai output learning. SRI data showed that all lecturers agreed that allowing the students to convey messages in English would probably differ from what they exactly thought. So, when the students wrote in Thai this helped them understand exactly what the students understood. As a result, lecturers were able to evaluate the students’ comprehension. Some lecturers expected that the students needed to translate Thai output learning into English through translation programmes (SRIs). In doing this, the lecturers believed that the students could also improve their English (SRIs).

5.4.3 Section Summary

In summary, data from lecturers’ reflections on language practice show that there were three focal factors influencing the subject-content lecturers’ actual practices about EMI: policy, local infrastructure and students, and personal. Firstly, policy factors, which introduced the English Language Gears and the Language Pillar, shifted the medium of content instruction from Thai to English. This shift created the lecturers’ uncertainty about the quality of their new instruction due to a lack of contextualisation in weaving the two mechanisms prior to putting them into practice. Teaching English—the essential requirement of the Language Pillar—was of major concern across the content lecturers. Working on content and language

aspects in one lesson was unfeasible for them since they were not English specialists but content specialists. The lecturers shared their confusion about their practices and roles after making attempts to teach English to the students. Thus, it was reasonable to infer that the Language Pillar was impractical. Secondly, local infrastructural and student factors, which obstructed to the lecturers' practice according to what they had learnt. Data indicated that inappropriate classroom infrastructure, large class sizes, and students' insufficient English caused the lecturers' difficulties in implementing EMI. Thirdly, personal factors were associated with personal preferences for linguistic performances in EMI classrooms. Data show that code-switching and translanguaging unexpectedly occurred since these linguistic performances were not mentioned in the mechanisms as suggested language practices for the lecturers. Data also indicated that the lecturers deployed code-switching for social functions, and in addition they employed translanguaging for pedagogical functions.

5.5 Code-switching and Translanguaging in the Observed EMI Classrooms

In the final section, the findings of the study present my reflections on and interpretations of the continuum of code-switching and translanguaging in the classrooms observed. In doing so, I am able to address, with empirical evidence, my own previous understandings related to the interrelationship between code-switching and translanguaging in the observed EMI classroom (see Section 2.6.1.2).

The findings of this study have revealed that EMI is not a matter of the *exclusive* use of English, but rather a matter of dual language instruction in which Thai and English were systematically integrated as a consequence of the adoption of Gear One.

The university's policy allowed the lecturers to use as much as 75 percent of Thai in the classroom but did not provide any guidelines about the use of available linguistic resources of each language. Therefore, the lecturers had to find their own way to balance the two languages. From the overseas CLIL course they had

attended, they learned that classrooms involved social interaction, which therefore required English for both communication and instruction.

The observational data revealed that the lecturers used English and Thai differently, depending on the language functions they intended to achieve. Given the origins of code-switching in bilingual social conversation, it seemed natural that the lecturers would use code-switching in the classroom to facilitate everyday communication with their students. However, when they wished to instruct academic content, there was a shift towards the pedagogic use of translanguaging by the working with multimodalities (e.g., PowerPoint Presentations, handouts, graphs, and other visual, as well as various forms of non-verbal language) to support the students' understanding.

In an effort to meet the Gear One requirement (which most did not achieve), the lecturers frequently code-switched into English to socialise with the students in everyday-life events. In this case, there were incidents of greeting and leave-taking, the use of anecdote and humour, and praising and reassuring students (see Extracts 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6). Hence, code-switching helped to create an English atmosphere, and it offered language exposure from the lecturers' spoken language. English listening skills were required to access basic understanding; however, there was no concern for whether the students fully understood what the lecturers said in English, since these genres were in a non-academic area. The reason for this was that code-switching functioned as social interaction, not as a tool for pedagogic purposes. However, code-switching was also used to organise classroom activities such as previewing and reviewing lessons (see Extracts 9, 11, and 12). Here, more than in the spontaneous social communication, the code-switching was often pre-planned, sometimes by preparing PowerPoint Presentations in English with the intention to explain these in Thai so that the students could understand more detailed information than merely tag and intrasentential code-switching, and thus code-switching shifted towards a continuum with translanguaging.

When the lecturers instructed about the English language, they sometimes used very brief episodes of code-switching (see Extracts 13 and 14), tending to use code-switching intersententially: sometimes spontaneously (see Extract 13) but at times pre-planned, for example, with PowerPoint Presentation examples of English terminology to be explained in Thai (see Extract 14).

Hence, at the borders between linguistic genres – between communication and instruction – code-switching moves towards translanguaging. This is most clearly the case when the lecturers delivered disciplinary knowledge by using multimodal ways to facilitate the students' understanding of the academic content, such as PowerPoint Presentations (see Extract 15), articles (see Extract 16), video documentaries (see Extract 18) and nonverbal language (see Extract 15). In short, translanguaging aimed to construct meanings of complex concepts for the students to access the academic content.

Code-switching tends to be associated with language separation, while translanguaging celebrated and sanctioned flexibility in language practices. Thus, the findings of the EMI classrooms observed in the present study suggest that there was a continuum between code-switching and translanguaging. The lecturers had sophisticated skills in switching codes in which both English and Thai were switched simultaneously, including tag-switching, intrasentential code-switching, and intersentential code-switching. The lecturers were consciously using code-switching because they were concerned with the use of separated/named languages according to Gear One. As far as the lecturers were concerned, code-switching was the area for them to use English speech as much as they could.

In the shift from socialising to content instruction, the data showed that there was the transition between code-switching and translanguaging practices. It was a transitional space to move between the boundaries of separate languages to the fluidity of blended languages for the lecturers to facilitate a sound understanding of the content. Code-switching and translanguaging still occurred in organising and instructing about language incidents. For many organising incidents, the lecturers deployed code-switching to give unplanned directives to the students prior to doing learning tasks (see Extract 7). The lecturers employed short chunks of English to organise the students to do things immediately without the need for any multimodal support to ensure students' understanding. Once they deployed translanguaging to give planned directives, they used large chunks of English directives (see Extract 8). The lecturers used the multimodalities, such as written directives PowerPoint Presentation, and gestures, to facilitate understanding. When organising lessons (i.e., reviewing and previewing), the lecturers started to deploy Thai to recall the students' knowledge from the previous lessons and to introduce

the new lesson (see Extracts 9, 10, 11, 12). When the lessons had touched content in English, they all paid attention to the students' understanding. Thus, instructing about language was involved in order to support the students to access English meanings to make sense of English words supporting the main content (see Extract 13).

In instructing content, translanguaging was used mainly in a during-instructing stage. The ultimate goal was to fulfil the key curricula requirement: the students' comprehension of subject matter knowledge. To achieve this, the lecturers deployed less spoken English but more Thai. For example, Navin used Thai to bridge the gap between students' prior and new knowledge (see Extract 16). TL occurred when input was presented in one language but discussing it or constructing output in the other. A vivid example was in Derek's lesson where he used the English documentary as the input content but used Thai to discuss and repair students' misunderstanding (see Extract 18). A mindset behind this linguistic performance was for landing at content understanding points.

Translanguaging functioned as a pedagogical, rather than a social tool. There were events of presenting new knowledge, bridging the gap between students' prior and new knowledge, checking students' understandings of new knowledge, and repairing students' misunderstanding. Pre-planned translanguaging made the written English materials more comprehensible because this allowed the lecturers to draw on all the linguistic resources of themselves and the students to co-construct understanding. An instance of this occurred in Jarad's lesson (see Extract 15). Hence, the lecturers deployed multi-modal support to scaffold the students' comprehensions. The lecturers were translanguaging, without necessarily understanding the meaning of this term, because they thought about the use of available linguistic resources to support meaning-making of academic content.

The lecturers preferred to use Thai more than English. Their actual practice showed that the content in English was the weaker academic language of the lecturers and students. Thus, the content was transmitted into Thai, the stronger language, to ensure comprehension of content. However, academic content instruction in HASS at HomeU showed the dynamics of language practice. There appeared to be a movement of the conceptualisation of language behind these practices. The code-switching lens created language codes and paid attention to how the lecturers

switched codes for non-academic purposes. A translanguaging lens was less focused on language per se and more concerned with exploring how the lecturers make sense of academic content through available linguistic resources. Unlike code-switching, translanguaging reflected different linguistic performance features, ultimate goals, functions, and an ideological movement from contemplating languages as separate to integration.

5.6 Chapter Summary

The findings in the present study captured several aspects of lecturer cognition and their professional practices in pre-, during-, and post-instructing stages. To unpack the key findings in each stage, before instructing, lecturer cognition involved motivation behind the change of medium of instruction, attitudes towards the EMI policy, pedagogical knowledge about Language Pillar, and anticipation of future challenges in practices. The lecturers expressed the belief that their motivation to use EMI were to follow the policy and to improve the students' standard knowledge and English proficiency. They held both negative and positive attitudes towards the EMI policy. Most lecturers believed that Gear One was problematic since it could not provide pedagogical guidelines for instructing the students' standard knowledge and only 25 percent of English appeared to be insufficient English exposure for English development. However, they had positive attitudes to the CLIL workshop which developed their pedagogical content knowledge.

Very shortly after attending the overseas workshop, the lecturers had to implement what they learnt from the workshop (the Language Pillar) and the Gear One to their EMI subjects. However, there was a dilemma between ensuring the Language Pillar of OverseasU and succeeding in the Gear One of HomeU. The Language Pillar emphasised the importance of using English to the full. Nevertheless, the Gear One allowed them to employ less English but use more Thai. In anticipation, the lecturers assumed that their students would misconstrue what they lectured due to the lecturers' insufficient English proficiency. The lecturers also foresaw that they would not successfully transfer knowledge through English due to the students'

insufficient English skills. Thus, Gear One was selected as a possible solution to manage these challenges.

Quantitative data of lecturer talk demonstrated that the majority of lecturers were unable to achieve regulations of Gear One in which English must be used for a minimum of 25 percent of the class time. They exceeded the maximum of 75 percent of Thai. Classroom observation data revealed that none of the lecturers were unable to perform monolingually due to unrealistic expectation of both Gear and Pillar. Thus, cod-switching and translanguaging as their actual linguistic performances went beyond the monolingual lens. The observation data also revealed a variety of functions of lecturer talk rather than English for communication and instruction. The functions were socialising, organising, instructing about language, and instructing content. Together these functions provided essential insights into the use of available linguistic repertoires to promote socialising and make meaning of the content.

At a post-instructing stage, the lecturers reflected that their actual practices lacked the effectiveness of teaching academic content through English due to three main factors. Firstly, policy factors: the lecturers lacked contextualisation of the pillar to Gear. Secondly, infrastructural and student factors, HomeU infrastructure was unprepared to support EMI instruction and students' English skills in EMI learning. Thirdly, personal factors, the lecturers were in need of a thorough understanding of what they could, and could not, do in terms of language practices. The reflective practice findings suggested that success in content instruction EMI classrooms in the real world included English but not limited to other linguistic performances, particularly cod-switching and translanguaging in this case. Thus, all lecturers were in need of an in-house professional development framework for their domestic setting.

The next chapter, moves from practice to theory, discusses the critical findings derived from the lecturers' cognition and practices in relation to pertinent literature.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

This present study produced findings which corroborate the results of the previous work in beliefs and practices in English Medium Instruction contexts. To understand the phenomenon of EMI implementation in HASS at HomeU, the research site, constructing appreciation of the dynamic nature of the EMI programme in and beyond classroom levels was central. As established in Chapter 2 (see Section 2.5), this study applied the ROADMAPPING framework (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, 2020) to interpret and explain this phenomenon. There are diverse agents playing roles in the EMI programme development, from practitioners to policymakers. The ROADMAPPING Framework can assist them in understanding EMI as a whole, the interplay of all components, and their positions and roles in each component.

This chapter is organised into nine sections. The first Section (6.1) provides an overview of the key findings, and the following seven main sections are associated with components of ROADMAPPING. Section 6.2 discusses internationalisation as the first component because this was a major cause of EMI implementation. Section 6.3 discusses the key Agents that played the main role in the context. Section 6.4 discusses Language Management and how HASS organised HomeU's policy to operate EMI. Section 6.5 discusses Academic Disciplines that applied to the observed EMI classrooms. Section 6.6 discusses Practices and Processes and focuses on the actual practices of Agents. Section 6.7 discusses Roles of English in relation to Thai in EMI classrooms. Section 6.8 discusses Glocalisation that identified the importance of local practices to meet internationalisation, and finally Section 6.9 concludes with the key aspects of the chapter.

6.1 Overview of the Findings

The findings in Chapter 5 indicated that actual language practices occurring in the classrooms were derived from the impact of a tension between the requirements of English Linguistic Gear or ELG and the aims of the Language Pillar of CLIL. The content lecturers were reluctant to follow the two mechanisms for EMI implementation. The former is an in-house innovative Gear One, which allowed spoken Thai language for up to 75 percent of the class time, while the latter is an overseas pedagogical content knowledge which encouraged the use of English most, if not all, of the time. Although the content lecturers are not English specialists, the Pillar did require them to become so because it had two focuses (i.e., using English and teaching English). Gear One also required the use of input materials in English. However, the Language Pillar did not pay attention to this aspect.

There was considerable uncertainty as to whether the HASS's mechanism creation would be practicable. The content lecturers felt disorientated in bringing the mechanisms to their practice. Thus, they made their own decisions and choices about their use of language. They chose to use code-switching and translanguaging to resolve the tension. These two language practices were used and served different functions of lecturer talk, including socialising, organising, instructing about language, and instructing content. Code-switching was mainly used for socialising, while translanguaging was primarily deployed for instructing content. Organising and instructing about language presented a continuum between two language practices.

In the next sections, I expand these issues and relate my important findings to the findings of other empirical studies about language beliefs and practices in the English Medium Instruction Programmes in tertiary education.

6.2 Internationalisation

HomeU's EMI policy is based on Thailand's goal of internationalisation, as presented in Section 2.1.2.3. In this respect, the policy follows the trend in universities across ASEAN nations (Lao, 2015; Walkinshaw, Fenton-Smith &

Humphreys, 2017), many of which face similar challenges in putting policy into practice (Hasim & Barnard, 2018; Ryan, 2018), as discussed below.

Knight (2008) defined the internationalisation of higher education as “the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or deliver of higher education at the institutional and national levels” (p. 21). The internationalisation of higher education is a continuing effort to integrate global perspectives into local practices in order to fulfil needs for economic development, economic competitiveness (Lane, 2015; Owens & Lane, 2014) and “enhance[ment of] the quality of education and research for all students and staff, and to make a meaningful contribution to society” (De Wit, Hunter, Howard, & Egron-Polak, 2015, p. 29). Universities in Thailand set internationalisation as the goal in order to follow the higher education trend as well as to compete with other universities at regional, national, and international levels. Participants in the study held the view that, for example, “*Thailand was less competitive in labour and career mobility in job markets in ASEAN*” (Tanya, SSI). So, “*if we didn’t pay attention to English, Thailand would be left behind in ASEAN*” (Navin, SSI). This finding seems to reflect the true situation in Thailand. Besides, it is consistent with that of Hoang, Tran, and Pham (2018), who found that Vietnam, Thailand’s neighbouring country, faces the pressure for international competitiveness in higher education. To increase the nation’s capability to compete with others, Thai and Vietnamese universities focus on the development of teaching and learning through the medium of English in tertiary education. This is because one of the key features of the internationalisation of higher education involves the standard and quality of teaching and learning through English (Kehm & Teichler, 2007).

Thus, much effort has gone into developing explicit policies in order to achieve such goals. HASS at HomeU provided explicit EMI policies to content-subject lecturers. This finding is contrary to previous studies (e.g., Dearden, 2014; Macaro; 2018; Ryan, 2018) which have suggested that there appeared to a lack of explicit policies about EMI in many institutions. In the present study, top-down EMI policies were developed for implementation across departments, as presented in Section 4.1. It was recognised by participants that “*the faculty authorities accepted the top-down policy from the University’s top management. So, the policy had a huge impact on the change of medium of instruction across the Thai curricula*”

(Tanya, SSI). It is likely that this view reveals the status quo in HASS at HomeU. Moreover, this current situation in this Thai context is in accord with a recent study (e.g., Byun et al., 2010) indicating that the top-down EMI policy in some Korea universities, for example, replaced and reduced the number of academic subjects taught in Korean. Evidently, HASS at HomeU in Thailand treats EMI as a practical strategy to enhance internationalisation. Participants commented that “*EMI acted as an indicator of a university teaching quality and an internationalisation in the university*” (Bodin, SSI). These results are in agreement with findings by Hu and Lei (2014) which showed that in some Chinese universities, the number of EMI courses offered were counted as a key performance indicator in increasing the internationalisation outlook of the universities.

Previous studies indicated that universities in Brunei (Haji-Othman & McLellan, 2018), Malaysia (Hasim & Barnard, 2018), The Philippines (Kirkpatrick, 2017), and Singapore (Bolton & Botha, 2017) have been more easily able to implement EMI programmes because of their history of British or American colonisation, which gave rise to the use of English as a second language in urban areas. In contrast, universities in countries that had not been colonised have had greater difficulty in implementing EMI programmes: China (Hu & Lei, 2014), Japan (Brown, 2018), Korea (Byun et al., 2010), Vietnam (Nguyen, et al., 2017), and Thailand (Baker & Hüttner, 2019). The main reason for this is that each of these countries had a strong tradition of education in the national language, and English was taught as a foreign language, and rarely used outside the language classrooms.

In a unique attempt to deal with the unbalanced relationship between Thai and English in the Thai context, in 2014, HomeU introduced the innovative concept of English Language Gears to implement their EMI policy. By specifying different amounts of English and Thai in classrooms, HomeU’s EMI policy is grounded in dual-medium instruction.

6.3 Agents

There are stakeholders in an institution taking part in EMI programmes in distinct sectors such as planning, implementing, and assessing policies in HASS at HomeU.

Each sector is run by different agents; for instance, implementing the policy involves active “individual actors (e.g. teachers, students, and administrative staff)” (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, p. 407). Therefore, “[a]gents can be seen as contingent dimensions in so far as the one requires the other” (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, p. 411). The key agents operating an EMI policy in classrooms are the lecturers and students, and most research to date has focused on the perceptions of the former (Borg, 2016; Dafouz, 2018; Dewi, 2017; Ryan, 2018), and only a few on the students (Kim & Tatar, 2018; Saeed et al., 2018). As explained in Section 2.5.2, the lecturers are the main social players practising EMI since they have the authority to plan, operate, and organise classrooms. Hence, the present study is restricted to a consideration of the lecturers. This section will focus on the beliefs of the lecturers in the present study, because as Dafouz and Smit (2016) noted, it is necessary to understand their beliefs about the policy, which may “pose distinct views and interests that sometimes conflict” (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, p. 407). The section will begin with explaining the identity of participants before considering their beliefs about the practicality of the HomeU EMI policy, their understanding of appropriate pedagogy and their lack of confidence in the English competence of themselves and their students.

The lecturer participants in the present study were all Thai nationals, whose mother tongue was a local language, but they all used Thai for academic purposes. In this respect, they were similar to EMI lecturers in comparable countries such as Vietnam, Indonesia, and Laos. Therefore, they had learned English as a foreign language. Four of the six lecturers received their higher degrees in Thailand; one (Derek) earned a degree from an overseas context (non-Anglophone); and one (Amara) gained it from the United Kingdom (see Section 3.2.3). They were all experienced in teaching their disciplinary subjects in Thai and teaching in the medium of English was a very recent innovation, as was the case elsewhere, for example, in Vietnam (Vu & Burns, 2014). Three lecturers in the study had taught EMI for one semester and the other three had no experience at all when the project started. The lecturers in the present study were completely dissimilar from lecturers in countries previously colonised, for example, Malaysia, Brunei, and Singapore, all of whom had considerably more experience working in EMI contexts. Some in fact had more difficulty in using their national language to explain difficult concepts

(Hasim & Barnard, 2018). For instance, Malaysian lecturers in this 2018 study “felt confident about using English to deliver the content of their lectures, largely because they completed their (higher) degrees in England and Malaysia, North America or the United Kingdom...they were better able to express disciplinary concepts more precisely in English than and in BM [Bahasa Melayu]” (Hasim & Barnard, 2018, p. 33).

Taking English competence into consideration, the HASS policy-makers acknowledged the possibility of inventing a mechanism for employing EMI policy. Their awareness of this was reflected in the innovative ELGs since the ELGs allowed the lecturers with diverse English levels to work within the EMI programme. This circumstance in HASS at HomeU significantly differs from conditions elsewhere. For example, in a major university in mainland China the criteria to implement EMI were very strict because lecturers are required to have a strong communicative competence in English and at least six months experience using English in overseas institution (Hu, Li & Lei, 2014).

Nevertheless, the lecturers in the present study questioned the implementation of the ELGs on two grounds: Gear One required English for twenty-five percent of lecturer talk in English and Gear Three needed English for seventy-five percent. As the findings shown in Section 5.1.1.2 indicate, in Gear One, “*the students would not subsequently improve their English proficiency*” (Bodin, SSI) due to less English language exposure. By contrast, in Gear Three, there appeared to be substantial chances to acquire English, but there was widespread concern that “*using so much English may cause unexpected results [a low outcome of content knowledge learning]*” (Tanya, SSI). Hence, there was a consensus of belief among the lecturers that Gear Three would not be suitable to use with their students. Although the ELGs clarified the expectation that the EMI lecturers could use both Thai and English in different proportions, it did not provide guidance of how, and for which purposes, each could/should be used. Thus, all lecturers had uncertainty about the pedagogical application of ELGs.

According to the literature reviewed in Section 2.1.3.3, since English is not their first language, insufficient English skill of Asian lecturers negatively impacts on the effective EMI operation in numerous universities across Asia (Kirkpatrick, 2018). The findings of the present study were that lecturers believed that their

insufficient English skill was the main challenge of EMI implementation (see Section 5.1.3.1): “*insufficient English skills would block my genuine knowledge as English limited my ability to express what I certainly knew*” (Bodin, SSI). These findings differ from recent studies (e.g., Haji-Othman & McLellan, 2018; Hasim & Barnard, 2018) which have reported that EMI lecturers did not have issues with their English. However, the majority of the lecturers in the findings of the present study faced linguistic issues similar to those lecturers in previous studies (Bradford, 2016; Brown, 2018; Chapple, 2015; Dearden, 2014; Vu & Burns, 2014). The findings also revealed that, in the present study, the lecturers believed that students’ inadequate English skill was another challenge in HASS at HomeU (see Section 5.1.3.2). These findings are in contradiction to previous findings of Haji-Othman and McLellan (2018) in which many students in Universiti Brunei Darussalam were comfortable using English, as were the Malaysian students reported by Saeed et al. (2018). However, the findings of the present study concur with those of recent studies (Hamied & Lengkanawati, 2018; Kim & Tatar, 2017; Nguyen et al., 2017; Park & Khemngadekkasit, 2015) which found that the students encountered English difficulties in EMI learning. Kim and Tatar (2017) explained that this issue is linked to the undergraduate students’ English backgrounds in secondary schools and their previous learning experience.

Therefore, intensive methodology workshops for EMI lecturers were initiated in 2014 to bridge the pedagogical gap in the ELGs: thus, as explained in Section 4.2.3, the lecturer participants were sent to attend a three-week CLIL workshop in the OverseasU in an English-speaking country. The situation of professional development in HASS at HomeU differed from various settings across Asia (e.g., Barnard, 2015, 2018; Dearden, 2014; Macaro, 2015, 2018; Macaron et al., 2018; Ryan, 2018; Vu & Burns, 2014) since many Asian universities have not provided professional development for their lecturers. One rare example reported by Fenton-Smith, Stillwell, and Dupuy (2017) was of a university in Taiwan which despatched EMI lecturers to USA for a three-week course in EMI methodology. As reviewed in Section 2.1.3.4, Lin and Lo (2018) argued that although content-subject lecturers are experts in their academic disciplines, and may have qualifications from English-speaking universities, this does not necessarily mean that all lecturers would be able to teach EMI content. Thus, what is needed is an inclusive professional

development to offer them pedagogical content knowledge for EMI (Kirkpatrick, 2018; Lin & Lo, 2018). The findings of the present study (see Section 5.1.2) were that the lecturers had primarily learnt the Language Pillar of CLIL as a new approach for how to use English for classroom communication and academic content instruction.

6.4 Language Management

Language policy includes not only official regulations on language planning and interventions to shift language practice, but it is also an implicit mechanism that manages language practice in a specific community (McCarty, 2011). This point has been acknowledged in several recent studies (e.g., Hu et al., 2014; Macaro, 2018; Ryan, 2018) indicating that to manage EMI programmes in tertiary education contexts, a range of mechanisms need to be organised, including explicit guidelines on the extent of English use in classrooms. In the present study, certain aspects of language policy in HASS at HomeU are explicit mechanisms for enforcing the EMI policy at the level of practice: the English Linguistic Gears, an in-house innovation and the Language Pillar, an overseas approach. These two mechanisms have different requirements and expectations, and tension between the two mechanisms arose. This section will discuss the nature of English Linguistic Gears and the Language Pillar. It will then discuss the tension between these two mechanisms. The situation above in HASS at HomeU may be explained by Nguyen et al. (2017): “[p]olicy on EMI is mandated and regulated in an ad hoc fashion; institutions struggle to adapt programs designed in Anglophone countries to local requirements; classroom academics wrestle with increased preparation loads, the limits of their own English language proficiency and that of their students” (p. 37).

6.4.1 English Linguistic Gears

In current literature, no data was found on English Linguistic Gears or ELGs. This is an important issue for future research. ELGs provide clear guidelines on how much English and Thai should be used. They are the conceptual framework for a rough guide to stages of decision-making on, utilisation of, and reflections on EMI implementation. ELGs not only informed the lecturers about the required language

(English) in teaching materials and assessment but also permitted personal preferences of quantities of lecturer talk in English and Thai, according to their diverse abilities, and those of their students, to use English. The application of the ELGs accepted that English was not to be used exclusively and recognised the role of the first language in EMI. This mechanism in HASS at HomeU is contrary to previous studies which have suggested that several universities in Asia either forbade or discouraged the use of the lecturers' mother tongue (Barnard & McLellan, 2014; Barnard, 2018). For instance, Japanese higher education has implemented 100 percent of English in the Global 30 Project's curricula in the elite universities (Hashimoto, 2013). Another case is that some Korean universities also required 100 percent English-medium lectures in all courses (Cho, 2012). A result of this is in Japan and Korea, some lecturers reported that they lacked confidence in their linguistic abilities to lecture and discuss lessons in English for a whole class period (Bradford, 2016; Cho, 2012; Ryan 2018).

By contrast, there was no expectation that the lecturer participants in HASS at HomeU were to use English for 100 percent of class time. From the lecturers' responses, they felt comfortable to use English at the lowest Gear. Hence, ELGs seem to align with linguistic abilities and affective factors. They support the lecturers and various English levels because ELGs gave individuals greater autonomy in selecting Thai and English levels/percentages according to their preferences. Thus, ELGs decreased the lecturers' English language anxiety, while also building the lecturers' confidence in using EMI (see Section 5.1.3.3). ELGs offer different English levels to be used based on the readiness of the lecturers and students to teach and learn through English.

To summarise, ELGs only informed the lecturer of how much English and Thai should be used in EMI classrooms. This consequence is contrary to that of Ali (2013) who found some Malaysian lecturers had uncertainty about how much English should be used in their instruction. The findings of the present study suggested that although ELGs encouraged the use of English, Thai was not forbidden. Kim and Tatar (2017) explain that "local language use contributes to improving instruction and establishing group solidarity" (p. 160). Several studies suggest that the use of a mother tongue has received attention because it makes a

positive contribution to a communication as part of the multilingual model of teaching and learning (Kirkpatrick, 2017; Ó Laoire, 2012; Sampson, 2012).

However, the policy does not specify, or even provide guidelines on, how the two languages are to be used. Therefore, the Language Pillar fills the empty pedagogical space in ELGs.

6.4.2 Language Pillar

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) offers further support for English medium instruction policies. As noted in Chapters 2 and 4, CLIL is an approach to content and language learning in which academic courses are taught in the target language with the goal of promoting both language and content mastery to the desired degree.

In Section 4.3.2, the Language Pillar also suggested the lecturers should instruct about language. As content lecturers, the lecturers responded that this presented them with a considerable burden of instruction in their EMI classes. This echoes the point made by Hüttner, Dalton-Puffer and Smit (2013) that although CLIL aims at improving language competence, their participants reflected that as content lecturers, they did not have language aims in mind. As the language of instruction had its clear aim for the use of language as MOI, “language development is not amongst the set learning objectives” (Schmidt-Unterberger, 2018, p. 528). The same point was made by Ali (2013). In higher education, English is seen as “the language of instruction and as a tool to communicate subject matter, rather than as a subject itself. Therefore, the most outstanding characteristics of the CLIL approach, namely its “[w]idely advertised’ dual focus” (Dalton-Puffer 2011, p. 183), can rarely be achieved in English medium programmes as they mainly aim at the acquisition of subject knowledge, rather than language improvement: “improving students’ English skills is barely ever declared as an aim” (Coleman, 2006, p. 4). In the present study, however, the university policy was explicit about the need for students to improve their English, which is why the EMI lecturers attended a CLIL course in an overseas university.

The English language teaching aspects in the Language Pillar led to considerable confusion. Proponents of CLIL explicitly aim to teach target language to the students (Coyle et al., 2010). In contrast, EMI does not require English language instruction, but emphasises content instruction only (Macaro, 2018). The Language Pillar, with the focus on teaching English, was unfeasible in this context since the content lecturers were not English experts. Although there was empirical evidence of attempts at instructing about language (see Section 5.3.3), the ways the lecturers taught English showed their lack of English language teaching pedagogy. As shown in Section 5.3.3, Amara only read aloud the English definition displayed on the screen, while Jarad directly translated English terminologies into Thai. The Language Pillar required more than that since it aimed to teach English pedagogically and systematically to support the academic content of the course (see Section 4.3.2.2).

It was believed that the fulfilment of the EMI policy could be achieved by an integration of the two mechanisms, the ELGs and the Language Pillar. All lecturers deployed Gear One: using English for 25 percent and 75 percent for Thai. All lecturers faced the dilemma of following between the Gear One and Language Pillar (deploying English to the full). This issue will be discussed in more detail in the next section.

6.4.3 Dilemma between English Linguistic Gear and Language Pillar

The findings suggested that the lecturers were unable to follow both Gear One and the Language Pillar due to the mismatch between the two mechanisms (see Section 5.2). The lecturers acknowledged that Gear One guided how much English and Thai can be used, but it could not offer guidelines for how to use English and Thai in instructing academic content. The Language Pillar was introduced to fill this gap. However, the Language Pillar only focused on the use of English in instructing about both language and content (see Section 5.1.2). These two mechanisms have put the importance of each language at different levels. That is, using English to the full was a great weight of the Language Pillar, while using Thai was the main burden of the use of the Gear One.

All lecturers foresaw that it would be impossible to employ much English to deliver lessons. Data suggested that although the lecturers had a negative attitude towards the effectiveness of Gear One in relation to English gain, they saw the potential benefits of the use of Gear One regarding content gain. As far as the lecturers were aware, the ultimate aim of EMI was to build up the students' understanding of academic content, as Gear One offered seventy-five percent of lecture talk in Thai. Overall, data suggested that the lecturers believed that Gear One could prevent the English language barrier in class because it allowed them to convey critical messages in Thai to the students to gain a full understanding.

There were opportunities for the use of both languages in lecturer talk and lecturers had an awareness of the importance of the use of each language in academic and non-academic incidents in classes. Similarly, content lecturers in South Korea “give students more chances to use their multiple language resources and to find ways to compensate for their low English proficiency” (Kim & Tatar, 2017, p. 168). The lecturers had an opportunity to select how much English and Thai should be used instead of a one-size-fits-all approach such as would be the case with total English immersion programmes. These findings reflect those of Kim and Tatar (2017) who also found that EMI classrooms instruction will benefit from the use of the mother tongue. Thus, they suggest that the mother tongue should be allowed according to the students' level of English proficiency.

Beliefs about language shape the way lecturers deploy language (Piller, 2015). Language beliefs constitute a way out of the dilemma of how to use Gear One and the Language Pillar, as they rationalise and justify language tension and inequality as an outcome of linguistic difference. The finding suggested that the Language Pillar of CLIL was not suitable for academic content instruction. It corroborates the ideas of Schmidt-Unterberger (2018, p. 529), who suggested that “the fundamental principle of CLIL as the equal importance of content and language learning aims, is extremely difficult to apply to higher education.” Unterberger & Wilhelmer (2011) argue “that the label ‘EMI’ is the more appropriate choice for most university settings in which English is primarily used as the medium of instruction with very few explicit language learning aims” (pp. 95–97).

6.5 Academic Disciplines

As noted in Section 2.5.2, a discipline can be considered as ‘soft’ when it relies on qualitative data and requires lengthy prose explanations in contrast to ‘hard’ disciplines such as Mathematics which rely on quantitative data and numerical formulaic and symbolic presentation. “This categorization is contingent with different teaching methods and assessment” (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, p. 405). In other words, soft and hard had diverse ways of instruction and evaluation.

Some empirical studies on teaching EMI (e.g., Hamied & Lengkanawati 2018; Joe & Lee, 2013; Kim, Kweon, & Kim, 2017; Kunioshi, Noguchi, Tojo, & Hayashi, 2016) focused solely on hard disciplinary content. Other studies (e.g., Haji-Othman & McLellan, 2018; Hasim & Barnard, 2018; Vu & Burns, 2014) have investigated both hard and soft disciplines in EMI programmes, but none have considered the differential use of language in the two sorts of disciplines.

Therefore, it would seem that the present study is the first to have explored in any depth the use of language in soft disciplines such as those observed in the present study: Ethics, Research, Policy and Planning, Civic Development, Library Management, and Learning and Instruction (the names of these subjects are pseudonyms.)

The content of these soft disciplines was language rich, and unfamiliar and complex terminologies and concepts needed to be explained verbally rather than through other symbolic means (e.g., formula, graphs, and pie charts). Observational data revealed that in an example of a class where both lecturer and students had low levels of English proficiency, Bodin used Thai (78.5%) and English (21.5%) to explain how to conduct research. In another class, lecturer and students had some degree of English proficiency: Tanya deployed Thai (52.0%) and English (48%) to interact with the students in both academic and non-academic areas.

In another case, the lecturer had a higher level of English skills than his students’ levels: Navin deployed Thai (88.4%) and English (3.7%) to describe academic knowledge on Ethics. The subject of Ethics was an extremely abstract discipline, meaning that his lesson contained many very complex concepts. Thus, even though his competence in English was high, his students’ competence was lower, which

would have made his lesson very difficult for his students to understand if he used academic English to verbally explain these unfamiliar terms and concepts, so there was less chance to have a successful lesson using academic English. He decided to deploy Thai to explain ethical concepts as well as using appropriate modalities (e.g., film, website, and Thai handouts) to enable the students to understand the academic content. This finding seems to be consistent with other research (Evans & Green, 2007; Evans & Morrison, 2011) which found insufficient academic English skills of the students negatively impacted on their understanding of academic English

In principle, the lecturers in the present study understood that in EMI programmes English texts carried the main academic content (see Section 5.1.2.2). However, there was concern among them that excessive use of academic English would lead to academic discipline knowledge loss – that is, the students would fail to achieve the curriculum goals through a lack of comprehension. The point that using excessive English could lead to academic content knowledge loss has been made by various Asian scholars (e.g., Byun et al., 2011; Hu & Lei, 2014; Lau & Yuen, 2011).

Observational data presented in Section 5.3.4. shows that the lecturers used everyday English to convey academic content knowledge, and later reflected (see Section 5.4) that they had uncertainty about the quality of their instruction. Thus, restricting the use of English in classes to cater for the general lack of competence in academic English could lead to what has been referred to as ‘watering down’ the content (Hasim & Barnard, 2018, p. 34). This also led to academic discipline knowledge loss because although the students could understand the reduced content, this was insufficient to meet the demands of the disciplinary curriculum.

In summary, the verbal complexity of soft disciplines, and the majority of the lecturers’ lack of confidence and competence in their own and their students’ use of English, made it extremely difficult to apply even Gear One in the classes observed. This is one of the main pedagogical challenges to the implementation of EMI.

6.6 Practices and Processes

In terms of practice, Dafouz and Smit (2016) focused on ‘ways of doing’, ‘ways of thinking’, and combining both. Practice and beliefs impact on actual classroom practices and how policies are implemented in the classroom (Borg, 2011; Dafouz & Smit, 2016), and “policies cannot be truly understood without studying actual practices” (Menken & García, 2010, p. 3). Processes involve the development of academic literacy skills. However, a discovery of the students’ academic literacy skills was not the aim of the present study, and there was no attempt to focus on this aspect. Hence, this section will only discuss practices of the use of English in relation to Thai.

Statistical data shows that the lecturers (with one exception) were unable to achieve Gear One goal of 25 percent in English in the classrooms observed, as indicated in Section 5.2.1. With regard to the exception, Tanya used English for 48 percent of lecturer talk in her first EMI class. Several reports have shown that many Asian universities expected EMI lecturers to use English for 100 percent (e.g., Hasim & Banard, 2018; Martin; 2014; Tien, 2014). These differed from the condition in HASS at HomeU.

What is interesting in the present study was to discover language practices that can best facilitate the EMI students’ understanding in the various disciplines. Language practices in classrooms were more complex than separating the use of each named language. Thus, this present study emphasised the importance of linguistic performances for particular purposes, as indicated in Section 5.2.2. There were two main linguistic performances: code-switching (CS) and translanguaging (TL). In this study, CS is a conscious switch between language codes, whereas TL is attempting to make meaning beyond codes (see Section 2.3.4). There is a lack of current literature on the purposes of TL in EMI classroom, while there have been many studies on the purposes of CS in English as foreign language classroom (e.g., Barnard & McLellan, 2014). The respective purposes of CS and TL will be discussed in more detail below.

6.6.1 Socialising

The lecturers used CS for socialising with the students in relation to personal issues rather than academic matters (see Section 5.3.1). For instance, greeting and leaving-taking were found in CS since the lecturers wished to promote rapport with students. This finding in the present study further supports the idea of Martin (2014) that CS is used “for motivating student response and action” (p. 176). The use of humour and anecdote were also observed, and these diminished students’ tension and anxiety prior to instructing content. Another use of switching into English was for praising and reassuring in situations when lecturers encouraged students to interact in class. These are in agreement with findings by Tayjasanant (2014). She found that CS was used in a Thai university context for giving compliments and praise, encouragement, and casualness. Similarly, Tien (2017, p. 55) also found her own lecturer talk contained many examples of CS that aimed to “build solidarity”; “promote affiliative interaction”; and “ease students’ anxieties related to the course.” It seemed to be true that code-switching is “multifunctional in nature” (Tien, 2017, p. 55).

6.6.2 Organising

The lecturers used CS to arrange the students and lessons (see Section 5.3.2). Some CS occurred when lecturers gave instructions of how to do classroom tasks and when lecturers re-visited previous lessons to recall the students’ prior knowledge, and when the lecturers introduced new lessons. These findings are the opposite to the findings of other studies when, due to a lack of confidence in linguistic abilities, some Japanese and Korean lecturers use their first languages to organise classroom tasks (Bradford, 2016). This is also similar to the case in Korea where the lecturers gave directives for classrooms tasks in both Korean and English to confirm that the students understood how to work on crucial learning tasks (Kim & Tatar, 2017). Vietnamese lecturers in Vu and Burns’ (2014) study reported that that they used CS for organising the classroom which was similar to the present study, but, unlike the present study, there was no observation data to confirm their claim.

6.6.3 Instructing about Language

Although the lecturers were taught about language teaching methodology in the overseas CLIL course, they did not believe that instructing about the English language was their aim in EMI. This finding seems to be consistent with other research which found that, unlike CLIL, EMI does not include explicit language learning objectives (e.g., Schmidt-Unterberger, 2018). Therefore, in the present study, the correction of students' errors in syntax and pronunciation was limited to providing recasts with no explanation in either Thai or English. Lecturers rarely attempted to explain grammatical issues: only one lecturer, Navin, was observed to do so when he discussed the difference between the passive and active voices. He did so entirely in Thai. When it came to the introduction of new academic vocabulary, English words were presented through PowerPoint Presentations and online dictionary websites, and the lecturers explained the meaning of the words in Thai (see Section 5.3.3).

This can be seen as a move towards translanguaging as it shows that the lecturers and students were working in both languages. That is, the lecturers helped their students to gain access to unknown vocabulary during an input process by using available linguistic resources; for example, they used one language to confirm meanings of vocabulary of another language. These findings are in accord with the recent studies in some CLIL and EMI contexts in Europe and North America (e.g., Carroll & Mazak, 2017; García & Li, 2014; Lewis et al., 2012; Mazak & Herbas-Donoso, 2015) and there is a growing body of published research on translanguaging practices in EMI or CLIL programmes in Asia (e. g., He, Lai, & Lin 2017; Lin, 2015a; 2016; Lin & He, 2017). However, this is clearly an area of research that needs to be expanded.

6.6.4 Instructing Content

The lecturers used TL to teach academic content to the students as presented in Section 5.3.4. Instructing content included activities in an academic content arena. Classroom observational data in the present study discovered four major purposes of translanguaging as pedagogy in instructing content: first, presenting new

knowledge; second, bridging the gap between students' prior and new knowledge; third, checking students' understanding of new knowledge; and fourth, repairing students' misunderstanding of new knowledge. In all these, TL was used by the lecturers because they were afraid of academic discipline knowledge being lost if they deployed English to instruct academic content. These findings are likely to be related to what W. Li (2018b) described as teacher-directed translanguaging. In reviewing the literature, no data was found on the specific purposes of the use of TL that was similar to or different from these findings of the present study. So, there is abundant room for further progress in determining this issue.

6.7 Roles of English

The findings of the study showed clearly that English played a minor, but complementary, role in the EMI classrooms observed, largely restricted to CS for social and organising purposes (see Section 5.2.3). There is no evidence of lecturers providing input in English without translation or full explanations in Thai due to the lack of English skills of both lecturers and their students to use and understand English for academic purposes.

6.7.1 Complementary Roles of Languages

In the present study of EMI classrooms, English and Thai played complementary roles (see Section 5.4.2.2). Thai was used by both lecturers and students to “promote a deeper and fuller understanding of the subject matter” (Baker, 2011, p. 289). In another case, Malaysian lecturers used the first language “for the practical reason that it saved much time in understanding course material” (Saeed et al., 2018, p. 81), and it also increased the students' chances of success in EMI learning. Although the Malaysian lecturers were entirely confident in their ability to deliver academic content in English, they still deployed the first language. By contrast, in cases such as the present study, where the lecturers used much less English than Thai, the primary reason was lecturers and students had insufficient English skills.

6.7.1.1 English to Thai in Input

Input materials (i.e., textbook/handout, academic article, PowerPoint Presentation, film, and documentary) were in English and had to be fully understood. The observational findings were that all six lecturers deployed English input materials based on Gear One regulation. That is, teaching materials must be in English. In two cases, while Derek used an English documentary, Navin employed film. However, they used Thai to explain the key point in such materials. In accordance with the present findings, the previous study of Hu and Lei (2014) has demonstrated that one EMI lecturer used Chinese when explaining complex concepts since “deploy[ing] English exclusively would inhibit him from conveying disciplinary knowledge effectively” (p. 560). One student confirmed that “given the same amount of time, the professor can go deeper into the content if he or she teaches in Chinese” (p. 560). In four cases, the lecturers used English input materials but deployed two languages to give explanations. For example, while Amara read aloud an academic article, Bodin read aloud a handout/textbook; they explained academic content in Thai and some words in English. By contrast, Jarad and Tanya read aloud their PowerPoint Presentation in English, they explained what they read through Thai and some sentences in English.

6.7.1.2 Thai to English in Output

There was no academic input material in Thai because the assumption was that EMI content should be presented in English; however, it can be recognised that translanguaging could be realised by working with the two languages when it came to the students’ output learning performances. For example, Tanya allowed her students to use English or Thai to demonstrate their understanding of an English text. All the students used Thai to work on classroom tasks. Tanya presented some of their work in Thai on the screen and used English to translate the students’ work (see Section 5.3.4). Another example was in Derek’s lesson where he assigned the students to present in English what they had understood from the documentary. He realised that no one could do that, and he decided to allow the students to use Thai. Similarly, Navin assigned his students to write a summary of the key scene in the film of *Les Misérables* with related ethical principles. However, when the students

could not complete this assignment, Navin allowed them to use Thai instead. He also asked them to translate a Thai summary into English as homework. These findings mirror those of a previous study (Kim & Tatar, 2017) where the students used Korean to produce their written output, but they presented their oral work in English.

Translanguaging in the present study built upon what Williams (1994) and Baker (2011) had proposed about translanguaging as pedagogy (alternating between one language in input and another in output). In the present study, academic input was always introduced in English (e.g., in textbooks, PowerPoint Presentations, films, etc.). Only one example was observed of oral input being presented in English, which was when Jarad tried to explain the concept of public policy in English, but he immediately had to use Thai to re-explain (see Section 5.3.4.1). The negotiation of meaning of English input in the classrooms observed proceeded largely, or exclusively, in Thai. This differs from the study of Lewis et al. (2012), who found that their participants' translanguaging negotiation was the use of one language to reinforce the other in order to increase comprehension. The present study indicates that there were movements of languages to arrive at learning outcomes with some attempts to change language of output from Thai to English. In summary: written input was entirely in English, and only one example of oral English input was observed; the negotiation of meaning was conducted predominantly in Thai, using the input materials in English as the basis for discussion; in negotiation of learning outcomes, there were a few attempts to move from Thai to English; however, when it came to oral or written outputs the lecturers always made it clear that these should be in one language, either Thai or English.

Whereas code-switching occurred spontaneously, the findings indicate that the lecturers made clear plans about when and how to apply translanguaging techniques regarding their input of academic content (such translanguaging occurred and moved towards output, but largely unplanned).

In conclusion, the key issue is to increase the use of English in such EMI contexts. Obviously, in order to achieve the ELG targets, lecturers need to be made aware of the respective uses of CS and TL, and to increase the amount of English they used in both. However, there would be no point in doing this if the students did not

understand. Therefore, both lecturers and students need appropriate training for EMI programmes: a point which will be discussed in Chapter 7.

No studies have come to my attention that have been related to the process by which CS shifted toward TL in EMI classes. This issue is discussed in the next section.

6.7.2 Continuum of Code-switching and Translanguaging

The most compelling finding of the present study is the continuum of code-switching and translanguaging (see Section 5.5). The present study appears to be the first in English medium programmes to identify the interrelationship between CS and TL in EMI programmes, as illustrated in Figure 6.1 below.

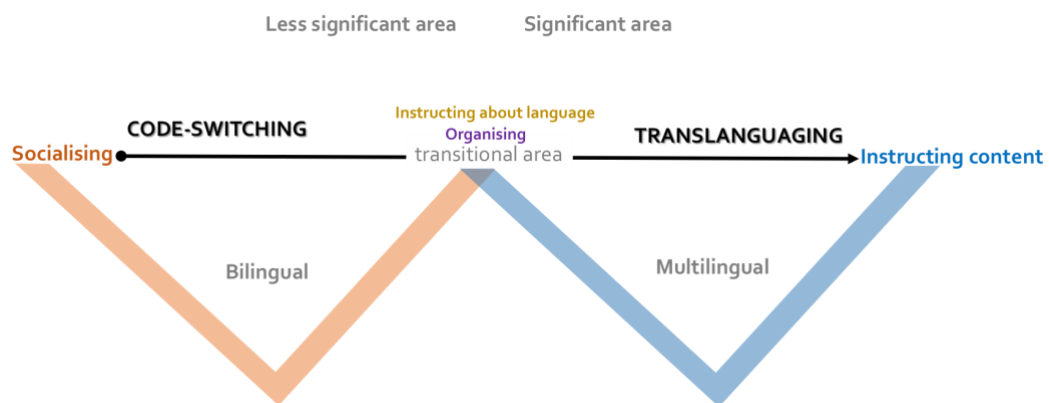


Figure 6.1: Continuum of code-switching and translanguaging

On the left is an outer academic content arena, which is less significant in terms of academic content but richer in classroom social interaction events. CS has been defined as “the alternating use of more than one linguistic code in the classroom” (Lin, 2017, p. 488) and comprises three levels: tag-switching, intrasentential, and intersentential (Poplack, 1980, 2000, 2015). In the present study, CS at all three levels was used mainly to promote rapport with students (see Section 5.3.1), and in this respect concurs with other studies (e.g., Tayjasanant, 2014; Tien, 2017). The use of relatively long chunks in English occurred in CS because the lecturers were attempting to fulfil the twenty five percent requirement of Gear One. Because socialising is not working directly with academic content, there is no particular

concern if the students did not understand the details of the message in English, as long as they understood its gist.

At the centre of Figure 6.1 is a transitional area or a linguistic performance border where code-switching moves forward towards translanguaging, which Canagarajah defines as “the ability of multilingual speakers to shuttle between languages, treating the diverse languages that form their repertoire as an integrated system” (2011, p. 401). Here, the lecturers used both languages to organise classroom events by giving directives, previewing lessons, and reviewing lessons (see Section 5.3.2). They used more sophisticated means than merely verbally switching between languages; a range of modalities were used to support the students’ understanding. For instance, the lecturers used PowerPoint Presentation when introducing procedures of classroom tasks as well as previewing and reviewing lessons.

Similarly, when instructing about language, the lecturers worked in both languages to enable the students to gain access to the meaning of academic vocabulary, and - to a lesser extent - complex syntax such as the difference between active and passive voices. They deployed mediating tools such as PowerPoint Presentations and online dictionary websites containing the meanings of academic English content terminology, and then explained these orally in Thai.

On the right, is the inner academic content arena – the most significant area in EMI. The lecturers utilised TL techniques to instruct academic content to students to achieve a better understanding (see Section 5.3.4). The lectures presented new input knowledge in English through an integration of English and Thai. They bridged the gap between what the students already knew and the new content that they had recently learnt. The lecturers also checked the students’ understanding of the knowledge required. They also repaired students’ misunderstandings. The aim of TL in the present study was similar to that of García et al. (2017), in which translanguaging as pedagogy aimed to support students in understanding complex academic content.

In summary, the lecturers in the present study used all the linguistic resources available to them to facilitate students’ cognitive processes in understanding both communicative functions and academic content in the forms of spoken and written English. These instructing-content events involved multimodalities (e.g.,

PowerPoint Presentation, textbook, academic article, documentary, and film) and paralinguistics to facilitate the students' understanding. These findings are in accord with recent studies indicating that EMI lecturers creatively deployed multimodalities such as semiotics and visuals to make sense of academic content (Lin, 2015a, 2015b).

The central issue is perhaps the way in which the lecturers in the present study perceived their various identities as language users. The first was that of native speakers of their first (regional) language, Lao: the language used at home and in their local community. The second identity was that of fluent bilingual users in school and university classes, where Thai has conventionally been the official medium of instruction: Lao was used only informally. The third identity was as limited users of English as a foreign language in academic settings: the essential requirement of EMI programmes. The findings of the present study reveal that their lack of confidence and proficiency in English prevented most of them from fulfilling the requirement of even the first English Language Gear. To achieve this goal, and perhaps move beyond, it would be necessary to enable them to perceive themselves as functional multilingual users by training them to confidently use strategies and techniques of translanguaging in a dual medium academic environment.

6.8 Glocalisation

The discussion above of the ROADMAPPING components has shown that HASS at HomeU attempted to implement EMI to meet the local context. In local practice, it is important to consider “what is involved in the process of internationalisation, and the specific ways to implement internationalisation that suit their institutional contexts” (Tran & Marginson, 2018, p. 2). In this case, EMI programmes have been presented as part of an ‘internationalisation at home’ scheme (Dafouz, 2014). Internationalisation at home refers to campus-based schemes to bring internationalised teaching approaches to the majority of local students (Dafouz, 2014; Knight, 2012) to enable them to advance their international knowledge and global competence on the domestic campus (Tran & Marginson, 2018). For

example, Kim and Tatar (2017) disagreed with the notion that using 100 percent of English as the medium of instruction in itself was sufficient for internationalisation; they argued that “the roles of the local language highlight critical factors for truly internationalized HE [higher education]” (p. 167). In the present study, the HomeU policy-makers recognised this point when introducing the English Language Gears. Thus, like many universities reaching for international standards, they sought to address local synergies as well (Scott, 2011). To retain this ‘glocalization’ process (Robertson, 1995) forces universities into creating a delicate balance between global aims and local drives.

It is vital that English Medium Instruction is the focal instructional strategy to reach internationalisation of higher education in HASS at HomeU. This context introduced the two mechanisms for EMI implementation: English Linguistic Gears, an in-house innovation; and the Language Pillar, an overseas pedagogical knowledge. The former introduces how much English and Thai could and should be used. The latter provides guidelines on how to use English in EMI classrooms. To put these mechanisms into practice, the lecturers integrated English and Thai for specific functions. Hence, some issues arose because all six lecturers believed that the students would not gain full understanding of academic content when only English was used, or even when English was used to explain new academic content. This local practice has valuable implications for dual-medium instruction. The most appropriate approach to glocalisation for EMI at HomeU and comparable contexts will be discussed in more detail in the conclusion to this thesis.

6.9 Chapter Summary

Overall, this study has applied the components of Dafouz and Smit’s (2016) ROADMAPPING framework to explain the EMI phenomenon in HASS at HomeU.

The first component was Internationalisation. Similarly to other universities across Asia, HASS aimed to promote internationalisation of higher education in order to improve the quality of instruction so as to compete with other universities. They did so by applying a context-specific approach to EMI.

The second component was Agents: at the classroom level, lecturers and their students were the most important agents. However, the lecturers played the key role, as they directly implemented the mechanisms. The lecturers in the present study were Thai nationals, for whom English is not their first language. They are subject-content specialists and have several years of experience in instruction using a Thai medium but little or no experience in teaching EMI. None of the lecturers believed that the use of English to the full was an appropriate language practice in instructing academic content with their students because their English skills, and those of their students, were inadequate. However, the lecturers did believe that there were potential benefits in using their first language in academic content instruction in EMI classrooms.

The third component was Language Management. The mechanisms for EMI implementation in HASS were particularly unique. In Thailand, the innovative English Linguistic Gears and the imported Language Pillar were introduced to the content lecturers only in 2014 – immediately prior to their starting to teach EMI classes. Although the mechanisms aimed to drive the content lecturers to practise English as a medium of instruction, they had different expectations of languages usage. The dilemma arose because the mechanisms were unable to weave together the various strands such as different proportions of English and Thai, and the purposes that each could serve.

The fourth component was Academic Discipline. All lecturers deployed both Thai and English to teach soft academic subjects in the Thai curriculum. The content of such disciplines requires complex verbal explanations; it was very difficult for the lecturers to do that in English, and for the students to understand if they were delivered in English. It was common for the textbooks and other materials to be in English, and academic vocabulary in these materials to be explained to the students in Thai.

The next section discussed the fifth component, Practice and Process, and showed that actual practices diverged from the mechanisms' language expectation. Language practices observed and reported suggested that dual language instruction was suitable for HASS at HomeU. Thus, the process should be redesigned to implement dual language instruction professionally and effectively.

The sixth component was Role of English and other languages. Due to the dilemma in language management, when it turned to practice the lecturers had to find a way out. They deployed English and Thai, respectively, as the media of classroom communication and instruction. Lecturers deployed these two languages to balance the mechanisms' requirements and the students' understanding. CS was used to fulfil and maintain English requirements, while TL was deployed to achieve the curricula goals.

The final component was Glocalisation. To meet the circumstances of the specific local context, the policy-makers in HASS at HomeU glocalised the concept of EMI by applying the in-house innovation of English Language Gear in combination with an overseas approach, the Language Pillar associated with CLIL. In this way, it was hoped to overcome the challenges posed by the general lack of English competence among the lecturers and students. Thus, a glocalised approach to dual-medium instruction could be considered a suitable language practice which local policies and practices sought to achieve global aims.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSION

The final chapter concludes this thesis by reflecting on the main goal of the current study, which was to develop a better understanding of the current EMI pedagogy through the lens of lecturers' language beliefs and practices. In this chapter, I present a conclusion of the thesis with an attempt to answer the overarching research question posed at the beginning of this study was: *How do the findings of the study contribute to academic and professional understanding of 'language' in the EMI context?*

It is now possible to state that the language beliefs and practices of the content lecturers have led to the conclusion that English should not be the exclusive medium of instruction, but that dual-medium instruction would be a more practical conceptual solution. This was clearly recognised in the university's policy of English Language Gears, and supported by the findings that show that most of the lecturers were unable to use English to deliver academic content to fulfil even the lowest Gear – 25 percent. In the observed classes, English played a minor role by code-switching for basic social interactional functions and organising classroom events, and supporting Thai in the delivery of linguistic and academic content in a move towards the practice of translanguaging. The main reason for the limited use of English was the lack of competence in English by both lecturers and students.

This chapter is organised into six sections. Section 7.1 summarises the core research findings, and Section 7.2 acknowledges some limitations of the study. Section 7.3 draws contributions to academic knowledge from the application of the ROADMAPPING framework (Dafouz & Smit, 2016). Section 7.4 highlights contextual, practical, and theoretical implications. Section 7.5 suggests areas for future research on language beliefs and practices in EMI/dual-medium university contexts in Thailand and comparable settings. Section 7.6 concludes the thesis with my final thoughts.

7.1 The Core Research Findings

This present study has shown that, because of the English language limitations of the lecturer and the students, it was not possible for English to be used as the primary medium of instruction. There were two different language practices with complementary purposes in the observed EMI classrooms. Code-switching and translanguaging were dissimilar language performances in terms of language ideologies, but they flowed with fluidity of movement in one continuum. There were with three essential spaces within the continuum (see Sections 5.5 and 6.7.2).

The first space was where code-switching into English was mainly used to socialise with the students, and the lecturers accepted that the students were unable to fully understand the English language that they used, as socialising was not related to the academic content of the class. Data suggested that socialising was one of the few opportunities for them to use English in order to work toward the requirements of the two mechanisms.

The second space was a transitional border. Code-switching still remained to organise classroom activities, but its techniques became more sophisticated than its use for socialising. This was because multimodal means were used when giving directives, reviewing and previewing lessons. Chunks of spoken English were mixed with longer chunks of Thai on some occasions, especially in reviewing and previewing events. Students' understanding was of some concern in some events, but these were still in a less significant area than presenting new knowledge. When the students' comprehension of academic content needed to be taken into consideration, code-switching shifted towards translanguaging.

The third space was at the end of the continuum. Translanguaging, working across both languages (English and Thai), with support from multimodal means emerged in the instruction of academic content. In lecturer talk, Thai was the leading language in: presenting new knowledge, bridging the gap between students' prior and new knowledge, checking students' understandings of new knowledge, and repairing students' misunderstanding. In this space, there were widely used multimodal means to support oral or written input in English. The ultimate reason for these translanguaging practices was that the students' understanding of academic content was the most important goal.

7.2 Limitations

Although case studies do not aim to achieve generalisability, my study has provided insights in a unique context, which could be relatable to readers' experience and understanding. This study has no aim to infer research findings from particular instances to general statements. My exploratory case study provides a better opportunity than large-sample research to discover inside information on language beliefs and practices, and the consequent empirical results. My study was based on 'soft' disciplines in the field of humanities and social sciences, and the findings may not be applicable to disciplines such as natural sciences and technology or health sciences. Moreover, the numbers of participants and observed lessons were limited to six lecturers and six classes. Of these, only four of the participants could attend the focus group discussion. A further limitation was that, the beliefs and practices of the students were not explored because active participation in substantial study was of no interest to the majority of the students.

7.3 Contribution to Academic Knowledge: The Application of ROADMAPPING

The discussion of the findings of the present study has been greatly facilitated by the application of the ROADMAPPING framework (Dafouz & Smit, 2016).

The university in focus in this study, like other tertiary education providers in Thailand, considered *internationalisation* of higher education is at the top of the agenda, and to achieve this agenda, EMI programmes were employed as the key strategy. The belief under this vision was that EMI should improve both academic content knowledge and English proficiency of HomeU's students to be able to compete in the international workplace.

The lecturers were the crucial *agents*, who had the authority to run and control their classrooms. However, although all lecturers in the study acknowledged the importance of the international goal, they did not believe that EMI would work. This was because their students' English proficiency was below the minimum requirement of EMI. More importantly, the majority of lecturers acknowledged that

their limited competence in academic English prevented them from teaching disciplinary content in their EMI classrooms.

Recognising these language challenges, the university authorities sought to find a solution through *Language Management*. That is, they introduced the in-house innovation of the English Linguistic Gears, which allowed lecturers and students with different English levels to benefit from the EMI programme. These informed how much English and Thai should be used in classrooms. The lecturers believed that the 25 percent of English required by Gear One was insufficient to enhance the students' English skills. They believed that only Gear Three had potential for doing so, but the students would not be able to understand the academic content if 75 percent of English were used. So, all lecturers decided to use Gear One because it was appropriate to their and their students' English competence. The English Linguistic Gears did not provide any pedagogical guidance. Thus, the Language Pillar, an imported methodological approach derived from the overseas CLIL programme was introduced to fill this pedagogical gap. This gave the participating lecturers insights into the classrooms as a communicative context and suggested ways of teaching the English language. However, the basic assumption of the Language Pillar of CLIL was that English should be used more than 25 percent of the classroom time, and this created a tension for the lecturers using Gear One.

The *Academic Disciplines* in the present study were in the language-rich fields of humanities and social sciences which, unlike 'hard' disciplines, required detailed verbal explanations. Thus, using much academic English was a matter of concern to the lecturers because the students would have been unable to access meanings and content if they had been provided in rich academic English. The lecturers reported that they frequently simplified the language of English input texts to make them accessible to their students, and this may have had the effect of watering down the academic content. Moreover, the lecturers themselves lacked confidence in their ability to teach in academic English, so on the few occasions they attempted to explain content in English they mainly used everyday English because it was less complex to use and understand.

In classroom *Practices and Processes*, the lecturers mainly used Thai for both social and academic purposes, because the students had very low proficiency in English, and the lecturers' own ability in English limited them from delivering academic

content in that language. Thus, the lecturers deployed both English and Thai for different purposes according to four main functions: socialising, organising, instructing about language, and instructing content. All these functions of languages in the observed classrooms were on a continuum between code-switching and translanguaging.

Thus, although the lecturers used much less English than Thai, the *Role of English* complemented the more dominant use of Thai. Code-switching and translanguaging had complementary functions: code-switching played key roles in socialising and organising, while translanguaging played a minor role in instructing about language and a major role in instructing academic content. Practices of code-switching and translanguaging created its continuum of fluidity of the two (see Sections 5.5 and 6.7.2).

In summary, the EMI policy was directed toward internationalisation, but its implementation can be seen as *Glocalisation*. The English Language Gears were a managerial attempt to adjust EMI to the local circumstances. The lecturers, as key agents of the local policy, selected the lowest Gear because of their perception of the limited language levels. In the observed classrooms, the lecturers interacted with their students using these linguistic resources available to them: the use of code-switching and translanguaging enabled them to use as much English as they could, while still trying to make the academic content comprehensible to their students.

7.4 Implications

This case study on language beliefs and practices has yielded various implications for contextual, practical, and theoretical grounds. Each implication is explained in the following sections.

7.4.1 Contextual

This section sheds light on contextual implications regarding key issues for EMI in Thai higher education, and specifically for the research site of the present study.

7.4.1.1 Reconsidering Medium of Instruction Policy

The policy of applying different English Language Gears was basically sound, but most of the lecturers could not meet the requirement of even Gear One. Therefore, either the percentage should be lower, or training programmes should be provided to improve their English skills. However, the English Language Gears need to provide pedagogical guidelines about how to use the two languages most effectively. Although the Language Pillar of CLIL guided the content lecturers how to use English for different purposes (i.e., classroom interaction, English language teaching, academic content instruction), the high expectation of doing the Language Pillar should be reduced to meet what the lecturers can do and cannot do. In short, the university policy is actually one of dual-medium instruction.

7.4.1.2 Facilitating Collaboration between the Content and Language Lecturers

The lecturers in the study acknowledged limitations in their own proficiency in English and expressed a desire to further improve their English. Thus, in addition to academic English language training programmes, content lecturers should work closely with English language specialists. For example, some of the faculty's English language lecturers could assist content lecturers in the planning of the English elements of their classes. Additionally, or instead, the content lecturers could sit with English specialists to analyse video-recorded extracts of academic classes to improve their English skills and their understanding of how to use English in academic classrooms. Such collaboration might be difficult to manage because of the content lecturers' heavy workloads, and the opportunity costs involved in the English specialists' time doing this work. However, the faculty needs to initiate such collaboration in order to make the dual-medium programme effective. It would certainly be less expensive than sending staff for training overseas.

7.4.1.3 Improving Students' English Skills

The findings of the study showed that the students lacked sufficient competence in English to benefit from EMI, or even dual-medium, instruction programmes. Consideration can be given to changing the English curriculum in high schools, but

it would be a dramatic change. In the meantime, the university authorities should consider providing language learning training for potential EMI/dual-medium students. In Chapter 4, it was noted that some attempt at such provision was made, but the curriculum was not suitable to meet the needs of academic learning, nor was it sufficient in time. The university should conduct a needs and resources analysis of the students and use the results to design a syllabus of appropriate content and sufficient time to bridge the gap between the high school curriculum and dual-medium instruction.

7.4.2 Practical

This section presents practical implications concerning the dual-medium instruction model and professional development of this model.

7.4.2.1 Dual-Medium Instruction Model

This study has yielded practical implication for the lecturers to understand the pedagogical process of academic content instruction. They may lack an appreciation of systematic instruction processes, which suit their local practices. The dual-medium instruction model is designed for practical applications in the soft-discipline lessons. Such disciplines have rich linguistic features when delivering content. However, the traditional lecture ought to be carefully considered within the dual-medium instruction model at the planning stages. With the support of language resources and multimodal tools, this model can be applicable to distinct levels of difficulty of academic content and didactic units. This model emphasises the importance of instructional processes and outcomes. Figure 7.1 demonstrates such processes through a dual-medium instruction model.

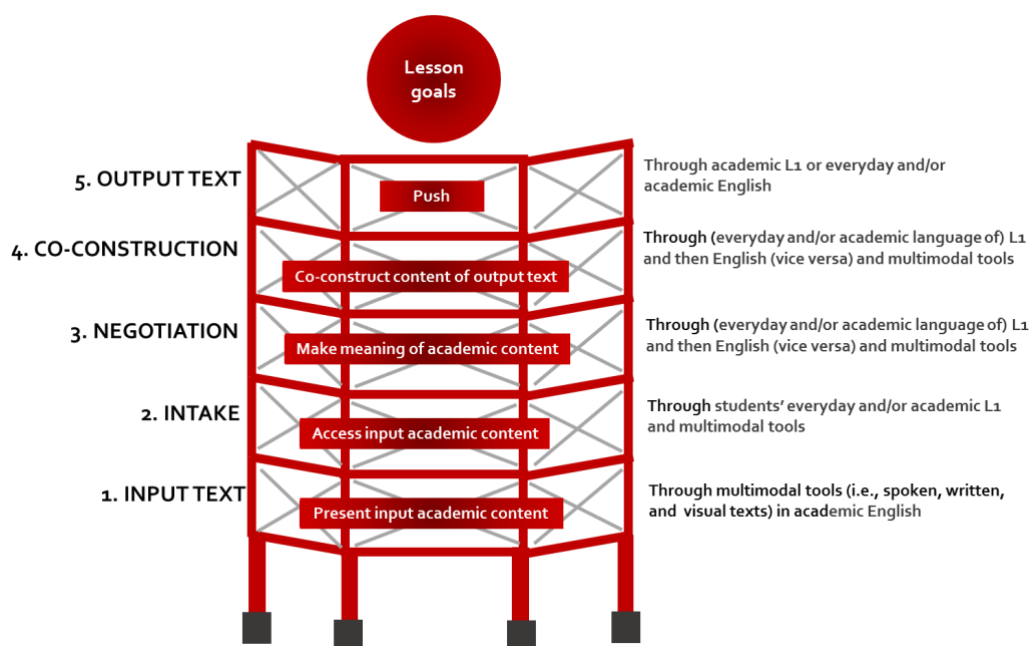


Figure 7.1: Dual-Medium Instruction Model

Sources: Integrated Barnard (2014) with Lin (2016)

The above model is an integration of work in the areas of dual-medium instruction model (Barnard, 2014) and translanguaging (Lin, 2016). Five instructional stages are introduced over one or more didactic units. To begin with, *input text*, the lecturers present English input academic content in short or long lecture modes by using multimodal tools (e.g., PowerPoint Presentation, academic article, and documentary). These input materials mainly contain academic English due to the nature of academic disciplines. The Thai language can be used to ensure that key concepts are fully transferred and received. The second stage is *intake*, where the students try to make sense of the academic input content. Indeed, they deploy their available language resources to internalise the content. The third stage is *negotiation*, when the lecturers assist the students in making more sense of academic content through negotiation of meaning among themselves using everyday and/or academic Thai first and then everyday and/or academic English and vice versa. It is expected that a full understanding of input texts can be collaboratively made. The fourth stage is *co-construction*: the lecturers facilitated the students' knowledge construction in order to produce academic texts to show their understanding of academic text. Similarly, the lecturers encourage the students to use academic L1 to form deep concepts first, followed by everyday and/or academic English. Again, multimodal tools such as offline/online dictionaries could

be used to form written English words and sentences. The final stage is *output text*. The lecturers check student understanding through the production of spoken and/or written forms. If the input text is in English, then the output text should be in Thai, and vice versa, so that by working in both languages the students can more precisely express their understanding of the academic content.

7.4.2.2 Professional Development in the Pedagogy of Dual-Medium Instruction

The professional development agenda should predominantly deal with translanguaging as pedagogy because the understanding of academic content is the most significant area. Although the term ‘translanguaging’ is new to the lecturers in the present study, they are already starting to practise this type of language performance. However, they need to have a clear understanding of translanguaging, as reviewed in Section 2.3.4 and to shift their identity from users of English as a foreign language to that of multilingual users (see Section 2.2) by understanding four aspects of the dynamics of translanguaging: language ideology, objectives, language practice, and affective factors (see Sections 2.3.4.1). So far as an ideological shift is concerned, lecturers need to recognise that the boundaries between two languages are fluid and they serve complementary purposes. The primary objective of translanguaging is for the students to achieve understanding and expression of academic knowledge through both languages. In terms of practice, the lecturers must know how to combine the two languages most effectively by using all available language resources and multimodal tools to clarify the meaning and expression of academic content. In affective terms, being free to express themselves in whichever language they choose would give the lecturers confidence as efficient multilingual users rather than ineffective users of English.

It is hoped that the further professional development will provide space for all EMI lecturers to reflect on factors that shape and inform their practices and beliefs in dual-medium instruction. Thus, a professional development agenda should be distributed over time, be grounded very thoroughly in translanguaging theory and practice, and should foster a culture of collaboration among related agents.

Current professional development programmes on EMI/CLIL/dual-medium instruction in both Anglophone and non-Anglophone countries should accommodate translanguaging. In Thailand, translanguaging seems like an effective practice since the majority of lecturers and students share common linguistic resources (Thai). The training can be done either onshore and offshore, with focus and duration dependent on the participants' linguistic and pedagogical readiness, as well as their institutions' capacities in terms of financial support and awareness of this matter.

7.4.3 Theoretical

Although English Medium Instruction is a growing global trend intended to reach the aim of internationalisation of higher education, the main theoretical implication of the study is the need for institutions to glocalise local policies and practices to achieve the overall aim. The findings of the present study cannot support the assumption of Macaro (2018) and others (e.g., the Malaysian lecturers in Hasim & Barnard, 2018) that English should be the sole medium of instruction and that the first languages of students and their lecturers can be neglected.

HomeU's glocalised policy and language practices was the attempt to achieve the international goal within a unique language landscape (see Chapters 4 and 5) grounded in the actual conditions (i.e., regulations, practices, and infrastructure) and affordances (i.e., language proficiency, resources and pedagogy).

Every national or institutional policy regarding the medium of instruction should consider what its own unique local landscape offers in terms of the above conditions and affordances, and shape the policy accordingly. In doing so, recognition needs to be made that students should be able to express their academic knowledge not only in English but also in their first language. The analysis of the findings of the study clearly indicate that the local policy should not be considered as monolingual EMI, but rather a hybrid dual-medium instruction.

In this way, the study makes a contribution to academic and professional understanding of 'language' in the EMI context.

7.5 Suggestions for Further Research

This present study employed a multi-method research design to capture different dimensions within the study of the single phenomenon of EMI. The data collection methods were: semi-structured interviews, classroom observations, stimulated recall interviews, focus group discussions, document collections, and researcher reflective journal. The data collected was systematically compared and contrasted in a detailed process of grounded analysis. These processes promoted a more comprehensive understanding of the EMI phenomenon.

Although this study focused on one regional university in Thailand, it is believed that its methodological approach could be relevant to other universities within Thailand and across Asia that share similar conditions as those of the present research setting. Further research in specific areas is recommended below.

Firstly, this study only explored language beliefs and practices in an early stage of the EMI programme implementation in one research site during a short period of time. Therefore, further (multi-) case studies could be undertaken at different stages of implementation.

To more fully explore the phenomenon and dynamics of change in EMI implementation, additional studies should include perceptions and practices of other agents (e.g., policy-makers, supporting staff, lecturers, and students) in cross-sectional or longitudinal studies.

This present study worked with lecturers in humanities and social sciences: up to now, little attention has been paid to linguistic requirements of such academic disciplines in EMI programmes. To develop a fuller picture of the different linguistic implications of ‘soft’ and ‘hard’ disciplines, comparative study could be undertaken.

Given the use of Thai and English in the present study, a systematic exploration of dual-medium instruction is needed. One issue that is worth exploring is the relative proportions of classroom language, and whether the innovative construct of English Language Gears could be a useful model in other contexts.

It would also be useful to consider the respective roles of first and target languages in this programme; in particular, whether the continuum of code-switching and translanguaging occurs in the other contexts, and the extent to which this might contribute to the students' learning strategies and outcomes. Future studies on these topics are therefore recommended.

The issue of an adequate assessment of teaching and learning EMI has attracted very little attention from the scholarly community. For example, the assessment issue should centre on: What should be reliable indicators of success in teaching and learning in EMI/dual-medium instruction environments? So, the future research should pay close attention to this topic to develop valid and practical instruments of assessment.

7.6 Final Thoughts

After a long journey of research on lecturers' beliefs and practices regarding EMI, this study has finally arrived at a further stage, in that I have become a resilient researcher to continue my new journey afterwards. Experience during undertaking my PhD thesis taught me how to collaboratively and individually construct new knowledge from the local context through rigour research processes. I have learnt that 'think globally, act locally' seems to be one of the main takeaways from the phenomenon of EMI in HASS at HomeU. That is, all universities can follow the same aim of internationalisation, but not all can practise in the same way to achieve such a valuable aim. It is actually true that HASS at HomeU behaves in such a fashion based on what the local can offer and is available to them. As far as I am aware, although contributions and implications emerging from the study cannot change all classrooms, the wish is that it will create a better classroom when related agents fully understand language practices in reality. It is hoped that the study will be the intellectual property for EMI/dual-medium instruction communities in Thailand and beyond.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Human Research Ethics Application

FEDU070/16

Approved : 19 July, 2016

Ethics Research Application



English as a Medium of Instruction in Tertiary Education: A Case Study of Lecturers' Beliefs and Practices in Thailand

Banchakarn Sameephet

Te Hononga School of Curriculum and Pedagogy

Overview

Principal Supervisor

Dr Rosemary De Luca

Research Team

Associate Professor Roger Barnard

Additional Personnel

N/A

Interest in Topic

The idea of studying lecturers' beliefs and practices regarding English as a medium of instruction (EMI) was conceived during my time working for ██████████ University ██████████ in Thailand. Recently, ██████████ authorities have introduced EMI as a new instructional policy for lecturers to apply EMI in the classroom. In this study, the general working definition of EMI is "the use of the English language to teach academic subjects in countries or jurisdictions where the first language (L1) of the majority of the population is not English" (Dearden, 2014, p. 2).

Using English as a medium of instruction in content subjects can be a challenging issue for content lecturers. For the purposes of the present study, the term "content lecturers" is defined as Thai university lecturers who use English to teach different academic subjects in humanities and social sciences areas to non-English-major undergraduate students (Thai nationals). These lecturers do not specialise in teaching English; therefore, Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), which is a competence-based teaching approach, has been adapted to support content lecturers. The fundamentals of CLIL (e.g. a focus on developing students' competence in both content and language) are applied to some undergraduate courses in every learning programme. Most colleges in ██████████ have developed different

Appendix 2: Information Letter to Lecturer Participants

Information Letter to Participants

XXX (month) 2016

Dear Assist. /Assoc. Professors _____

Greetings from Hamilton, New Zealand

I am Mr Banchakarn Sameephet, a lecturer at the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Khon Kaen University (KKU). Currently, I am a PhD candidate at Te Hononga School of Curriculum and Pedagogy, Faculty of Education, The University of Waikato, working with chief supervisor, Dr Rosemary De Luca and co-supervisor, Associate Professor Roger Barnard on the PhD research project entitled "English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) in Tertiary Education: A Case Study of Lecturers' Beliefs and Practices in Thailand". This research project is funded by KKU.

My research focuses on content lecturers' beliefs and practices regarding English as a medium of instruction in a Thai university and my foremost research objectives are to investigate real teaching practices in EMI classes and to explore beliefs regarding EMI approaches.

To do this I am conducting semi-structured interviews, completing detailed classroom observations, organising stimulated recall interviews and arranging a focus group discussion. I would be very grateful if you would agree to take part in the activities mentioned below.

Semi-structured interviews will be conducted in the second week of August 2016 in order to elicit lecturers' perspectives on EMI. Each interview will be audio-recorded. After the interviews the participants will be sent a summary to check the interview contents. This activity will last 65 minutes in total.

Classroom observations will be held during 22 August to 30 November 2016, and aim to observe actual classroom teaching practices relating specifically to EMI. One lecturer by participant will be observed by using observation checklists, field notes and audio recording. Each observation will last 120-180 minutes in total.

Document collection will be gathered before classroom observation begins. These documentary materials include lesson plans, teaching slides, handouts and other additional materials. This activity will need only five minutes or less.

After each classroom observation a post-lesson discussion will be organised in which the participants will reflect their teaching practices by giving reasons and beliefs that underpin their actual practices. Each discussion will be audio-recorded. After that, the participants will check a summary of the discussion. This activity will last 65 minutes in total.

Focus group discussions will be arranged in November to December 2016 in order for the participants to share their experiences and insights of EMI pedagogy based on their professional experience. Again, these will be audio-recorded. After that, the participants will check a summary of the discussion. This activity will last 90 minutes in total.

Participation in this research is voluntary, meaning that you may withdraw from the study at any time and this would not affect your employment in any way. Furthermore, the information you provide to me will be kept confidential. In some cases, the university authorities may request me to report my research project to them. I will present the findings in a holistic view only, thus individual cases will be not reported. It is noted that while every effort will be made to ensure confidentiality, this cannot be guaranteed. With respect to participants to receive information, my doctoral thesis, oral/written reports and other scholarly publication and/or presentations will use pseudonyms instead of your real name. These materials will be accessible worldwide through The University of Waikato Research Commons Database.

If you are willing and able to participate, could you please read and bring the attached consent form with you to the meeting. Please do not sign off on the consent form but read because I would like to discuss each point with you first.

If you agree, I would like to invite you to attend the meeting on XX (date) XXX (month) 2016 at the meeting room, 9th Floor, Zone A, English Language Department, Rattapittaya Building, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Khon Kaen University. The agenda for the meeting will include research topics, the consent form, data collection and venues and dates for the semi-structured interviews, classroom observations, stimulated recall interviews and focus group discussion.

If at any time you have questions or concerns about the conduct of the research, please feel free to contact me via email on bs128@students.waikato.ac.nz or by cell phone number on +66 8857 18991. You may also contact my supervisors Dr Rosemary De Luca via email on deluca@waikato.ac.nz or Associate Professor Roger Barnard on rbarnard@waikato.ac.nz. The Human Research Ethics Committee at the Faculty of Education at the University of Waikato (email: fedu.ethics@waikato.ac.nz), has formally approved this project.

Thank you for your consideration and support. I look forward to seeing you at the meeting in order to discuss my research project.

Sincerely,

Banchakarn Sameephet

PhD candidate at the Faculty of Education
The University of Waikato, New Zealand

Appendix 3: Informed Consent Form for Lecturer Participants

Participant Consent Form

Title of Research Project: English as a Medium of Instruction in Tertiary Education: A Case Study of Lecturers' Beliefs and Practices in Thailand

I, _____, confirm that I have read and understand the information letter of the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions and my questions have been answered to my satisfaction. Also, I understand that I have the right to ask further questions at any time. I consent to participate in Ajan Banchakarn Sameephet's PhD research project. I confirm the following statements (please tick the appropriate box for each statement):

Statements	Yes	N
1. I understand that my participation is voluntary, and I can withdraw at any time, without giving any reason and without consequences.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. I understand that I can withdraw information obtained from me until the checking of the summaries.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. I agree to participate in a semi-structured interview.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. I agree to allow Ajan Banchakarn to observe my classes.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. On behalf of my students, I agree to allow Ajan Banchakarn to observe the class.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. I agree to participate in a stimulated recall interview after the observed class.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. I agree to take part in a focus group discussion.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. I am willing to share my teaching materials with Ajan Banchakarn.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. I give my permission to Ajan Banchakarn to audio record the semi-structured interview, classroom observation, stimulated recall interview and focus group discussion.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. I have the right to have summaries of the semi-structured interview, stimulated recall interview and focus group discussion to verify on request.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. I understand that I have the right to own and request my raw data, namely the audio recording of the semi-structured interview, classroom observations, stimulated recall interview and focus group discussion.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. I understand that the audio recording of the focus group discussion will be owned not only me myself, but also other participants in the focus group.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. I understand that my identity, teaching subject and EMI Gear I have selected will be kept confidential.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14. I will keep the content of the focus group discussion confidential within the group.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. I understand that only Ajan Banchakarn and his two supervisors will have access to the data collected for this research project.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. I accept that Ajan Banchakarn will keep the data very securely for academic purposes for a period of five years before they are destroyed.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17. I understand that I will not be identified by name and subject in any publications arising from the research.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18. I understand that Ajan Banchakarn will only report holistic findings to authorities through oral and written reports, meaning that individual cases will not be reported.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19. I understand that findings of this research will be presented at conferences and written up in academic journals, and in the doctoral thesis, which will be accessible worldwide through this website http://researchcommons.waikato.ac.nz/ .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20. I understand that while every effort of Ajan Banchakarn will be made to ensure confidentiality, this cannot be guaranteed.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Name of Participant

Date

Signature

Researcher

Date

Signature

The participants should keep one copy of the consent form for his records and return one to the researcher.

Appendix 4: Semi-structured Interview Schedules

Semi-structured interview

The samples of questions for the semi-instructed interviews are listed below.

INSTRUCTION

Please answer the questions regarding EMI based on your personal perspectives.

Question to understand the reasons for shifting between Thai and English when lecturing

1. What are the reasons that influence you to shift from lecturing in Thai to English?
2. What do you think about the roles of EMI policies and practices in your institution?

Questions regarding teachers' EMI training experience

3. Could you share your experience in training how to teach content subjects in English at the Overseas University in an English-speaking country?
4. What are some of the concepts you apply to your EMI classes?

Questions about ideal EMI classroom

5. From your perspective, could you describe your ideal EMI class?
6. How might you create your ideal classes in reality?

Questions on challenges facing EMI classrooms

7. Could you please describe some problems that sometimes occur in your class?
8. How might you deal with these problems?

Questions to get more information

9. Could you give me an example of...?
10. Is there anything else you would like to add to this point?

Appendix 5: Sample of Interview Transcription

Interview with Jarad

Banchakarn: *I would like you to talk about your classroom. Now what is the subject that you teach and what Gear do you use?*

Jarad: *At the present, I teach XXX subject for second-year students, and use English as a medium of instruction for at least 12 hours. On the other hand, I use EMI only in teaching, meaning that it doesn't cover students' written report or the test in English. These regulations are under EMI paper launched by The Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences.*

Banchakarn: *Why do you use English instead of Thai?*

Jarad: *From my point of view, many foreigners come to Thailand and communicate with us in English more than in the past. For us, the limitation of Thai people is English language because English is not our mother tongue. In other words, they have obstacles to communication with foreigners. Especially, people who are working in service and administrative sectors, are lacking English skills. When we compare our country to neighbours such as such as Malaysia and Singapore where they have economic growth, their people can use English very well in class and daily life. Although Vietnam, Cambodia, and Philippines have less economic growth, they also can communicate in English very well. I think Thailand has to be better than that. Thus, I think we must rethink about teaching approaches that aid Thai people to communicate in basic English which is comprehensible to most people. I hold the view that we must modify our teaching approaches or find an approach that allows us to integrate English into teaching and learning to improve English of Thai students. We cannot hope that our students' English skills will be better immediately when we use English in class. However, at least they are familiar with English, and they gain confidence in communicate. More importantly, students realise the importance of the use of English because it is indisputable that English plays an important role in communication with Thai and foreigners. However, we cannot deny using it in everyday life. That's why I have changed my teaching by using CLIL.*

Banchakarn: *Do you think that the faculty's policy can be the motivation for changing from Thai to English in class?*

Jarad: *We can't avoid doing research because we are the researcher university. The dimension of research isn't only in our country. We have to use our proficiency and knowledge. So, EMI policy influences lecturers, and it really affects their decision that we should use English in class.*

Banchakarn: *About policy, what do you think about EMI or CLIL? What are things that administrator wants?*

Jarad: *From my understanding, CLIL isn't an approach to teach English, general vocabulary, Grammar, and the use of English. However, CLIL helps us in teaching technical terms for academic English in our content subjects. That means we don't teach English but technical term in English. We are trying to make our students understand technical terms easier. So, this teaching approach can make the student understand technical terms easily, then they can use it for doing reports or improving their own knowledge.*

Banchakarn: *Do you implement the policy to your classroom?*

Jarad: *In fact, it's really difficult to adapt CLIL in the Social Science classrooms because we normally give lecture and work on a case study. We don't focus on particular usage of one technical term, we use many technical terms in class to form students' understanding of lessons. Therefore, I have to reconsider my decision on using CLIL in my class. I have a large class where there are around 70 students. It is really hard to use or apply CLIL in such a large class. As I told you, my class is a lecture-based class that needs more time to teach. There are problems when I use CLIL in a large class. Thus, what I can do is I try to use the simple teaching approach in which aren't complicated.*

Banchakarn: *Do you think policy and EMI affect your practice or not?*

Jarad: *EMI policy doesn't affect me much because I also appreciate English is vital for teaching content. Although there is no such policy, I still do that. We have the advantage of EMI policy because it provides budget and workshops to support us. We are lucky that the faculty see its importance, and the policy supports us in terms of teaching trainings. In this case, we develop our own teaching from the workshop. However, if we think about relations between policy and teaching, it doesn't relate.*

Banchakarn: *Do you have any opinion about using English as a medium of instruction to teach in this subject?*

Jarad: *I couldn't agree more! It is really good thing, and I would like the faculty seriously pushes this policy. Especially, they should think about supported atmosphere classrooms or a method of motivating students to gain awareness of the use of English. Moreover, the value of increasing English skills should be recognised by students. From my perspective, all these things are essential, and we should support.*

Banchakarn: *In the fourth issue, it will be about training experience at the Overseas University, in an English-speaking country. Could you tell me about the experience there?*

Jarad: *CLIL has three concepts but I can't remember each detail. Mostly, CLIL is about teaching content through English which helps students in better understanding content. It is not about teaching English, but academic content. To help students gain more understanding about technical terms, CLIL has several techniques to explain the terms in each lecture. I think CLIL isn't suitable in the large class, but we can use CLIL approach to apply in the large class at the same time. I think the CLIL workshop in the Overseas University is good. It makes us understand how to teach content through English as well as have positive and opened viewpoints about this teaching approach for lecturers who has limited in English. Thus, CLIL assists us a lot about the way to teaching content, and it makes us realise that there are many methods to teach students to understand contents. When we use CLIL, apart from using English I think we can use CLIL approach in Thai medium of instruction as well since this approach is quite good.*

Banchakarn: *Do you have the concept that you apply in your class?*

Jarad: *Typically, I use lead-in techniques to begin the class. The class is integrated with English technical terms, and I explanation each term for students to gain a better understanding. However, it's very difficult for students who lack English proficiency to comprehend. Moreover, for those who open their mind for learning, they will view that it's necessary for academic content.*

Banchakarn: *About the fifth issue, please describe your ideal classroom in your mind for using CLIL or EMI.*

Jarad: *Frankly speaking, the classroom has to be a small class and can fast access internet than before. At the present, we have problems about the internet signal. Sometimes, I assign students to search information for sharing and discuss in the class, but some classes cannot access the internet. It is really important that every classroom has to have the good signal internet for supporting learning by using English. In our university, we have the problem about the internet. The signal internet isn't excellent. For example, in my class some students can access internet but some of them can't. So, the signal internet is important for this learning method.*

Banchakarn: *It is really interesting. I think you give me all answers. Do you want to add anything?*

Jarad: *The faculty has to be serious and continue about that. We have to find the way or new method that makes a success of teaching. Every programme in our faculty has to find the way to develop our teaching. It isn't about teaching, but it is*

about the first stage in which we have to create our environment that we are serious about that. It can help us to get students better than the past. Our university will have a chance to improve our teaching methods. I am sure that we can't avoid English. It depends on the way that we will develop our students. From my perspective, EMI is the best instrument.

29 August 2016

Note: This translation material was produced in the early stage of data preparation. So, the language choice might be different from the final version presented in Chapter 5. However, content and concepts remained the same.

Appendix 6: Sample of Summary of Semi-structured Interview

สรุปสาระสำคัญจากการสัมภาษณ์

เหตุผลและแรงจูงใจของอาจารย์ในการเปลี่ยนจากใช้ภาษาไทยเป็นภาษาอังกฤษในการสอนเนื้อหา ในปัจจุบันมีการเคลื่อนตัวของประชากรจากประเทศในกลุ่ม ASEAN และประเทศอื่น ๆ เข้ามาในประเทศไทย ภาษาอังกฤษจึงเป็นภาษาที่จำเป็นสำหรับการติดต่อสื่อสารเพื่อการค้าและการบริการ แต่คนไทยมีข้อจำกัดทางภาษาอังกฤษค่อนข้างมากอาจจะเป็นเพราะภาษาอังกฤษไม่ใช่ภาษาแม่ของคนไทย เมื่อเปรียบเทียบความสามารถทางภาษาอังกฤษกับประเทศในกลุ่ม ASEAN ด้วยกันถือว่าความสามารถทางภาษาของคนไทยยังอ่อนกว่าในหลาย ๆ ประเทศ โดยเฉพาะภาคการบริการและบริหาร ด้วยเหตุนี้อาจารย์จึงมีแนวคิดที่จะพัฒนาทักษะทางภาษาให้กับคนไทย โดยเริ่มจากนักศึกษา ก่อนเพราะนักศึกษาจะออกไปสู่การทำงานในภาคส่วนต่าง ๆ ในอนาคต สิ่งที่สามารถทำได้ในฐานะอาจารย์สอนเนื้อหาไม่ใช่อาจารย์สอนภาษา นั่นคือการสอนเป็นภาษาอังกฤษโดยมีการแทรกภาษาอังกฤษในการสอนเนื้อหา โดยหวังว่าทักษะทางภาษาของนักศึกษาจะพัฒนาขึ้น นักศึกษาจะมีความกล้าและมั่นใจในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษมากขึ้น

ความคิดเห็นและความเข้าใจต่อนโยบายการสอนเป็นภาษาอังกฤษและการปฏิบัติ นโยบายของมหาวิทยาลัยมีความสำคัญอย่างมากในการผลักดันให้อาจารย์ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในการสอน เพราะนโยบายเป็นตัวขับเคลื่อนการพัฒนามหาวิทยาลัย แต่ถ้าหากไม่มีนโยบายนี้มาตนเองก็จะสอนเป็นภาษาอังกฤษเพราะเห็นความสำคัญของภาษาอังกฤษในปัจจุบัน ข้อดีของนโยบายนี้คงเป็นการมีเงินทุนเสริมแรงให้อาจารย์หัดมาสอนเป็นภาษาอังกฤษมากขึ้น การเตรียมความพร้อมอาจารย์ให้ได้รับความรู้จากการอบรม เมื่อผ่านการอบรมต้องสอนเป็นภาษาอังกฤษตามข้อกำหนดของคณะ อาจารย์ได้เลือกใช้ภาษาอังกฤษระดับ 1 ตามระเบียบระบุว่าต้องสอนเป็นภาษาอังกฤษให้ครบ 12 ชั่วโมง ไม่รวมคอมพิวเตอร์ การเขียนรายงานเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ โดยส่วนตัวแล้วเห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่งกับการสอนเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ ควรจะมีการส่งเสริมอย่างจริงจัง โดยเฉพาะการจัดบรรยากาศการเรียนในชั้นเรียนและหาวิธีการกระตุ้นให้นักศึกษาเห็นความสำคัญของภาษาอังกฤษประโยชน์ที่จะได้รับหากนักศึกษาสามารถพัฒนาทักษะทางภาษาของตนเองได้

มุมมองของผู้ที่เกี่ยวข้องต่อนโยบายการสอนเป็นภาษาอังกฤษและการปฏิบัติผ่านการสะท้อนของอาจารย์ อาจารย์ในสาขาวิชาทุกคนได้ร่วมแสดงความคิดเห็นในการหารูปแบบการเรียนการสอนที่มุ่งเน้นเนื้อหาและภาษาอังกฤษให้กับนักศึกษาในสาขาเพื่อที่จะพัฒนานักศึกษาให้สามารถแข่งขันได้ในตลาดแรงงาน ดังนั้นทุกคนต่างประยুক্তหลักการการสอนเป็นภาษาอังกฤษมาใช้ในรายวิชาของตนเองเพื่อที่จะพัฒนานักศึกษาไปในทางเดียวกัน แต่ไม่ใช่ว่าทุกวิชาจะสามารถสอนเป็นภาษาอังกฤษได้ โดยเฉพาะรายวิชาที่ซับซ้อน นามธรรม และเฉพาะทางมาก ๆ ยกตัวอย่างเช่น กฎหมายของไทยและจริยธรรม เป็นต้น

นักศึกษามีความวิตกกังวลและกลัวภาษาอังกฤษเนื่องจากทักษะทางภาษาของตนเองยังต่ำกว่ามาตรฐาน จึงไม่มีความมั่นใจเมื่อเรียนเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ ซึ่งส่งผลต่อการมีส่วนร่วมใน

ชั้นเรียนเป็นอย่างยิ่ง ผู้ปกครองไม่มีปัญหาอะไรถ้าหากมีการเรียนการสอนเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ เพราะเชื่อว่าส่งผลดีต่อบุตรหลาน โดยเฉพาะทักษะทางภาษาที่เพิ่มขึ้น ด้านผู้ประกอบการ มีความชื่นชอบถ้าได้บุคลากรที่มีความรู้ความสามารถทางด้านภาษาเข้าทำงาน แต่ปัจจุบัน ผู้ประกอบการไม่มีบทบาทกับการศึกษามากนักเป็นเพียงผู้ใช้หรือจ้างงานบัณฑิตเท่านั้น ในอนาคตมหาวิทยาลัยกับหน่วยงานทั้งรัฐและเอกชนควรทำงานร่วมกันเพื่อผลิตบัณฑิตที่พึงประสงค์

ประสบการณ์การอบรมภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะเป็นสื่อกลางในการสอน แนวคิดหลักคือรูปแบบ การสอนเป็นภาษาอังกฤษคือไม่ได้สอนภาษาอังกฤษให้นักศึกษาแต่เป็นการใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ และกิจกรรมเพื่อเสริมสร้างการเรียนรู้ให้เกิดความเข้าใจมากยิ่งขึ้นไม่ว่าเป็นเนื้อหาหรือ คำศัพท์เฉพาะทาง สิ่งที่เขาไปปรับใช้คือการนำเข้าสู่บทเรียน มีสอดแทรกคำศัพท์และการ อธิบายความหมาย ห้องเรียนการสอนเป็นภาษาอังกฤษในอุดมคติ ห้องเรียนควรเป็น ห้องเรียนขนาดเล็กหมายถึงจำนวนนักศึกษาไม่มากและมีสื่ออุปกรณ์เพื่อสนับสนุนการ เรียนรู้ที่ดี เช่นอินเทอร์เน็ตความเร็วสูง ที่ทุกคนสามารถสืบค้นข้อมูลได้ในห้องเรียน นักศึกษาต้องเปิดใจรับการเรียนเป็นภาษาอังกฤษและมีส่วนร่วมในชั้นเรียน ปัญหาหรือความ ท้าทายที่จะเกิดขึ้นในห้องเรียนที่สอนเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ การนำหลักการ CLIL มาใช้ในการ สอนศาสตร์สังคมศาสตร์นั้นค่อนข้างยากพอสมควรเพราะอาจารย์เน้นการเลคเชอร์เป็นหลัก และมีเสริมด้วยการอภิปรายกรณีศึกษา การจัดสอนเน้นเนื้อหาเป็นหลักไม่เน้นการสอน ไวยากรณ์และคำศัพท์ แต่เน้นให้นักศึกษาเข้าใจคำศัพท์เฉพาะทางและความหมาย เนื่องจาก สอนนักศึกษาจำนวนมากจึงต้องเน้นการบรรยายเป็นหลัก การบรรยายเองก็ใช้เวลา ค่อนข้างมากจึงไม่สามารถประยุกต์ใช้หลักการ CLIL

ทิศทางของการสอนเป็นภาษาอังกฤษในอนาคตในระดับอุดมศึกษาไทย การสอนเป็น ภาษาอังกฤษจะเพิ่มมากขึ้นเพราะหลายฝ่ายเห็นความสำคัญของภาษาอังกฤษและต้องใช้ใน ทุกสาขาวิชาแกนในทุกหลักสูตร จะเกิดขึ้นได้ก็ต่อเมื่อมหาวิทยาลัยจัดบรรยากาศและ สภาพแวดล้อมที่ภาษาอังกฤษมีบทบาทในชีวิตประจำวันของนักศึกษามากขึ้นอย่างเช่นมี นักศึกษาต่างชาติเพิ่มขึ้นนักศึกษา เมื่อมีนักศึกษาต่างชาติมากขึ้นนักศึกษาไทยก็จะมี โอกาสได้สื่อสารเป็นภาษาอังกฤษมากขึ้น มีระบบที่เอื้อการเรียนการสอนเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ เช่นอาคารสถาน สื่ออุปกรณ์ คอมพิวเตอร์และอินเทอร์เน็ตที่มีความพร้อม ด้านทักษะทาง ภาษาอังกฤษของนักศึกษาก็มีส่วนในปีการศึกษาหน้าเป็นต้นไป ทางสาขาจะเพิ่มค่าคะแนน ทักษะทางภาษาอังกฤษของผู้ที่จะเข้าศึกษา จากเดิมต่ำกว่า 50 เปอร์เซ็นต์เป็น 50 เปอร์เซ็นต์ นั้นหมายความว่านักศึกษาที่จะเข้าเรียนสาขานี้ได้ต้องได้คะแนนภาษาอังกฤษ สูงขึ้นเพราะอาจารย์มองว่าถ้าทักษะทางภาษาเขาดีก็จะสามารถเรียนเป็นภาษาอังกฤษได้ดี ขึ้นและอาจารย์สามารถพัฒนาผู้เรียนได้อย่างเต็มความสามารถ อาจารย์มองว่าควรจะมี เริ่มจากการคัดกรองผู้เรียนก่อนเป็นอันดับแรก หากผู้เรียนมีทักษะความสามารถทางภาษาดีแล้ว ก็จะสามารถเรียนได้ดี และต้องมีการเรียนการสอนเป็นภาษาอังกฤษที่ต่อเนื่องจนจบการศึกษาระหว่าง ทางก็ต้องพัฒนาการเรียนการสอนอยู่เสมอ

5 October 2016

Appendix 7: Classroom Observation Checklist

Classroom Observation Checklist

Number:

Date: _____ Subject: _____ Lecturer:

_____ English Gear 1 2 3

Move	First words	Time start	Time end	Type of Move	Category	Note
1						
2						
3						
4						
5						
6						
7						
8						
9						
10						

Observer: _____

The focus of this observation checklist is the use of English and Thai of content lecturers while teaching academic subject through English.

Categories of Teacher Talk in EMI Classes

Categories	Types of moves in English and/or Thai
1. Present <i>presenting information</i>	explaining concept, giving definition, translating, giving example, suggesting some concepts to students, repairing incorrect information
2. Elicit <i>activating students to say something</i>	questioning, motivating students to share idea, checking students' understanding
3. Direct <i>directing students to do something</i>	asking students to select information, telling students to find an answer, requesting students to give an answer, requesting students to have physical response
4. Organise <i>managing learning</i>	reviewing, previewing, setting objective, signalling (e.g. now, right, let's), summarising, grouping students, arranging activity, following up, checking readiness
5. Evaluate <i>assessing students' work (positive or negative)</i>	giving feedback, criticising students' work, rating students' work
6. Sociate <i>promoting rapport</i>	providing anecdote, using humour, having small talk
7. Respond <i>reacting students' utterance</i>	answering questions, accepting students' answers, showing opinion, agreeing disagreeing, accepting
8. L1 <i>working on Thai language</i>	allowing, forbidding, promoting,
9. L2 <i>working on English language</i>	allowing, forbidding, promoting, encouraging, correcting language errors
10. L2 Support <i>supporting language for learning</i>	allowing students to use language tools (e.g. dictionary, glossary, smartphone), using themselves as a language resource
11. Other	filling dead air, showing politeness, apologising, calling attention, encouraging, praising

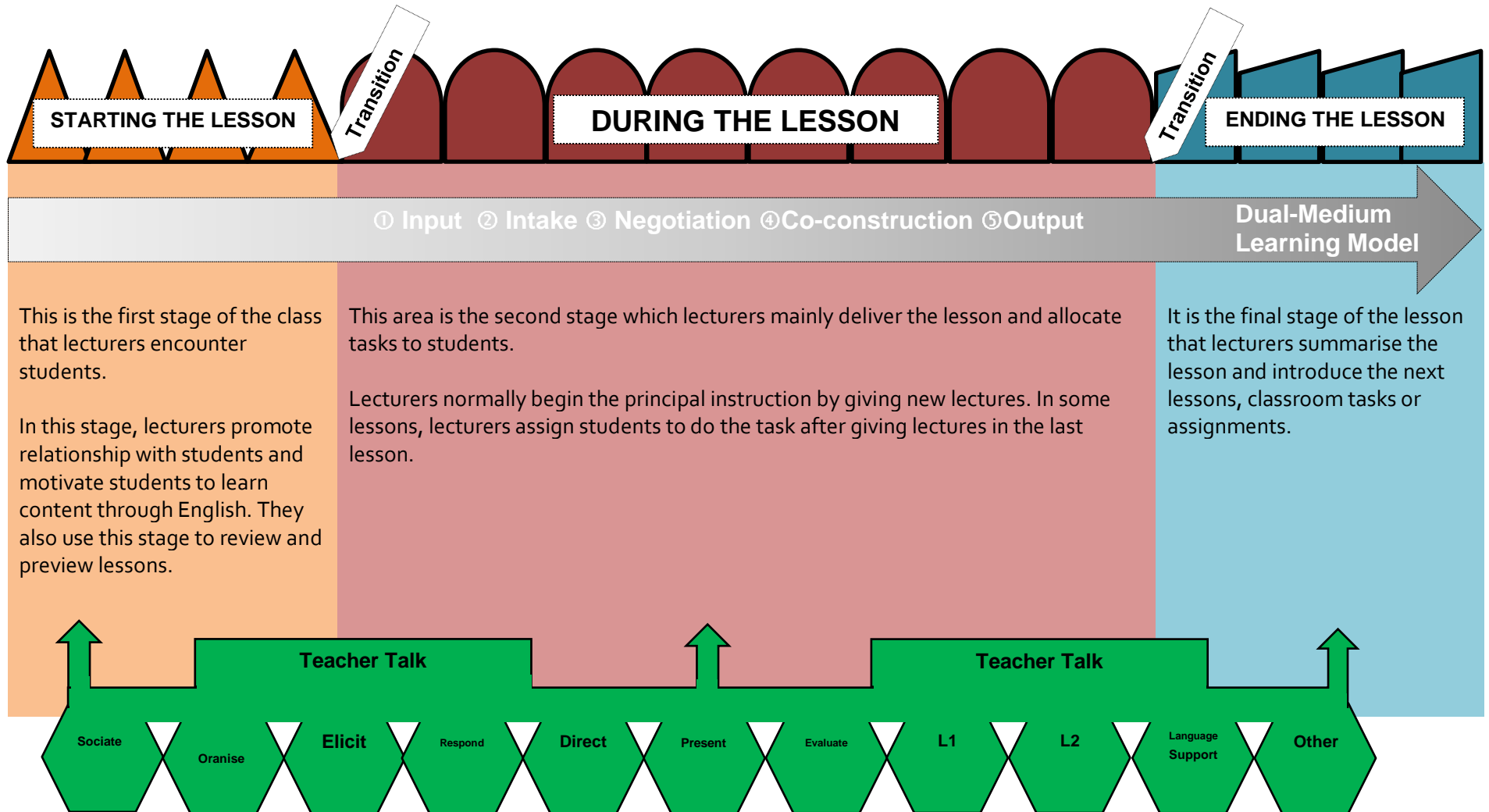
Appendix 8: Sample of Classroom Observation Field Note

Bodin's Class

1. Bodin greets the class by using simple English and used online games to motivate students to learn and use English. He divided students into groups and play quiz games to review lesson.
2. The class full of interaction between students and students, and students and tasks. But there was no interaction with lecturer while answering quiz. During this, Bodin facilitated learning. However, Bodin took place when showing answers and giving explanations.
3. He let students presented their work in Thai and gave comment at the end of their presentation. Sometimes, Bodin, interrupted students' presentation when they produced simple mistakes in terms of Thai and English. He hardly gave negative feedback or judge students' work. He always raised questions for students to think or evaluate their own work.
4. The class used Thai as the medium of instruction. Bodin used English for classroom language, simple English language to communicate in class. Thai as input main content.
5. He suggests the points for students and give examples. He allows students to use English as the basic language to communicate and Thai as the main language of instruction.
6. He allows student to work in a group using graphic organizers to display what they know and to check their understanding.
7. Students used Thai while working in groups. He motivates students that this task is not difficult to do but it just has long texts.
8. He walked around the room and visits each group to see their progress rather than giving advice. Most of students did not asked Bodin. The class spent a lot of time to complete the task. Bodin extended the time for students to complete their task.
9. Students gain content (input) in English but they show what they know and understand (output) through Thai (written and oral forms). Students used mobile phones to check meaning.
10. After listening to students' presentation, Bodin explained more about the contents since students missed some points or gain the wrong info.

26 September 2016

Appendix 9: Areas of Classroom Observation in EMI Classrooms



Appendix 10: Stimulated Recall Interview Samples

Stimulated Recall Interview

GUIDELINES:

These are sample questions of stimulated recall interviews. However, the eventual questions will be derived from the observed teaching practice.

The stimulus will be **either** selected extracts from the audio-recorded lesson, **or** transcripts of key episodes. The choice of which stimulus may largely depend on the interval between the observed lesson and the post-lesson discussion.

If the SR takes place within an hour after the observed lesson, it may be possible to select and note the timings of (8) key episodes on the digital voice recorder and have these ready to play in the SR session.

Within an hour, it is unlikely that accurate transcripts of (8) extracts can be written/printed.

If the SR is a few hours after the lesson. It should be enough time to select and note **both** the timings of the key episodes on the VCR **and** produce accurate transcripts. The decision can then be made to use either **or** both in the SR session.

Prior to the ST discussion, the selected episodes will be based on the Observation Checklist and accompanying field notes, applying Bowers' interactional framework. The categories below in UPPER CASE are not, of course to be used with the teacher, but only for the interviewer's own reference.

INSTRUCTION

Please listen to this part, (or read this transcript) and tell me why, at the time, you made the decision in the particular teaching event?

1. **ORGANISE**

Why did you summarise the key points of the lesson in THAI and translate this into English? (or vice-versa)

2. **PRESENT:**

When you explained this (word, phrase, term, concept), what was the reason for your choice of language (THAI or English)

Could you tell me the reasons why you used THAI/English to introduce this topic?

3. **DIRECT:**

After giving the instruction in THAI/English, why did you decide to change pair work activity to group work activity?

4. **PRESENT:**

Could you tell me the reasons why you provided glossaries of key terms in English/THAI?

5. **EVALUATE**

Listen to what you said after the student spoke: why did you decide to give feedback to the student in THAI/English?

7. **SOCIATE**

In this extract you (shared a joke) with the class; why did you decide to use THAI/English to do so

8. **RESPOND**

Here the student asked you something in THAI; why did you decide to use THAI/English in your reply?

Probing questions (and *suggested starters*)

OK, I see what you mean; how did the students react to this decision

I understand what you mean: what would have happened if you had used the other language?

That's very interesting; can you explain that in a little more detail

That's very clear; Could you please elaborate more on this point?

What do you think now about that decision?

Appendix 11: Sample of Stimulated Recall Interview Transcription

Stimulated recall interview with Tanya

Banchakarn

Before we go into deep details, I'd like you to reflect your classroom about what went or didn't go as planned. And why?

Tanya: *What didn't go as planned was the students didn't recall a picture although it was shown 2 times. It maybe that they got nervous when a stranger was monitoring them or they're afraid of making a mistake. In fact, post-test should be stimulating their memory. They should have got 8-9 out of ten points. I wanted to analyze their memory about what they had studied. They might not possibly know the vocabularies because normally when I made a multiple-choice test, I made distractors. This's what didn't go as planned. Whereas what went as planned was they're able to set objectives or goal being guided. When I guided them by asking that how they did to assess student's knowledge, then they changed the objectives. They did quite well in spite of the fact that they hadn't studied teaching before. Moreover, I expected them to respond to me, but they didn't. Perhaps a lot of students who responded to me well was absent at that time. In that period lesson, XXX and a fourth-year student, who liked to answer my questions, rarely answered my questions or responded to me. The students should have answered the questions about IT issues. They weren't probably confident in using English or they probably concerned for you monitoring their use of English. That day they dared not speak English in spite of the fact that they usually responded to me well. A case of what not going as planned was they took a longer time than normal to do an activity; setting goal. Especially a group of the students who sat in the back of the classroom took a long time to set goals because most of their peers were absent. Every group consisted of 5 members. That day every fourth-year student was present, while, there're only 2-3 of the third-year students in a group. Actually 2 boys in the back were absent frequently, but today they showed up. Meanwhile, the students who participate in the activities well were absent. Thus, they do the activity slowly.*

Banchakarn: *What was the biggest problem in the classroom?*

Tanya: *The biggest problem was they didn't speak English with confidence because I taught through EMI. However, I informed them that they're allowed to use Thai in the class, and I wasn't going to assess their English knowledge. I just employed the use of EMI. And power point presentation should be presented in English in order that they could be familiar with technical terminologies that they should know. Furthermore, at least they could gradually practice and improve their English. I didn't want them to think that English was hard. But I just wanted them to get used*

to using English. Previously, I told them that I sometimes speak English incorrectly, but I still tried to use English in order that they could understand what I was asking them.

Banchakarn: *Were you satisfied with your English?*

Tanya: *No. I wasn't. I am not an English teacher and good at English. When I was an undergraduate student, I got C or D+ in English. I didn't think I would be a teacher, so I didn't give precedence to English. Then when I was Master's degree student, English became necessary for me. After that, I have been a teacher, and I realized that I should be practicing English because I contacted with foreign teacher and took them to the conference meeting. Furthermore, all of the texts were English. However, my English wasn't improving much. Until I was a doctoral student. I do a thesis so that I had to practice my English and read English texts. Moreover, I was reinforced to pass CUTEF. After passing the text, I took English translation and speaking course. I needed to practice English every day or I couldn't use English confidently and my English wasn't improved. When I had been in a foreign country, I preferred being introvert to being controvert. I mostly did the thesis alone. I didn't talk to anybody except when I went to see my advisor once a week.*

Banchakarn: *Which country did you go?*

Tanya: *England. I went to see my advisor once a week. He always asked me to tell him what I had read. Then he assigned me to read books and talk to people whom he introduced to me. I didn't have friends because I didn't have many classes. My main purpose was to do the thesis and consult the advisor, so I didn't have any classes and know anybody. I didn't talk or hangout with anyone. However, I could be able survive and communicate in English-native environments although I sometimes made grammatical errors. I practiced my English by watching English movies and copying native accent and pronunciation.*

Banchakarn: *You did great in the classroom. What strategy did you use to survive in English class?*

Tanya: *It maybe that I have to speak English with my husband every day. Many times, I used some words and he didn't understand me because he told me that I had an American accent. Yet, I could differentiate British and American accent. He also told me that I had been staying in American for 4-5 months, so I had American accent. But he didn't tell me if what I was saying was right or wrong. I get used to circumlocution strategy. I usually explained indirectly until he told me specific words. Thus, I usually explained something in an indirect way. And tried to use simple word in order that the students could understand.*

Banchakarn: *Yes. It's easy for you.*

Tanya: *Yes. It's easy for me to survive in English class. Sometimes when I spoke incorrectly, I tried to correct myself.*

Banchakarn: *"Is a midterm test, right? How was your test? Very bad. My son failed in Thailand. Thirteen points he gets. Fifteen points. But he said he's good in English and Chinese. He got full scores from Chinese and English. And I asked what he wants to be. He said he wants to be a farmer."*

Now you're done reflecting your class. Then we'll move on to deep details of your speech. "Is a midterm test, right? How was your test? Very bad. My son failed when studying in Thailand. Thirteen points he got. Fifteen points. But he said he's good at English and Chinese. He got full scores in Chinese and English. And I asked what he wants to be. He said he wants to be a farmer."

Were you playing a joke on the students? Why did you play an English joke instead of a Thai joke?

Tanya: *I was trying to talk about scores to introduce them simple words other than academic English. I tried to make a small with them and to relax them. At first, they became greatly worried about English, so I tried to talk about general topics in English.*

Banchakarn: *Why did you play a joke?*

Tanya: *I tried to relax them, and they wouldn't be anxious about the use of English in the classroom. Other than that, I played the joke in order to wait for the students who were on their ways to the class. I did talk about general things with them. At that moment, it's a midterm time. Most of the students were my devisee. Before starting a lesson, I usually asked to know their life and their study to follow up them.*

Banchakarn: *"Do you remember about this picture? What is it? Classroom in 20th century." When you asked a question, they answered your question. Then you repeated their answer. Why did you repeat their English and ask English question?*

Tanya: *They're unconfident in answering. If I repeated what they spoke out even though it's correct or incorrect, they become more confident in speaking English. In addition to building up their confidence, I repeated their answer so that every student could hear their classmate's answer clearly because they answered too softly.*

Banchakarn: "We have talked about learning style. *Right?* What is it, learning style? What is learning style? How many types of learning style? Three. Visual learner, listening learner and what's next? The last one is ... *Pardon.* Tactile, *right ka?* *There are* auditory, visual, tactile learners *naka.* Three types of learning style. ... (14.25) fits most instruction means" *You used English to tell what they had studied. Why did you use English in place of Thai?*

Tanya: *These students had studied this lesson in English already they had taken a test to know what learning style they had. Then I tried to get them recalling about 3 types of learning style. They seemed not remember. They remembered "visual learner." They didn't remember auditory because it's a technical terminology, but they knew that it defined as students who liked to listen. They said listening learner. Moreover, they didn't remember kinesthetics learners, but they knew it defined as students who liked to practice. I used English to ask questions whenever they had studied that lesson, and I thought they might remember.*

Banchakarn: They answered in English in place of Thai even though they didn't give a specific word.

Tanya: But they knew what it meant.

Banchakarn: "*Do you give examples of E-learning management system? What are LMS programs? Have you ever studied this? Why did you say in Thai in place of English?*

Tanya: They didn't study deep details of this lesson, but they had homework about E-learning management system. Thus, they might not understand why I used English and what E-learning management system was. Other than that, I tried to guide them in Thai and to relax them because they had been studying in English previously.

Banchakarn: Next, "*you can answer in Thai. I haven't told you that you can't answer in Thai. What's next, sequence?*" *You allowed the student to give a Thai answer. Then you asked an English question that was "What's next?"*

Tanya: *Before asking this question, I asked an English question which was about the need assessment. Typically, I asked them every time about what learner analysis, class analysis and content analysis was because they had to study about design after this. Many times, they could answer correctly in Thai. At that time, I didn't expect that they could answer in English. I wanted them to remember since they're going to study about "design." When they didn't give an English answer, I allowed them to give a Thai answer to reduce their anxiety.*

Banchakarn: "About design we know about Bloom's taxonomy already. We will set goals and objectives of E-learning. *What is a good objective, ka?* How to set good objectives? *Not too general. What is a good objective, ka?*" Why did you ask both Thai and English question?

Tanya: *I wanted them to know how to ask this question "How to set a good objective?" in Thai and English. I was afraid they didn't understand if I asked an English question. So, I asked a Thai question, and then I translated it in English. Sometimes I used English sentences and translated into Thai later. It depended. However, they knew Thai together with English sentences.*

Banchakarn: "Teachers talk all the times? No. What should we do?" *This's a short time to ask an English question. After the student answered, you said "No."*

Tanya: *They answered "No."*

Banchakarn: *You repeated their answer.*

Tanya: *I did. That's because I wanted to ask the next question. If not, how did they do next?*

Banchakarn: "We will set objectives *naka*. Please work in groups. Your group that you have responsibility for information retrieval." Why did you told them to make a group in English instead of Thai?

Tanya: *I used this instruction frequently. They might know what they should do after hearing "work in group." I didn't translate English sentences which I used often, and the students were familiar with those.*

Banchakarn: "Time almost finish. I give you just five minutes, but I think now you ten minutes ready *Assessment. Information Retrieval...*".

Tanya: *The students asked what the difference between goal and objective was. I clarified that goal was a destination that leaders wanted students to get, while, objective was a measure of the progress to get the destination.*

Banchakarn: *Why did you clarify in Thai? Was it a complex concept?*

Tanya: *Yes, it was. They didn't understand unless I clarified in Thai.*

Banchakarn: *They're easy but confusing.*

Tanya: *Yes, they are. The students would understand the difference and similarity between goal and objective better when they did an exercise. I clarified in Thai to help them understand better.*

Banchakarn: *"Information retrieval evaluation. Try to search information retrieval evaluation. R-I-E-V-A. have E too V-E before R-I-E-V-A-L. Next is evaluation." Your role was changed. You spelled a word for them. You weren't only a content teacher.*

Tanya: *I was explaining this to a group of the students who missed the class. They didn't catch up the latest assignment. They thought that I was evaluating them. Then I explained that evaluation was content that they had to study and search about information retrieval evaluation. They didn't know this word, so I had to spell it for them. They couldn't find the result of searching unless I told them its spelling.*

Banchakarn: *"Your friend told that goal goal is... naka. Students have understanding and skills about information retrieval. Objective is a measurement of student's knowledge." Could you tell me what's happening at that moment? If I'm right you're translating what the students wrote in Thai. Why did you translate the sentences from Thai into English?*

Tanya: *I wanted them to know these sentences in English. However, I didn't expect them to have a good English writing skill. I tried to teach them that if they wanted to convey these Thai messages to other people, they could say these English sentences. So, I had to help them in translating Thai sentences. In the future, they had to write English sentences so they should know. As I am responsible for Gear 1. I don't expect them to be fluent in English writing.*

Banchakarn: *"What is a goal? Learners know and understand the definition of indexing and creating indexing. I'm not telling that if this is wrong or right. Let's take a look at a goal first and an objective later. Goal is a destination which requires learners to know and understand. Whereas, objective is learners can explain the definition of indexing. Next..." You're reading Thai sentences, and you then translated to English?*

Tanya: *My teaching format is changeable. It depends on the situations. For example, if I were speaking Thai at that time, I would translate in English later. As this case, I gave an English example previously. Then I wanted them to translate the Thai sentence that their classmate had written. To illustrate, I asked them that what an objective was, they ultimately said word by word gradually. I tried to stimulate them. However, my teaching format was changed according to the situation at that moment.*

Banchakarn: "Is it okay? The objective of searching tools" You're asking for their opinion that if it was okay, but they answered nothing.

Tanya: *I asked them that if the objective was acceptable, but nobody answered me. Generally, if no one answered my question, I called upon the student's name to answer me. I suddenly saw XXX playing Facebook, so she was called to answer my question. More importantly, I wanted her to concentrate on the class. In spite of the fact that her group work had been presented, she should listen to the others. That's because I wanted to get their attention to the class.*

Banchakarn: You could use Thai. But why did you use English?

Tanya: *Another reason was when I saw her playing Facebook, I wanted her to be surprised by an English question and to draw her attention to what she was studying. In fact, I could use Thai or English, but I decided to use English in order to draw her attention.*

Banchakarn: "Your classmate, XXX said student can....you're doing well to answer. One by one can explain the importance of information retrieval evaluation. What's next? What's the second objective? Let's think about it. What's next?" *After the students had spoken in Thai, you translated in English.*

Tanya: *I did that because I wanted to help them. As I informed you previously, he tried to speak English, but his English seemed not work out well, so I did him a favour to let him know that I didn't leave him behind for sure. Thus, my purpose was to help him when he couldn't think of any English words.*

Banchakarn: "If you can, just try to speak English. Hello"

Tanya: *They always spoke Thai in the class, and then I tried to engage them in speaking English. I didn't monitor them about if their English was wrong or right. They should help each other and not be shy because they had the same English skill level. No one in the class had the most advanced English abilities. In accordance with the classroom rule, they must not criticize their peer's mistakes by laughing so that their peers could speak English with confidence.*

Banchakarn: Did you think they're able to understand when you spoke English to motivate them to speak English?

Tanya: *Perhaps they could understand. They said "Hello" back to me because they knew that I was trying to tell them to speak English. Afterwards, they continue*

speaking Thai. They always knew my instructions or what I wanted them to do but they couldn't formulate English sentences and they also lost their confidence.

Banchakarn: "Procedure" *The students pronounced it as /prə'si:.dju:s/, while you pronounced it as /prə'si:.dʒər/.*

Tanya: *Is it pronunciation /prə'si:.dʒər/? I tried to show them the correct pronunciation, but I didn't tell them directly that if they were wrong. Then they realized that they mispronounce. They finally corrected themselves. I didn't tell them directly that they pronounce incorrectly but I would correct them instead. I wanted them to speak English confidently. I couldn't ignore when they're pronouncing wrongly so I had to lead them to the correct way.*

Banchakarn: "How do you teach each type of the content? First, you need to read the explanation. Start from the easy one,..." *First you guided them the scope of the content in Thai and you explained in English. Why did you use two languages?*

Tanya: *My class is bilingual. I told them to get in a group. Moreover, the instruction, "Start from the easy one", was simple and they knew that they should start from the easy one. In the first place, they looked confused, but finally they comprehend after I tried to indicate what each content was. For example, interpersonal skill defined as to interact with each other, so I tried to exemplify this word. Some groups of them understand me immediately. Meanwhile, some groups didn't understand, so I tried to use simple sentences to communicate with them.*

Banchakarn: "Makeable Understandable choosing a tool. If this key word doesn't mean a tool, it means types of indexing." *You're interacting to a student because he was misconcepting. Why did you explain in Thai?*

Tanya: *At that time, I talked to the student in private. I wasn't talking to the whole students, so I explained in Thai. One more thing, he didn't know that weather indexing was a tool or a standard. I was afraid they would be still confused with English explanation. In reality, they didn't study about indexing with me. They possibly knew indexing from another subject. The fourth-year students were studying this, meanwhile, they didn't know what index and retrieval information was. Hence, in their opinion, indexing was associated with the librarian's perspectives. As for information retrieval information, indexing was a word for retrieval. They're misconcepting, so I was leading to the direct concept. I didn't tell them directly that they misunderstood because they hadn't had studied this subject yet.*

Banchakarn: "Answer. Go and look around. Is it same or different from your group?" You're giving instructions hoping them to do something.

Tanya: *I had them make a group and get a piece of paper. And then they had to read other group's work and compared your friends' work with theirs. I avoided using a word "compare" because I didn't want them to feel inferior. Besides that, I wasn't sure that if they understand the meaning of "compare." They definitely knew the meaning of difference and similarity. Conversely, if I used the word "compare", they might think that they would be compared with their classmates. I used a phrase "look around" instead. While they're looking at their peers' work, I didn't tell the correct answer as I wanted them to see their peers' answer.*

Banchakarn: "Fact is unique. *Is this right? Are you correct? Fact, unique, specific information that I will answer the questions, who, where, when. Example of facts, data, list, historical, event. Is number 1 correct?*" You're giving the definition.

Tanya: *Yes. I had them match the definition with the words. Then I presented the correct answer on the screen. Also, I had them read after me so that they got used to pronouncing. I aimed at getting them listening to the correct pronunciation though I didn't pronounce completely correctly. Concerning the assignment last week, I assigned them to look up the definition of the words given and write in Google doc. As a result, they had got the definition of pedagogical stating that to beat around the bush in Thai. Another example was authority meant a fly.*

Banchakarn: *Did you think that if they should be aware of something?*

Tanya: *Yes. They couldn't trust in anything from Google. I told them that sometimes it mistranslated. They'd better rely on a dictionary or believable dictionary websites. I permitted them to use the internet or ask me. I had them compare the definition from Google translation with definition from any believable online dictionaries, such as Longman. Then they knew that pedagogical didn't mean to beat around the bush in Thai, but it's relevant to teaching and learning.*

Banchakarn: "Thank you. Ok. Next stage, we will the instructional strategy. We will know about the sequence to put the content and activity in your class. But I think today is enough for you. Enough. *Are you okay? We're going to make a lesson on this next week." You used the two languages and previewed the next lesson. Why did you use the two languages? And why did you use English before Thai?*

Tanya: *I introduced the vocabularies they're going to study next week. Just in case some students looked up the meaning of the vocabularies before schedule. As I said,*

my teaching slides contained 100 percent of English content, so Thai wasn't found on the slides. They maybe looked up the meaning beforehand because they must complete work sheet every week until E-learning outputs met requirement. In conclusion, I introduced the vocabularies that they're going to study in order that some of them would look up the meaning before schedule.

30 September 2016

Note: This translation material was produced in the early stage of data preparation. So, the language choice might be different from the final version presented in Chapter 5. However, content and concepts remained the same.

Appendix 12: Sample of Summary of Stimulated Recall Interview

สรุปลงสาระสำคัญของอภิปรายหลังการสอน

ผลสะท้อนการสอนเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ

เหตุการณ์ที่ไม่คาดคิดเกิดขึ้นตอน Review คือ นักศึกษาเงียบไม่ตอบคำถามเกี่ยวกับสิ่งที่ได้เรียนไปแล้วใน Class ที่แล้ว ทั้งที่ได้อ้างถึงรูปภาพประกอบที่เป็นสื่อการเรียนที่ผ่านมาก แต่ นักศึกษาส่วนใหญ่ไม่สามารถตอบคำถามได้อาจเป็นเพราะตื่นเต้นที่มีการสังเกตการสอน และมีคนแปลกหน้าอยู่ในห้องด้วยหรือไม่ หรือไม่กล้าตอบเพราะกลัวตอบผิดก็เป็นได้

ผลการทดสอบหลังเรียนที่เน้นหรือกระตุ้นความจำของนักศึกษาออก มาไม่ดีนักต่ำกว่า 8 เต็ม 10 ผลน่าจะได้ดีกว่านี้ หรืออาจเป็นเพราะนักศึกษาไม่เข้าใจหรือไม่รู้คำศัพท์ต่าง ๆ หรือไม่มีความจำจริง ๆ ก็เป็นไปได้ อาจารย์ไม่ทราบแน่ชัดว่าเป็นเพราะสาเหตุใด

สิ่งที่ตรงกับความคาดหวังคือ นักศึกษาสามารถทำกิจกรรมตามที่ได้ set goal, set objective ไว้ในระดับหนึ่งภายใต้คำแนะนำของอาจารย์ เช่น ให้นักศึกษาออกแบบจุดประสงค์การเรียนรู้ที่วัดผลได้เชิงประจักษ์ ในนักศึกษาสามารถเปลี่ยนหรือปรับงานได้ตามคำแนะนำ ผลงานก็น่าพอใจสำหรับนักศึกษาที่ไม่เคยเรียนการเรียนการสอนมาก่อน

คาดหวังว่านักศึกษาจะพูดสื่อสารในชั้นเรียนมากกว่านี้ แต่เขาไม่ค่อยพูดอาจเป็นเพราะมีนักศึกษาที่พูดเก่งและให้ความมีมติขาดเรียนเยอะ แต่มีนักศึกษากลุ่มหนึ่งที่ชอบตอบคำถามอยู่เป็นประจำแต่วันนี้ไม่ค่อยตอบดูเงียบผิดปกติ และมีนักศึกษาที่มีความรู้ด้าน IT หากถามด้าน IT เขาน่าจะตอบได้แต่ไม่ตอบอาจจะเป็นเพราะนักศึกษาไม่มั่นใจในภาษาของตนเอง หรือนักศึกษาอาจจะเข้าใจผิดว่ามีการทำวิจัยเกี่ยวกับภาษาอังกฤษที่ใช้ในห้องเรียน นักศึกษามีท่าทางกังวลขึ้นมาโดยปกติแล้วเวลาที่ซักถามแบบไม่เป็นทางการนักศึกษาก็จะตอบทั้งไทยและอังกฤษ สาเหตุอย่างหนึ่งคือนักศึกษาใช้เวลาในการทำงานกลุ่มในห้องเรียนมากเกินไปที่กำหนดจึงทำให้เวลาในการพูดในชั้นเรียนหายไปพอสมควร และมีนักศึกษบางกลุ่มไม่สนใจเรียนและไม่ให้ความร่วมมือเท่าที่ควร

นักศึกษากลุ่มใหญ่มีปัญหาใหญ่คือทักษะความสามารถการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษ โดยเฉพาะทักษะพูด อีกทั้งยังไม่กล้าที่แสดงออก แต่อาจารย์มีการกระตุ้น ลดภาวะความกดดันและสร้างทัศนคติที่ดีต่อการเรียนเป็นภาษาอังกฤษอยู่ประจำคือนักศึกษาสามารถใช้ภาษาไทยได้ไม่ได้ห้าม และไม่มีการประเมินภาษาอังกฤษของนักศึกษาแต่ประเมินเนื้อหา มีการแทรกภาษาอังกฤษในการเรียนการสอนทุกครั้งอย่างน้อย PowerPoint เป็นภาษาอังกฤษตลอด เพราะนักศึกษาได้คำศัพท์ในสาขาวิชาที่ต้องรู้และคุ้นชิน ส่วนการรับรู้ภาษานั้นก็รับได้เท่าที่ตนเองได้ ให้มีการฝึกฝนอยู่เรื่อย ๆ อย่างน้อยไม่ต้องการให้นักศึกษารู้สึกกังวลว่าภาษาอังกฤษมันเป็นเรื่องยาก แค่ให้เขาคุ่นเคยเฉย ๆ เท่านั้น และภาษาที่อาจารย์ใช้ไม่ได้ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษถูกต้อง แต่ก็ใช้ไปเรื่อย ๆ อย่างน้อยให้นักศึกษาเข้าใจว่าอาจารย์กำลังถามอะไรก็พอ

นักศึกษาใช้วิธีแปลเอกสารประกอบการสอนที่เป็นภาษาอังกฤษทั้งหมดโดยใช้ Google Translation ผลที่ออกมาคือมีความผิดพลาดในการแปลเยอะมาก สิ่งที่นักศึกษาแปลมาไม่สื่อความหมายเลย นักศึกษาน่าจะได้ awareness อะไรบางอย่างในการเลือกใช้ website ในการแปลคือทำให้รู้ว่าไม่ควรเชื่อทุกอย่างที่แปลมานักศึกษาคาร์ใช้ dictionary ที่มีความน่าเชื่อถือมากกว่า หรือถามอาจารย์ก็ยอมไม่ได้

อาจารย์ยังไม่พอใจกับภาษาอังกฤษของตนเองเพราะพื้นฐานภาษาอังกฤษไม่แน่นและไม่ได้เป็นอาจารย์สอนภาษาอังกฤษ แต่ที่ผ่านมาก็ฝึกฝนอย่างต่อเนื่อง หากไม่ได้ฝึกต่อเนื่องภาษาก็จะไม่พัฒนา กลยุทธ์วิธีที่ทำให้ตัวเอง survive ได้ในห้องเรียนที่ต้องใช้ภาษาอังกฤษนั่นคือ หากไม่สามารถอธิบาย concept ได้อย่างตรง ๆ ก็จะอธิบายแบบอ้อม ๆ แทนเพราะข้อจำกัดของภาษา ใช้คำให้ตรงกับบริบท เลือกใช้คำง่าย ๆ ให้นักศึกษาเข้าใจ และภาษาที่ใช้ก็ง่ายสำหรับตนเองด้วย แต่บางครั้งก็พูดผิดและต้องพยายามแก้

ใช้อารมณ์ขันเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ (Using humour)

Extract 1

"Is a midterm test right? How was your test? Very bad. My son failed in Thailand. Thirteen points he gets. Fifteen points. But he said he's good in English and Chinese. He got full scores from Chinese and English. And I asked what he wants to be. He said he wants to be a farmer."

อาจารย์ใช้อารมณ์ขันเป็นภาษาอังกฤษเพราะต้องการให้นักศึกษารู้จักคำภาษาอังกฤษที่ง่าย ๆ การใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในชั้นเรียนไม่จำเป็นต้องเป็นวิชาการอย่างเดียว ต้องการให้นักศึกษาเข้าใจอย่างอื่นนอกเหนือวิชาการด้วย และเป็นการผ่อนคลายความกังวลของนักศึกษาซึ่งเป็นช่วงเริ่มต้นของ class นี้เพราะนักศึกษาวิตกกังวลกับภาษาอังกฤษการใช้ภาษาในการเรียนและเป็นการพูดระหว่างรอนักศึกษาคนอื่น ๆ ที่ยังไม่มาถึงอีกด้วย อีกอย่างเป็นการติดตามความเป็นมาเป็นไปของนักศึกษาที่อยู่ภายใต้ที่ปรึกษาด้วย

ใช้คำสั่งเป็นในชั้นเรียนเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ (Instruction/Grouping)

Extract 2

"We will set objectives. นะคะ Please work in groups. Your group that you have responsibility about information retrieval."

เหตุผลในการใช้คำสั่งทำงานเป็นกลุ่มเป็นภาษาอังกฤษคือคำสั่งเหล่านี้ใช้บ่อยแล้วนักศึกษาค้นเคย รู้และเข้าใจดีไม่ต้องแปลเป็นภาษาไทย

บททวนเนื้อหาที่เรียนมาแล้วเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ (Reviewing)

Extract 3

"We have talked about learning style. ใช่ไหมคะ What is it, learning style? What is learning style? How many types of learning style? Three. Visual learner, listening learner and what's next? The last one is ... อะไรนะ Tactile ใช่ไหมคะ มี auditory, visual, tactile learner. นะคะ Three types of learning style. ... (14.25) fits most instruction means."

อาจารย์ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษทวนเนื้อหาที่นักศึกษาเรียนมาแล้วเนื่องจากเนื้อหาเกี่ยวกับ Learning style นักศึกษาได้เรียนเป็นภาษาอังกฤษมาแล้วและขณะนี้กำลังทวนความรู้และความจำของนักศึกษาต้องการให้ตอบ technical terms เป็นภาษาอังกฤษ นักศึกษาไม่สามารถพูดคำเฉพาะเหล่านั้นได้ทั้งหมด แต่สามารถบอกลักษณะของ Learning style ทั้ง 3 ประเภทเป็นภาษาอังกฤษแบบอ้อม ๆ ได้ และนักศึกษาเข้าใจความหมายได้ เช่น auditory เป็น listening learner

บอกเนื้อหาที่จะเรียนในครั้งต่อไปเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ (Preview)

Extract 4

"ขอบคุณค่ะ Ok. Next stage, we will the instructional strategy. We will know about the sequence to put the content and activity in your class. นะคะ But I think today is enough for you. Enough ไหวไหม ไม้ไหวแล้ว เราจะเรียนอันนี้ต่อไปในสัปดาห์หน้านะคะ"

เป็นการใช้สองภาษาทั้งภาษาอังกฤษและภาษาไทยในการ preview บทเรียนที่จะเรียนต่อไป จะมีก็ใช้สองภาษา จะเป็นการ preview ล่วงหน้าว่าเราจะเรียนอะไร เป็นการกลั่นไว้ว่า นักศึกษาจะได้พบกับคำศัพท์สำคัญเหล่านี้ตามที่อาจารย์ได้พูดไป เพื่อให้นักศึกษาบางคนจะกลับไปสืบค้นหาความหมายและศึกษาล่วงหน้าเพราะ slide ที่ใช้สอนภาษาอังกฤษทั้งหมดเป็นโอกาสที่นักศึกษาสามารถนำ key word นั้นไปศึกษาเนื้อหาด้วยตนเองก่อนเรียน

พูดซ้ำคำตอบของนักศึกษาเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ (Repeat student's response)

Extract 5

"Do you remember about this picture? What is it? Classroom in 20th century."

อาจารย์ถามนักศึกษาและให้เด็กตอบเมื่อนักศึกษาตอบแล้วอาจารย์ได้พูดซ้ำคำตอบของนักศึกษาเพราะเมื่อนักศึกษาตอบแบบไม่มั่นใจในภาษาของตนเอง อาจารย์จึง repeat กลับไป ไม่ได้บอกว่าคุณหรือไม่ถูก แต่อย่างน้อยการ repeat สามารถสร้างความมั่นใจ

เกี่ยวกับภาษาที่ใช้ให้นักศึกษาได้มากขึ้น และนักศึกษาคนดังกล่าวตอบเบา ทำให้นักศึกษาด้านหลังไม่ได้ยิน การ repeat คำตอบทำให้นักศึกษาคนอื่น ๆ ได้ยินด้วย

Extract 6

"Teacher talk all the times? No. What should we do?"

อาจารย์ถามเป็นภาษาอังกฤษสั้น ๆ และมีนักศึกษาตอบคำถามและอาจารย์ repeat คำตอบของนักศึกษาว่า No เพื่อที่จะยิงไปสู่คำถามข้อถัดไปว่าถ้าไม่ใช่ ทำไมละ แล้วเราควรจะทำอย่างไร

ใช้ภาษาไทยบอกนักศึกษายกตัวอย่าง (Asking examples)

Extract 7

"ระบบจัดการ E-learning ใช้ใหม่ ไหนยกตัวอย่างได้ใหม่ ว่าโปรแกรมที่เป็น LMS มีโปรแกรมอะไรบ้าง ทำแล้วไม่ใช่หรือ"

ประเด็นนี้ไม่ได้มีความสำคัญมากนักหากเทียบกับ learning style เป็นการเรียนแบบผ่าน ๆ ไม่ได้เน้นย้ำมากนัก แต่ให้นักศึกษาทำการบ้านมาแล้ว อาจารย์กลัวว่าหากใช้ภาษาอังกฤษไปนักศึกษาก็จะไม่เข้าใจว่า Learning Management System (LMS) คืออะไร จึงพยายาม guide เป็นภาษาไทยบ้าง และช่วงนี้ได้พูดภาษาอังกฤษมาเยอะพอสมควรแล้วจึงลดความตึงเครียดโดยใช้ภาษาไทย

ใช้ภาษาไทยบอกให้นักศึกษายกตัวอย่าง (Allowing Thai)

Extract 8

"ตอบเป็นภาษาไทยก็ได้ ครูไม่ได้บอกว่าห้ามตอบเป็นภาษาไทย What's next, sequence..."

ก่อนหน้านี้อาจารย์ได้ถามเป็นภาษาอังกฤษไปแล้วเกี่ยวกับ need assessment และนักศึกษาได้เรียนในช่วงแรก ๆ แล้ว และในทุกคาบได้ถามและทบทวนเนื้อหาเกี่ยวกับ learner analysis, class analysis, content analysis เพราะต้องเชื่อมโยงถึง design โดยปกตินักศึกษาตอบได้เพียงแต่ตอบเป็นภาษาไทยทุกครั้ง ซึ่งขณะนี้อาจารย์ไม่ได้คาดหวังให้ว่าจะได้รับคำตอบเป็นภาษาอังกฤษเพราะทราบว่านักศึกษาจะตอบไม่ได้ เมื่อได้ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษถามแต่นักศึกษาไม่ตอบภาษาอังกฤษจึงอนุญาตให้ตอบเป็นภาษาไทยได้ไม่ต้องกังวล

ใช้ภาษาไทยอธิบาย (Using Thai to explain)

Extract 9

"Time almost finish. I give you just five minutes but I think now you ten minutes ready การประเมินผล การสืบค้น สารสนเทศ..."

อธิบายเนื้อหาด้วยภาษาไทยเพราะเป็น concept ค่อนข้างซับซ้อน อาจารย์กลัวนักศึกษาจะไม่เข้าใจหาอธิบายเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ และตอนนี้ศึกษาก็ไม่เข้าใจอยู่แล้ว อีกอย่างเวลาสำหรับกิจกรรมนี้ก็หมดแล้วจึงต้องใช้ภาษาไทยเพื่อกระชับเวลามากขึ้น

ใช้ภาษาไทยแนะนำขณะทำการงาน (Using Thai to guide)

Extract 10

"content ประเภทของ content ที่เราสอน แล้วเราจะสอนยังไง ดูคำอธิบายก่อนว่าแต่ละอันคืออะไร Start from the easy one, ..."

อาจารย์อธิบายให้นักศึกษาทราบก่อนว่าเนื้อหาควรเป็นประมาณใดโดยภาษาไทยและใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ เนื่องจากว่าห้องเรียนนี้เป็นเรียนเป็นสองภาษาอยู่แล้ว คำศัพท์ภาษาอังกฤษที่ใช้ไม่ได้ยากอะไรมากนัก จริง ๆ แล้วมีความง่ายด้วยซ้ำ อาจารย์ต้องการให้นักศึกษาตระหนักว่าควรใช้คำภาษาอังกฤษแบบง่ายในการสื่อสารอีกด้วย

ใช้ภาษาไทยอธิบายเนื้อหาใหม่เป็นรายบุคคล (Using Thai to explain new concept)

Extract 11

"สร้างได้ เข้าใจ เลือกใช้เครื่องมือ ถ้า key word นั้นไม่ใช่เครื่องมือะ อันนั้นคือประเภทของ indexing"

เป็นการคุยกับนักศึกษาเป็นรายบุคคลไม่ได้ตั้งใจคุยทั้งชั้นเนื่องจากมีนักศึกษาไม่เข้าใจบางเนื้อหาอาจารย์จึงใช้ภาษาไทยอธิบายเป็นรายบุคคล ในเมื่อนักศึกษาไม่เข้าใจประเด็นหากจะใช้ภาษาอังกฤษอธิบายคงไม่ช่วยส่งเสริมให้เข้าใจและประเด็นที่สำคัญคือนักศึกษายังไม่มีความรู้เดิมเกี่ยวกับ indexing กับ information retrieval มันคืออะไร จึงตัดสินใจใช้ภาษาไทยเพื่อให้เกิดความเข้าใจ

ช่วยด้านคำศัพท์สะกดคำ (Vocab level)

Extract 12

"Information retrieval evaluation ลอง เข้า ไป คำน ดู ซิ Information retrieval evaluation. R-I-E-V-A มี E ด้วยละ V-E ก่อน R-I-E-V-A-L แล้วก็ evaluation"

เมื่อนักศึกษาไม่ทราบคำสับสนจึงเป็นหน้าที่ของอาจารย์ที่ช่วยบอกคำต้นและนักศึกษาก็ไม่สามารถเขียนได้เพราะยังขาดความรู้ด้านคำศัพท์ที่ต้องใช้ในบริบทเฉพาะอยู่ จึงเป็นหน้าที่ของอาจารย์ในการช่วยสะกดคำ ไม่เช่นนั้นจะไม่พบข้อมูลที่ถูกต้องอย่างแน่นอน

แก้ไขการออกเสียงคำศัพท์ (Giving feedback on pronunciation)

Extract 13

“Procedure”

นักศึกษาออกเสียงคำว่า “Procedure” เป็น “โพรซิดิว” อาจารย์จึงแก้ไขการออกเสียงให้เป็น “โพรซิเซอะ” อาจารย์พยายามออกเสียงให้ถูกต้องให้นักศึกษาฟังแค่นั้น แต่ไม่ได้ระบุว่าสิ่งที่เขาออกเสียงมันผิด นักศึกษาอาจจะทราบว่าเขาออกเสียงผิด และแก้ไขตามเป็น “โพรซิเซอะ” ไม่ต้องบอกว่่านักศึกษาพูดผิดหรือออกเสียงผิดซึ่งอาจทำให้เขาเกิดความไม่มั่นใจขึ้นมาได้ และอีกจุดประสงค์หนึ่งคือต้องการให้นักศึกษากล้าที่จะพูดอาจถูกบ้างผิดบ้างไม่เป็นไร นักศึกษาจะได้อุ่นใจเวลาพูดผิดจะมีอาจารย์คอยช่วยแก้ไขให้ หากไม่แก้ไขให้เลย นักศึกษาจะพูดผิดต่อไปเรื่อย ๆ

อ่านออกเสียง (pronunciation)

Extract 14

“Fact is unique ถูก หรือ เปล่า Are you correct? Fact, unique, specific information that I will answer the questions, who, where, when. Example of facts, data, list, historical, event. ถูกไหมคะข้อหนึ่ง”

อาจารย์ได้ให้ความหมายของคำบนหน้าจอและให้ทำ matching คำกับความหมายและเฉลยบนหน้าจอ และพานักศึกษาอ่านตามเพื่อให้นักศึกษารู้ว่าแต่ละคำออกเสียงอย่างไรอย่างน้อยที่สุดจะทำให้นักศึกษาชินกับการออกเสียง แต่การออกเสียงของอาจารย์อาจไม่ได้ถูกต้องร้อยเปอร์เซ็นต์ คิดว่าน่าจะเข้าใจได้ในระดับหนึ่ง

ช่วยด้านแต่งประโยคภาษาอังกฤษ (Sentence level)

Extract 15

*“เพื่อนยกตัวอย่าง ...บอกว่า Student can ... มาทีละคำก็ยังมี can explain the importance of information retrieval evaluation”
What’s next? The second, objective คืออะไร ค่อย ๆ ช่วยกันคิด
What’s next?”*

นักศึกษาพูดเป็นภาษาไทยและอาจารย์แปลเป็นภาษาอังกฤษประสงค์คือช่วยเหลือทางภาษาให้นักศึกษาว่าควรจะใช้คำใดถึงจะเหมาะสม นักศึกษาพยายามพูดเป็นภาษาอังกฤษแต่ก็ไม่ประสบความสำเร็จอาจารย์จึงต้องเข้าไปช่วยเหลือ อย่างน้อย ๆ นักศึกษาจะได้อุ่นใจว่าอาจารย์ใส่ใจกับนักศึกษา

ปรับภาษาพูดให้เข้าใจง่ายขึ้น (Simplifying CL/instruction)

Extract 16

"Answer, go, and look around. Is it same or different from your group?"

เป็นคำสั่งระหว่างทำกิจกรรมในห้องเรียน เมื่อนักศึกษาทำเสร็จแล้วก็ส่งให้ไปเปรียบเทียบคำตอบของกลุ่มตนเองกับของเพื่อนกลุ่มอื่น หากจะใช้คำว่า compare กลัวว่านักศึกษาบางคนจะไม่เข้าใจ จึงใช้คำว่า same กับ different แทนทุกคนน่าจะเข้าใจ

ใช้ภาษาไทยถามและแปลเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ (Eliciting by using Thai and English)

Extract 17

"About design we know about Bloom's taxonomy already. We will set goals and objectives of E-learning. Objective ที่ดีควรเป็นอย่างไรคะ How to set good objectives? ไม่กว้างเกินไป"

เหตุผลที่ใช้ทั้งภาษาอังกฤษและภาษาไทยคือต้องการให้นักศึกษาทราบว่าภาษาไทยใช้อย่างไรและภาษาอังกฤษใช้อย่างไรต้องการให้นักศึกษารู้ทั้งสองภาษาในเวลาเดียวกัน ต้องการถามว่า How to set a good objective? แต่อาจารย์กลัวว่านักศึกษาจะตอบไม่ได้จึงถามเป็นภาษาไทยให้ก่อนและแปลเป็นภาษาอังกฤษและในบางครั้งใช้ภาษาอังกฤษก่อนและแปลภาษาไทยตามแล้วแต่ช่วง

แปลงานนักศึกษาจากภาษาไทยเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ (Translating student's work from Thai to English)

Extract 18

"เพื่อนบอกว่าเป้าหมาย Goal is... นะคะ นักศึกษา Students have understanding and skills about information retrieval. คือให้นักศึกษามีความรู้ความเข้าใจและมีทักษะในเรื่องของการสืบค้น วัตถุประสงค์ จะวัดว่าเขามีกnowledge"

นักศึกษาเขียนงานเป็นภาษาไทยแต่อาจารย์ไม่ได้อ่านงานเป็นภาษาไทย อาจารย์แปลงานจากภาษาไทยเป็นอังกฤษ ต้องการให้นักศึกษาเห็นตัวอย่างหากเขียนหรือพูดสื่อสารเป็นภาษาอังกฤษในอนาคตจะใช้ภาษาอย่างไร แต่ในตอนนั้นไม่ได้คาดหวังว่าให้นักศึกษาเขียนได้ขนาดนั้นเพราะสอนในระดับหนึ่ง

Extract 19

"Goals คืออะไรคะ ผู้เรียนรู้และเข้าใจความหมายของ indexing และวิธีการสร้างดัชนี ครุยังไม่บอกว่าถูกหรือผิดนะคะ เราดู goal ก่อน แล้วเรามาดู objective Goal คือเป้าหมาย เขาต้องการให้ผู้เรียนรู้และเข้าใจ"

Objective เขาบอกว่าให้ผู้เรียนสามารถอธิบาย Learners can explain the definition of indexing. Next,..."

อาจารย์เริ่มอ่านภาษาไทยบนหน้าจอก่อนจากนั้นแปลเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ อาจารย์ไม่มีรูปแบบตายตัวปรับเปลี่ยนไปตามสถานการณ์ เหตุการณ์ก่อนหน้านั้นก็พูดภาษาไทยอยู่แล้ว มาถึงตรงนี้จึงใช้ภาษาต่อเนื่อง และประเด็นนี้ได้เคยยกตัวอย่างเป็นภาษาอังกฤษให้แล้ว สังเกตว่าอาจารย์พยายามให้นักศึกษาพูดภาษาอังกฤษโดยแปลจากต้นฉบับภาษาไทยและมีตัวอย่าง pattern ของภาษาหรือมี sentence stem ให้และนักศึกษาจะค่อย ๆ พูดออกมาทีละคำจนสมบูรณ์

ดึงความสนใจของนักศึกษาโดยใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ (Calling attention)

Extract 20

"Is it okay? The objective of searching tools"

อาจารย์ต้องการถามความคิดเห็นนักศึกษาแต่ไม่มีใครตอบ เป็นเรื่องปกติของอาจารย์หากถามแล้วไม่มีใครจะเรียกชื่อที่ละคน และดึงความสนใจนักศึกษาให้กลับมาและให้ฟังเพื่อนกลุ่มอื่นด้วย หากใช้ภาษาไทยนักศึกษาอาจจะไม่สนใจเท่าที่ควร จึงถามภาษาอังกฤษเพื่อให้นักศึกษาตกใจและตั้งใจฟัง

กระตุ้นให้นักศึกษาพูดภาษาอังกฤษ (Motivating students to speak English)

Extract 21

"If you can, just try to speak English. Hello"

ระหว่างทำงานกันเป็นกลุ่มนั้นนักศึกษาต่างพูดภาษาไทยกันตลอด อาจารย์จึงพยายามกระตุ้นให้พูดภาษาอังกฤษกันในกลุ่มนักศึกษาในกลุ่มนี้ไม่ได้มีใครที่ภาษาอังกฤษโดดเด่น อาจารย์ไม่ได้ต้องการไปยืนฟังเพื่อจับผิดอะไรแต่ต้องการให้นักศึกษาในกลุ่มเดียวกัน ระดับเดียวกันช่วยเหลือกันได้และไม่เขินอายกัน อาจารย์เคยตั้งเคยตั้งมุกตลกกับนักศึกษาว่าเมื่อเพื่อนพูดผิดห้ามหัวเราะเพื่อนให้ช่วยกันแก้ไขและให้กำลังใจเพื่อนคืออย่างน้อยให้เพื่อนมั่นใจในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษมากขึ้น การที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในการกระตุ้นนักศึกษาน่าจะเข้าใจเมื่ออาจารย์พูดเสร็จนักศึกษาพูด Hello เพราะนักศึกษากำลังบอกว่าเขากำลังพูดอยู่แบบติดตลก พอหลังจากนั้นนักศึกษาก็พูดภาษาไทยต่อ นักศึกษาเข้าใจในสิ่งที่อาจารย์พูดแต่พูดไม่ได้เพราะนึกคำศัพท์ไม่ออกหรือไม่กล้าอะไรประมาณนั้น

1 February 2017

Appendix 13: Focus Group Discussion Topics

Focus group discussion

GUIDELINES:

For this focus group discussion, there are two main discussion themes, namely EMI pedagogy and the role of oral language in EMI classrooms. You are invited to discuss and reflect on your successful EMI classes regarding English and Thai aspects together with other participants by considering four aspects, including what works, why it works, how it works and what is the evidence of its success.

THEME 1: EMI PEDAGOGY

As you may realise, a pre-teaching EMI stage is important because it allows you to prepare teaching materials, anticipate challenges and find solutions. With respect to your experience of this stage, would you please reflect on your personal practices at this stage? Which one is the most useful practice for you? And why?

According to your experience in teaching contents through English with different English language Gears, could you please think of the most successful EMI lesson from your own classroom by focusing each teaching event, e.g. presenting information, activating students to say something and reacting students' utterance? And what is the evidence of sound practice of EMI pedagogy in term of language aspects in your classes?

Apart from assessing students' assignments to check their understanding, what else can you do at a post-teaching EMI stage? Please kindly share the practices that you found the most effective activity after teaching EMI.

THEME 2: THE ROLES OF ORAL LANGUAGE IN EMI AND HOW SUCH LANGUAGE IS USED INTO TEACHING OF CONTENTS

At the first stage of the lesson, would you please describe the roles of English and Thai and how both languages are used? And please explain how to make the most of both languages in the early part of the lesson.

From your genuine practice, what are the roles English and Thai while you are teaching academic subjects? And how did you use both languages when students did not understand the main concepts or the English content/function words? At the end of the lesson, did you treat/use English and Thai equally in this stage? Why so? How did you do that?

Questions to clarify a point

1. I want to make sure we understand; can you explain more about...?
2. What do you mean when you say this ... is effective pedagogy?
3. For what other reasons did you use this pedagogy?
4. Could you please give us an example of...?

Appendix 14: Sample of Summary of Focus Group Discussion

สรุปลักษณะสำคัญของการอภิปรายกลุ่มที่ 1

หัวข้อที่ 1 วิธีการสอนเนื้อหาเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ (EMI PEDAGOGY)

คำชี้แจง โปรตสะท้อนห้องเรียน EMI ของท่านที่ประสบความสำเร็จและอภิปรายภายใต้ 4 ประเด็นหลัก ดังนี้ มีสิ่งใดบ้างที่ประสบความสำเร็จ (what works) เพราะเหตุใดจึงประสบความสำเร็จ (why it works) ประสบความสำเร็จได้อย่างไร (how it works) และ อะไรบ้างที่เป็นหลักฐานของความสำเร็จนั้น (what is the evidence of its success) ประเด็นในการอภิปรายมีดังนี้

1.1 ชั้นก่อนการสอน (Pre-teaching EMI stage)

1. ส่วนใหญ่เป็นเรื่องการเตรียมสื่อการสอน เลือกเนื้อหาที่สำคัญ เนื้อหาไม่ยากเกินไป
2. การเตรียมสื่อการสอนส่วนใหญ่เป็นภาษาราชการ ทำให้นักศึกษายากที่จะเข้าใจ จึงจำเป็นต้องตัดเนื้อหาส่วนที่ยากเกินไป
3. ในบางส่วนของเนื้อหาอาจารย์เลือกที่จะสรุปโดยใช้ graph หรือ infographic เพื่อให้นักศึกษาเข้าใจง่ายขึ้น
4. ในการเตรียมการสอนบางส่วนอาจจะไม่ได้ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ เพราะเนื่องด้วยเวลาที่จำกัดในการสอน หากใช้ภาษาอังกฤษเป็นส่วนใหญ่อาจจะไม่ได้ครบถ้วนในส่วนของเนื้อหา
5. ในการเตรียมสื่อการสอนจะดึงมาจากหนังสือหรือตำราภาษาอังกฤษ เพราะสะดวกในการค้นหามากกว่า

1.2 ชั้นขณะสอน (While-teaching EMI stage)

1. อาจารย์ให้เนื้อหาเป็นภาษาไทยก่อนเพื่อให้นักศึกษาเข้าใจเนื้อหาในเบื้องต้นและไม่เกิดปัญหาในขณะสอนที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในการเรียนการสอน
2. การสอนแบบ EMI หรือ CLIL จำนวนนักศึกษาส่งผลต่อการเรียนการสอนเพราะถ้าจำนวนนักศึกษามากเกินไป ทำให้อาจารย์ควบคุมชั้นเรียนยากและการทำกิจกรรมจำเป็นต้องใช้เวลานาน
3. การสอนแบบ EMI หรือ CLIL สภาพห้องเรียนและสิ่งแวดล้อมเป็นสิ่งสำคัญ ห้องเรียนต้องมีความเหมาะสม ขนาดใหญ่พอที่จะทำกิจกรรมและมีอุปกรณ์อำนวยความสะดวก
4. คลิปวิดีโอสั้น ๆ เกี่ยวกับเรื่องที่สอนสามารถดึงความสนใจนักศึกษาได้ดี อาจจะมีการตั้งคำถามสั้น ๆ หรือถามความสำคัญเพื่อเช็คความเข้าใจเกี่ยวกับวิดีโอ นั้น ๆ
5. อาจารย์ไม่สามารถให้เนื้อหาเป็นภาษาอังกฤษทั้งหมดได้เพราะถ้าไม่ได้ป้อนเนื้อหาเป็นภาษาไทยด้วย นักศึกษาจะไม่ได้ในส่วนเนื้อหานั้น ๆ เลย เพื่อให้นักศึกษาได้เนื้อหาครบถ้วนจำเป็นต้องป้อนเนื้อหาเป็นภาษาไทยและภาษาอังกฤษไปด้วยกัน

6. เกมสก็๊อเป็นเทคนิคอีกเทคนิคหนึ่งที่สำคัญและประสบความสำเร็จเพราะสามารถกระตุ้นนักศึกษาสนใจในเนื้อหาที่อาจารย์ได้สอนไป
7. การเขียน flipchart, graphic organizer หรือ mind mapping สรุปความ เป็นอีกหนึ่งวิธีที่ประสบความสำเร็จเพราะนักศึกษาได้เรียนรู้เป็นกลุ่ม ได้มีการเรียนรู้แบบร่วมมือและช่วยเหลือซึ่งกันและกัน
8. การ scaffolding ถือเป็นอีกหนึ่งเทคนิคที่ประสบความสำเร็จ อาจารย์ให้นักศึกษาลงมือทำด้วยตัวเองก่อน หลังจากนั้นอาจารย์จึงได้เข้าไปช่วยเหลือและให้ไอเดียต่าง ๆ เพื่อให้นักศึกษาพยายามเรียนรู้เนื้อหา นั้น ๆ ได้ด้วยตัวเอง
9. ในขณะที่สอนวิธีที่ทำให้การสอนไม่สะดุดคือเน้นที่การแผนเป็นหลักเพราะถ้าอาจารย์วางแผนการเรียนการสอนสามารถที่จะดำเนินไปได้เรื่อย ๆ ถ้าไม่เกิดปัจจัยแทรกซ้อน เช่น ปัญหาอินเทอร์เน็ตหลุด เป็นต้น
10. ในชั้นขณะสอนอาจารย์อาจต้องใช้ body language เพื่อให้นักศึกษาเข้าใจมากยิ่งขึ้น เพราะบางครั้งอาจารย์อาจจะใช้คำศัพท์ที่ยากเกินไป body language จึงเป็นสิ่งที่สำคัญ

1.3 ชั้นหลังการสอน (Post-teaching EMI stage)

1. การตรวจให้คะแนน assignment บางครั้งอาจารย์ไม่ได้ให้คะแนน แต่เลือกที่จะบอกจุดบกพร่องของนักศึกษามากกว่า เพราะถ้าให้คะแนนเลยนักศึกษาอาจจะได้คะแนนน้อยเกินไป หรือบางครั้งอาจารย์จำเป็นต้องลดคะแนนของชิ้นงานนั้น ๆ เพื่อช่วยนักศึกษาเพราะทำได้
2. วิธีการสอนที่เปลี่ยนไปชิ้นงานจำเป็นต้องเปลี่ยนตามเพราะอาจารย์คิดว่านักศึกษาไม่สามารถที่จะทำชิ้นงานเนื้อหาเยอะ ๆ ได้เหมือนการสอนวิธีเดิม อาจารย์จำเป็นต้องลดชิ้นงานหรือจำนวนชิ้นงานลง ซึ่งส่วนนี้เป็นผลมาจากการทำกิจกรรมในชั้นเรียน
3. อาจารย์เลือกประเมินและให้คะแนนจากกิจกรรมในชั้นเรียนเช่น การทำแบบฝึกหัด การทำ graphic organizer เป็นต้น ในส่วนการประเมินอาจารย์เลือกจะประเมินทันทีในชั้นเรียน แต่ถ้าในชั้นเรียนไม่ทันจะให้นักศึกษาส่งงานในระบบ และให้ feedback ในนั้น
4. การประเมินโดยให้นักศึกษาประเมินกันเอง เช่น การประเมินตงานของเพื่อนกลุ่มต่าง ๆ เป็นวิธีที่ไม่ประสบความสำเร็จเพราะนักศึกษายังมีความเกรงใจกันและกัน ปัญหาอยู่ที่ตัวผู้ประเมิน ไม่ใช่เครื่องมือประเมิน
5. การประเมิน Pre-test และ Post-test ที่คณะกำหนดมีความไม่สอดคล้องกับเนื้อหาที่อาจารย์ได้ป้อนให้นักศึกษา

หัวข้อที่ 2 บทบาทของภาษาพูดในชั้นเรียนที่สอนเนื้อหาเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ (THE ROLES OF ORAL LANGUAGE IN EMI AND HOW SUCH LANGUAGE IS USED INTO TEACHING OF CONTENTS)

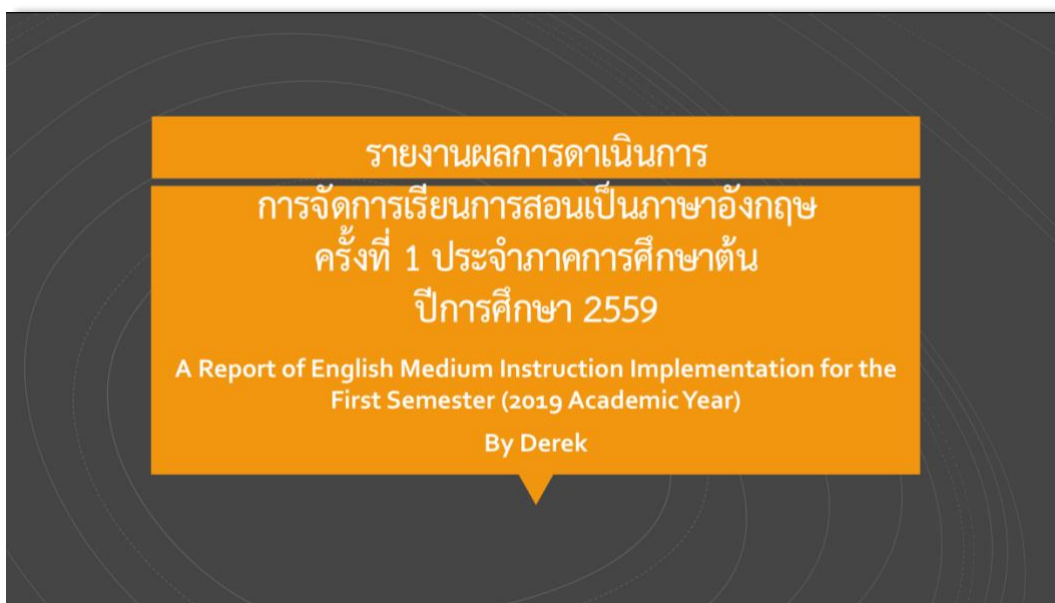
คำชี้แจง โปรดอภิปรายเกี่ยวกับบทบาทของภาษาพูดในชั้นเรียนจากประสบการณ์การใช้ภาษาอังกฤษและภาษาไทยในการสอนเนื้อของท่าน พร้อมทั้งอธิบายและยกตัวอย่างการใช้ภาษาทั้งสองในบริบทต่าง ๆ ในชั้นเรียน ประเด็นในการอภิปรายมีดังนี้ **1. ตอนเริ่มต้นบทเรียน** (ก่อนเข้าเนื้อหาหลัก) **2. ขณะสอนเนื้อหาหลัก** และ **3. ตอนท้ายบทเรียน** (ก่อนจบบทเรียน) และท่านได้ใช้ทั้งสองภาษานี้อย่างไรบ้าง กรุณายกตัวอย่าง

1. ภาษาพูดที่ใช้ในชั้นเรียนส่วนใหญ่อาจารย์จะ switch ภาษา อาจพูดภาษาอังกฤษจากนั้นค่อยแปลเป็นไทย เพื่อให้นักศึกษาเข้าใจในบริบทประโยคนั้น ๆ
2. การใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในชั้นเรียนอาจารย์พยายามสร้างแรงจูงใจให้นักศึกษาไม่เกิดความประหม่า และความกลัวในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษ ไม่จำเป็นต้องเน้นไวยากรณ์ แต่ต้องการให้นักศึกษาสื่อสารได้
3. อาจารย์ยังขาดความมั่นใจในการสื่อสารเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ ยังกังวลเรื่องสำเนียงในการพูด และส่วนใหญ่คิดว่าตัวเองนั้นเก่งในเรื่อง reading comprehension มากกว่า communication
4. เนื่องจากอาจารย์เคยชินที่จะใช้ภาษาวิชาการ จึงยังใช้คำศัพท์ที่ยากเกินไป ควรมีการทำลิสต์การใช้ภาษาสั้น ๆ ที่ใช้ในห้องเรียนสำหรับครู
5. ก่อนเข้าบทเรียนอาจารย์มักจะพูดคุยให้นักศึกษาผ่อนคลายก่อน พูดคุยเรื่องทั่วไป ข่าวสารบ้านเมืองใหม่ หรือการเล่นเกมส์ ซึ่งในชั้นนี้สามารถใช้ภาษาอังกฤษได้เกือบตลอดเพราะเนื้อหาในการพูดไม่ยากจนเกินไป
6. ส่วนใหญ่อาจารย์ยังคิดว่าตัวเองไม่สามารถที่จะเป็น model ให้นักศึกษาในเรื่องของภาษาได้ แต่เรื่องเนื้อหาอาจารย์ยังสามารถเป็น model ได้เพราะเข้าใจในเรื่องนั้น ๆ เป็นอย่างดี

13 February 2017

Appendix 15: Sample of Written Teaching Report

Written Teaching Report



ปัญหาและอุปสรรค ด้านผู้สอน Challenges regarding a lecturer

- ขาดความพร้อมด้านภาษา การเตรียมตัว และประสบการณ์ จึงจำเป็นต้องได้รับการพัฒนาต่อไป การเตรียมการสอนทั้งเนื้อหาและกิจกรรมใช้ระยะเวลานานก่อนทำงาน เมื่อเทียบกับการสอนปกติด้วยภาษาไทย
- Due to lacks of readiness in terms of language, lesson preparation, and EMI experience, lesson planning took a long period of time. So, it is in need of ongoing professional development.

ปัญหาและอุปสรรค ด้านผู้เรียน Challenges regarding students

- นักศึกษามีพื้นฐานทักษะความรู้ด้านภาษาอังกฤษในระดับกลางถึงต่ำ ขาดความพร้อมทางภาษาอังกฤษ และ ชั้นเรียนมีนักศึกษามากเกินไป
- การจัดการเรียนการสอนเป็นภาษาอังกฤษในรายวิชาดังกล่าวเป็นเรื่องใหม่สำหรับผู้เรียน เพราะผู้เรียนมีความเคยชินในลักษณะรูปแบบการสอนด้วยการบรรยาย ดังนั้นนักศึกษาหลายรายจึงไม่เห็นประโยชน์ใน รูปแบบการจัดการเรียนการสอนเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ เพราะคิดว่าส่งผลให้เข้าใจเนื้อหาในรายวิชาได้น้อยลง
- นักศึกษาไม่กล้าสนทนา สื่อสาร หรือแสดงความคิดเห็นเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ และมีส่วนร่วมในชั้นเรียน
- The students had insufficient English proficiency (low to moderate levels), and the class size was too large.
- EMI was new to the students, and EMI was negatively impacted the students' understanding of content.
- The students had no confidence in sharing ideas and interacting in English.

ปัญหาและอุปสรรค ภาษากับความเข้าใจ Challenges regarding language

- เนื้อหารายวิชาทางสังคมศาสตร์มีคำศัพท์เฉพาะอยู่มาก ซึ่งต้องการคำนิยามและการอธิบายความหมาย เพื่อให้ให้นักศึกษาสามารถเข้าถึงเนื้อหาและทำความเข้าใจอย่างถ่องแท้ ผู้สอนจึงสอนด้วยภาษาไทยผสมกับ ภาษาอังกฤษ และใช้ในบางหัวข้อเท่านั้น
- Academic content in social sciences have many English terminologies. Thus, it needs explanations for the students to understand so that they can access content and fully gain their comprehension. Hence, I instructed content in Thai and English.

ปัญหาและอุปสรรค
ด้านอาคาร สถานที่
อุปกรณ์และสิ่งอำนวยความสะดวก
Challenges
regarding
infrastructure

- ลักษณะชั้นเรียนไม่เอื้อต่อการจัดการเรียนการสอนแบบ CLIL/EMI เช่น โต๊ะเก้าอี้ที่สามารถเคลื่อนย้ายได้สะดวก สำหรับการทำงานกิจกรรมกลุ่ม, กระดานเขียนข้อความ อุปกรณ์บางอย่างไม่สามารถเบิกพัสดุได้ เช่น กระดาษ Flipchart ซึ่งมีความจำเป็นต่อการใช้ทำกิจกรรมเป็นอย่างมาก
- Infrastructures are not well supported teaching and learning through CLIL/EMI. For example, tables and chairs are fixed.

ข้อเสนอแนะ
Suggestions

- ควรมีการฝึกอบรมผู้สอนอย่างต่อเนื่อง ในด้านทักษะภาษาอังกฤษ/การใช้ภาษาอังกฤษเป็นเครื่องมือในการสอน/การใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในชั้นเรียน เหนือกิจกรรมการเรียนรู้อื่นๆ โดยใช้ IT
- ควรมีการขยายผลการจัดการเรียนแบบ CLIL/EMI ให้ครอบคลุมรายวิชา ทั้งในกระบวนการสอนแบบ CLIL/EMI มาบูรณาการประยุกต์ใช้กับรายวิชาอื่นๆ และปรับปรุงกระบวนการสอนจากการสอนในลักษณะบรรยายให้เป็น กิจกรรมกลุ่มกระตุ้นการเรียนรู้ โดยมีอาจารย์เป็นผู้ดำเนินกิจกรรมมีให้นักศึกษา
- ควรปรับปรุงชั้นเรียนให้เหมาะสมและสอดคล้องกับการจัดการเรียนแบบ CLIL/EMI
- ควรจัดมีผู้เรียน 15-20 คนต่อ 1 ชั้นเรียน เพราะผู้สอนจะได้ดูแลนักศึกษาในการทำกิจกรรมในชั้นเรียนได้ อย่างทั่วถึง
- The Faculty should provide ongoing professional development in terms of the use of languages for instruction in classrooms.
- The Faculty should expand CLIL/EMI to all subjects
- The Faculty should renovate classrooms and upgrade facilities.
- The Faculty should arrange only 15-20 students in one class so that I can effectively facilitate the students' learning.

January 2017

Note: This format of written teaching report was modified to remove identities of the owner and to make it appropriate for thesis. This inserted English version was translated work done by myself. This translation material was produced in the early stage of data preparation. So, the language choice might be different from the final version presented in Chapter 5. However, content and concepts remained the same.

Appendix 16: Request Letter to Dean

Associate Professor Dr _____
Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences
Home University
Address _____
Thailand

XXX (month) 2016

Dear Dean of Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences (HASS)
Greetings from Hamilton, New Zealand

As we have previously discussed regarding the research site of my study, HASS would be the target area to conduct research in order to construct new knowledge for the institution, where EMI has been developing with great encouragement from authorities. To understand the context of the study in detail, I would like to request you to provide official documents regarding EMI to me as the researcher. So, please kindly send me copies of EMI documents listed below:

Numbers	Documents	Objectives
1.	EMI Policies (Both university and faculty level)	To investigate the top-down policy and motivation to implement EMI
2.	EMI/CLIL Workshop Materials (The reports are from Overseas University during 2014 to 2016)	To analyse pedagogic principles of CLIL/EMI
3	EMI/CLIL Workshop Reports (The reports are from Overseas University during 2014 to 2016)	To perceive a detailed assessment of the workshop from teachers and participants
4.	The lists of EMI lecturers and courses at HASS	To identify the availability of the numbers of EMI lecturers and courses
5.	EMI Implementation Reports (The reports are from HASS during the first year of EMI implementation to the present)	To study the final outcome of EMI implementation at the faculty level
6.	Other HASS EMI documents	To explore other related EMI documents

Please be informed that these EMI documents are for the purpose of research. Thus, please be informed that any useful information which relates to the context of the study will be suitably anonymised. Besides, these relevant contents will be presented at national/international conferences and written up in academic journals, and in the doctoral thesis, which will be accessible worldwide. More importantly, only the researcher and supervisors will be allowed to access raw documents listed above.

Thank you very much indeed for your significant contribution to the research project.

Sincerely,

Banchakarn Sameephet
PhD candidate at the Faculty of Education
The University of Waikato, New Zealand

Appendix 17: Sample of Reflective Research Journal

Lessons from Derek

Varying in perspectives on Policy but agreeing with CLIL

Derek held conservative views on EMI policy but had positive attitude towards CLIL, which was the policy guideline. Although he had confidence in teaching content through a medium of English, he still felt uncertainty to have EMI lesson for the first time.

In the early morning day during a monsoon season in Thailand, the verdant landscape on campus had revitalised the university from the previous dry season. However, the monsoon was blown far out of proportion because it came to content lecturers' front doors with a new teaching task for this semester. Derek was one of these lecturers, who were given the unavoidable task for the first time to teach academic content through a medium of English. He came to the campus today as unusual since he had an appointment with me for a semi-structured interview at his office. I asked him to share his own perspectives on EMI policy, CLIL approach, and his intention to teach content through a medium of English for this semester.

I believed that he had a very interesting story to tell but his responses to EMI policy was entirely unpredictable to me. Personally, Derek agreed that English was an important language and commonly used worldwide. If students knew English, they could gain knowledge worldwide and be ready to work in the ASEAN community because English was a working language in ASEAN. Apart from this, he honestly told me that the policy was unjustified and nonessential, for Thailand had its own beautiful central Thai language, traditional culture, and local knowledge. Moreover, most of students and graduates at the Social Development were intended to work and employed in local government sectors, where English was not the heart of the matter for their future careers. As Thais, we also owned our distinctive culture and knowledge so that English had an unnecessary role in indorsing these aspects among Thais. Likewise, Thai language should not be replaced by EMI in some disciplines.

Although Derek intensely disagreed with EMI policy, he had positive attitude toward a CLIL approach, which was a practical strategy for implementing the policy. Due to a distinct lack of teaching experience in EMI, the CLIL approach had grew his confidence. The reason was that CLIL introduced him the know-how to integrate English into contents in other subjects. Derek had widened his

perspectives on teaching and learning since now he believed that using class activities to support students' learning had more effective than giving lectures. He was trained that an appropriate EMI lesson would take into account the three pillars, i.e., content, language, and learning. The following was what he personally interpreted these pillars.

With regard to content, he understood that abstract contents should be minimised and simplified. English vocabulary items from English input materials should be prepared for students. What is more, Derek realised that English contents must be delivered within not more than 15 minutes. However, the main contents and should primarily base on Thai knowledge or link to Thai society. Thus, English content should be supplementary information.

Concerning language, he told himself that he needed to frequently use English throughout the course, but it was not necessary to teach content through total immersion in English for all 45 hours. For him, in every class, English needed to be integrated in at least two classroom activities. An extensive knowledge should be introduced in English. Moreover, English vocabulary items and English Grammar related to lessons should be introduced. Translation activity also should be used in his class. For that, students would gain English target language from this channel. Yet, he conformed to use Thai as a medium of instruction to convey contents to students since he strongly believed that students fundamentally gained core contents in Thai.

In regard to learning, Derek highlighted that scaffolding techniques should be commonly used to facilitate students' learning and understanding contents. To motivate students to focus on lessons, EMI lessons should be initiated with warm-up activities, questions, and games. Also, challenging activities would be employed to challenge students to solve problems in groups. For these activities, students should be able to search for answers on the internet.

Derek understood that CLIL involved many useful and meaningful aspects in teaching. It was problematic if he had to do these things in all lessons. Preparing CLIL teaching contents made him spend a longer time than ever before, yet it did not guarantee him having enjoyable and successful lesson. Thus, he was attempting to adapt and develop his own pedagogy based on what he had learnt and could do in his class. However, Derek was well aware of foreseen challenges that might obstruct what he intended to do in class.

He planned to employ all English in PowerPoint slides but using small amount of oral English so that he pondered this would carry some issues. Students, who enrolled in his course, lacked English proficiency (i.e.,

listening, speaking, reading, and writing) so that they were not well-prepared to study contents in English. Basically, Thai contents had a high level of difficulty that required high levels of thinking. When such content was transferred to English, it was harder to comprehend because English contents required an appropriate level of competence in linguistics and thinking. So, content integrated with English was counted more troublesome. More importantly, students had low motivation to learn through a medium of English because English was not related to their social work in local areas.

To form a full understanding of students, crucial points of lessons should explain in Thai and some English words. Lectures should not be done in English. Moreover, he would spend time to simplify and summarise contents for students to understand. However, at the end of the day, if students could not demonstrate their understanding well, Thai reading text would be used.

There was a contradiction among Derek's self-reported beliefs. At first, he realised the importance of English in terms of advancing knowledge and gaining an opportunity of mobility across the ASEAN community. The irony was that he holds a conservative view on Thai language should be a medium of instruction because Thailand had its own identity and culture. Thus, Thai should not be replaced by English in conveying academic contents to students.

Another inconsistency was that although he disagreed with EMI policy, he was planning to use some English in his class. This was because it was obligatory for him to implement EMI. However, a little English that he meant; possibly, it would not meet the policy's standard because he mostly intended to use Thai as the main medium of instruction. Although Derek had a positive attitude toward CLIL approach, there was considerable uncertainty about CLIL implementation in his actual class because he never had EMI lesson before.

After having constructive dialogues with Derek, I was very curious about his practice EMI in his first class. Prior to observing, from what I saw and heard from him he felt nervous and uncertain about what he was about to teach.

In class, he opened the class by using Thai to greet students and made small talk in Thai as well. Then, he referred to students' English language used in their previous assignment. Although this class was his first EMI lesson, in previous class students were assigned to write short assignment in English. To do so, I thought Derek intended to see students' English ability. Students and Derek were discussing how to use the lexes 'interested' and 'interesting' in the right context.

Then, he previews today's lesson and activities to students. He moved to the first core part of his lessons, which was about Singapore housing crises. He used English documentary as an input teaching material to teach. Prior to playing the documentary, he told students some objectives and activities during and after watching the documentary in Thai.

While watching, he interrupted students by shouting 'note, note, note keyword' in English out loud. The documentary lasted about 30 minutes. After watching, he asked students to form groups for summarising key contents. He required students to write in English but present in Thai. At this time was students' responsibility to complete class activity. He stepped out to allow them to have their own pace, but not completely stepping out because he suggested students to use the right word and English Grammar to form simple English sentences. When Derek listened to some groups presenting in Thai, he completely stepped in monitoring students' understanding. Students could only say from actions and pictures in the material, but it was not key content from what Derek were looking for. Basically, the key contents are from a narrative.

He quickly realised that students misunderstood what the documentary was trying to say. Derek decided to repair students' comprehension by summarising key contents in Thai by himself. He talked to students that next time he would bring glossary for them before using English materials. The reason was that the majority of students did not understand English content words and unfamiliar general words used in the documentary. What he did was that he copied English content words from the material and explained meanings in Thai instead. Students seemed to understand content more and more. That was the end of the first half of his lesson.

Moving now to the second half of the lesson, Derek asked students to search for two Thai research articles about 'unskilled labour mobility to Thailand' on the internet. Later, students found both two articles were written by him. To begin this topic, he asked students in Thai what types of jobs that unskilled labours from Vietnam were had in Thailand. One student answered in switching language 'Sam D' or *Three Ds* in English. Derek elicited students' background knowledge of the three Ds concept. The same student answered in English words, including 'dirty', 'difficult' and 'dangerous'.

Later on, he showed English slides on this topic, but he encouraged student not to read or look at it because it was in English that would cause their misunderstanding. He requested students to read his research articles, listen to him, and discuss key issues. The reason was that all these activities run by

Thai language that helped them to gain more understanding. Although Derek run these activities through Thai as a medium of instruction to the end of his lesson, some loan words from English were employed.

Based on my analysis, in Derek's class there were teaching incidents in relation to content, language, and learning. In terms of content and language, in the first half, he used content in authentic English without supplying contents or preparing necessary English content and general words to students to help them gain understandings easier. In terms of learning, he did not use scaffolding in relation to listening strategies and notetaking skills.

Prior to his teaching, he intended to use Thai as the main language to deliver contents, and in his actual practice, Thai was a mainstream language in his class. However, there are some areas that clearly showed that his class were unable to follow that he believed and did in class. For instance, he reflected that he would try to follow CLIL approach but in reality, his practices clearly showed that his class was not met some standards of the three pillars of CLIL. This might be that he lacked well-prepared lesson in terms of content simplification, language support, and learning facilitation. To make a better class, Derek would take account into these aspects.

17 November 2017

Appendix 18: Sameephet's (2014) Translation Framework and Procedures

had new experiences in using a monolingual dictionary for learning purposes in a higher education setting, focusing on translation activities in translating from L1 into L2. Another criterion to select the second group, was that of current or former English major students who had experience in using a monolingual dictionary to assist in using English for translating or learning language purposes.

3.2 Frameworks and procedures

This research developed frameworks in order to build up a track for managing qualitative data according to scholars previous studies. That is, there are three core themes of monolingual dictionary strategies built up for research frameworks, namely "consultation strategies", "utilization strategies", and "confirmation strategies". To make this point vividly comprehensible to everyone; there is a model of using monolingual dictionary strategies while translating from L1 into L2, which is the research area in this study. Likewise, the explanation part comes along to clarify each strategy.

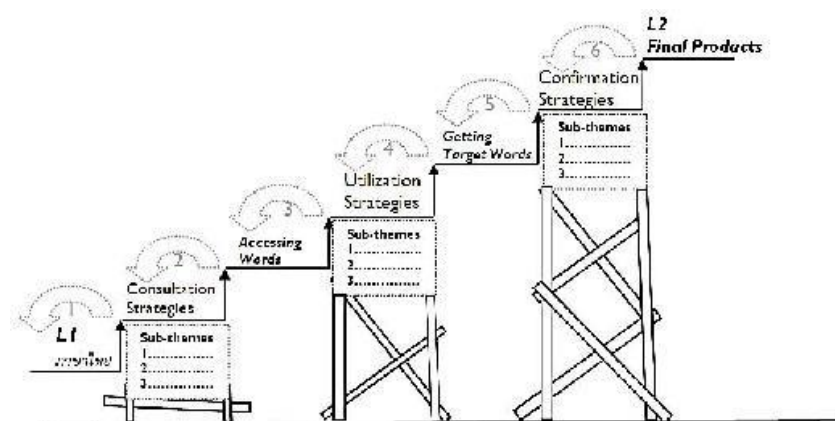


Figure 1: Model of using monolingual dictionary strategies while translating from L1 into L2

The first strategy from the so-called 'consultation strategy' plays the very first role when the students desire to look up words in a lexicon. Hence, the "consultation strategy" in this field is a pre-searching routine. It intends that before applying the dictionary, the students ought to determine their reasons why they should look it up in the dictionary. Additionally, they encounter word problems while translating from L1 into L2. To endorse these ideas, there are similar themes according to the scholars studies such as "getting started", "dictionary for comprehension", "looking-up strategies", "finding out the item exists/other words/the inflection", "finding out about grammar", "checking meaning", and "vocabulary development".

The utilization strategy is the second stage. It takes place when the tasks necessitate the students using words when they have already found out the meaning. That is, the utilization strategy is a while-searching routine, which activates when students make a decision to select L2 words for a target language in contexts. It rigidly looks at how the students select such vocabulary items on word lists in the lexicon. The fundamentals of developing this core theme are from the strategies of "looking for meaning and usage of new words", "clarification of similarities in words", "paraphrasing a key word", "working with meaning", "utilizing special features", and "vocabulary development".

The third strategy is the confirmation strategy that eventually acts when the students exploit the dictionary to double-check their L2 products. It is a post-searching routine which covers the strategies of "checking how the items are spelt/an appropriate item", "extended dictionary use", "eliminating an incorrect word class", "vocabulary development", "comparing the structure of a target

sentence", and "confirmation of meaning and usage".

3.3 Research tools

To gain both qualitative and quantitative data, there were two different research tools implemented in this study, namely a reflection of using a monolingual dictionary and an online questionnaire.

A reflection of using a monolingual dictionary —the primary research tool is intended to achieve qualitative data. The instruction for writing the reflection is that the students ought to reflect their direct experiences in using the monolingual dictionary by answering four open-ended questions in English. The open-ended questions in this current study were developed from the study of Harvey and Yuill in 1997, which was mentioned in *Applied Linguistics Journal*, OUP. After developing research questions to assemble into the study, there were four apposite questions: 1) What is your very first step before looking up unknown and known words in an English-English dictionary?; 2) When you find words in the monolingual dictionary, how do you select and use the right words for your translation task in L2 contexts?; 3) What are your own dictionary techniques when you confirm words after forming new English sentences?; and 4) What have you gained from your own experiences in using the English-English dictionary?. Question number four aspires to achieve supplementary data in order to encourage the foremost research consequences only, thus the data and results from this question are not conveyed to the second phase.

Appendix 19: The First Peer-reviewed Conference Abstract

The Past, Present and Future of English as a Medium of Instruction in Asian Higher Education

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The University of Waikato, New Zealand

Abstract

In Asia, English as a medium of instruction (EMI) has rapidly grown as a new instructional trend in higher education and become established. Hence, it is worthwhile for new researchers to comprehend the historical background, cutting edge and reasonable prospect of EMI in Asian tertiary education for the purpose of research. This presentation will begin with a brief synopsis of the history of EMI in the outer and expanding circles focusing on the post-colonial language education, language policy and internationalisation of higher education. Next, it will discuss EMI current issues by shedding light on opportunities, challenges and threat of using EMI. Later on, it will predict what the future faces of the EMI in Asian higher education as the trend in teaching and research will be based on recent literatures and EMI practitioners' reflections. These, then, are the main areas of concern and will be elaborated further in the presentation. After forming extensive grounds of EMI, the presentation will also address research gaps in EMI policies and practices, and then the proposed research and framework of a Thai university will be presented as an example that clearly intends to bridge such research gaps. In this part, the presentation will break the research framework down into its component parts, e.g. research paradigm and approach, research questions and instruments, and data collection and analysis. The intended research is expected to yield good returns in future for Asian researchers, educators, policy makers and university authorities.

Key words: EMI history, EMI current situations (opportunities, challenges and threat), research gaps in EMI, EMI future, Asian universities, Thailand

Appendix 20: The Second Peer-reviewed Conference Abstract

Multi-methods to Research: What Lecturers Think and Do about English-Medium Instruction Policy

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Abstract

Research on teacher cognition in English as a medium of instruction (EMI) in higher education has mushroomed in recent years, and the study of teacher cognition is fundamental to understanding of what lecturers believe and practise in EMI programmes. However, much of the research in this area has tended to adopt self-report data collection methods (i.e. interview and questionnaire) to study the stated beliefs of teachers, and then assume that their practices are firmly based on these. Very little research has employed multiple methods to explore not only what lecturers think about EMI policy, but what they actually do in their classes. This presentation reports a multi-method study intended to obtain a holistic analysis of an EMI programme in a Thai university. The study employed documentary analysis, semi-structured interviews, classroom observations, stimulated recall interviews and focus group discussions. Subsequent to the implementation of these data collection methods, the researcher reflected on their effectiveness. The presentation will make an appraisal of these research methods, and some ethical issues within each method will be discussed.

Key words: Teacher cognition, Language policy, English as a medium of instruction, University lecturers, Thailand