

Concepts of Literacy of Thai Foundation English Teachers: A National Study

by

Jakraphan Riamliw

B.A., Mahasarakham University, 1998

M.A., King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi, 2003

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of
School of Education in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

University of Pittsburgh

UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

This dissertation was presented

by

Jakraphan Riamliw

It was defended on

April 30, 2013

and approved by

Dr. Patricia A. Crawford, Associate Professor, Department of Instruction and Learning,

University of Pittsburgh

Dr. Heather J. Bachman, Associate Professor, Department of Psychology in Education,

University of Pittsburgh

Dr. Jirada Wudthayagorn, Assistant Professor, Chulalongkorn Language Institute,

Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok, Thailand

Dissertation Advisor: Dr. Richard Donato, Associate Professor, Department of Instruction

and Learning, University of Pittsburgh

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Jakraphan Riamliw, Ph.D.

University of Pittsburgh, 2013

This dissertation investigated the concepts of literacy held by Thai teachers of university-level Foundation English courses, the connection between concepts of literacy and EFL literacy instruction, teachers' literacy-teaching practices, and the challenges these teachers faced in teaching EFL literacy. The relationship between the concepts of literacy and the demographic backgrounds of the teachers (age, gender, highest degree earned, country where the highest degree was earned, institutions where the teacher worked, and professional development) was also addressed. Specifically, the participants in the study were 300 Thai teachers who taught Foundation English courses for undergraduate students. They held teaching positions in 23 universities that ranked among the 50 most-accessible web publication universities across Thailand. Also, case studies were conducted with 20 teachers in two universities (one university chosen from the middle-ranking universities and the other from the low-ranking universities). The instruments used in the study included paper-based surveys, face-to-face interviews, and classroom observations. All quantitative data were analyzed using PASW Statistics 18, and qualitative data were analyzed through coding and theming methods. It should be noted that qualitative analysis was performed only for further explaining the quantitative findings. The findings revealed that many participating teachers—with all types of degrees earned, types of institutions, years of teaching experience, and numbers of workshop, seminar, or conference participations—did not have a comprehensive view of literacy. They were found not to be familiar with or aware of the term and the theories of literacy, although in practice they

implemented a variety of literacy practices in their Foundation English classes. The challenges and difficulties that the teachers faced in EFL literacy instruction were similar, and they were associated with teacher and student attributes, curriculum design, instructional methods, classroom management, and administrative support. Significantly, school policies and administration were a key problem that caused other unmanageable challenges in EFL literacy instruction, such as large class sizes, mixed ability language classes, insufficient facilities, and less-effective teachers.

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PREFACE

My achievement in completing a doctoral study would not have been possible without the assistance and support of many people. It is a great pleasure to take this opportunity to thank all of them.

First and foremost, I would like to thank Dr. Richard Donato, my academic and dissertation advisor, who has always been available for help at any time since my admission to the program. Without him, my PhD journey would not have proceeded smoothly, if at all.

I would also like to express my appreciation to Dr. Heather Bachman, Dr. Patricia Crawford, and Dr. Jirada Wudthayagorn, my committee members, whose academic expertise and constructive comments and suggestions have greatly enhanced the quality of my dissertation. Their kindness and helpfulness will be remembered as well.

My sincere thanks to Dr. Amanda Godley, whose Theories of Literacy course provided me with a comprehensive view of literacy and the idea for this dissertation topic. Her friendliness and helpfulness are also appreciated.

Next, my gratitude goes to the following people who helped me at various stages of the dissertation process: Dr. Phensiri Dumrongpakapakorn, Dr. Piyawan Kasemsuppakorn, Dr. Saowaluck Tepsuriwong, Dr. Nuwee Chomphuchart, Dr. Suprawee Sukrutrit, Dr. Wei-Hsuan Lo (Jenny), Megan Reiley, Somkiat Kamolpan, all Thai EFL teachers who participated in this research, university-based coordinators, and faculty and staff of the universities represented in

this study. Thanks also to the University of the Thai Chamber of Commerce for financial support and to friends in Pittsburgh for their help and moments of joy.

Last but not least, I owe my deepest gratitude to my parents, sisters, and brother, for whom I undertook this study.

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Literacy instruction involves several interrelated constituents, such as students, peers, teachers, schools, families and communities (Lapadat, 1999; Christenson & Havsy, 2004). However, among these constituents, teachers are recognized as having the most influential role (Wright, Hom, & Sanders, 1997; Sanders, 1998; Goldhaber, 2002), especially in the context of EFL literacy where the target language, English, is not commonly used among people in the community (Punthumasen, 2007; Akbari & Allvar, 2010; Din, Khan, & Mahmood, 2010).

EFL teachers are supposed to be knowledgeable, skillful and experienced in the use of English and accordingly to use such proficiency to assist students to become literate in English. Engaging in curriculum and material design, planning lessons, teaching, managing classes, assessing student performance and giving language consultations to students are acknowledged roles of exemplary EFL literacy teachers (Camenson, 1995). Nevertheless, beyond just following these typical instructional roles, the beliefs that teachers hold about the nature of literacy and literacy instruction also shape the type of instruction they provide and, by extension, what students learn. In other words, teachers' beliefs about literacy are one of the major factors that leads to effective literacy instruction (Medwell, Wray, Poulson, & Fox, 1998). This idea is particularly relevant in the context of Thailand where each institution of higher education is required to implement national curriculum standards for EFL literacy instruction to fit their institutional goals. The purpose of this study, therefore, is to investigate Thai university-level

teachers' concepts of literacy for EFL instruction, their connections of concepts of literacy to EFL instruction, their classroom instructional practices, and the challenges of EFL literacy instruction that they face. The purpose of investigating the concepts of literacy of the teachers is to examine the differences among Thai teachers' beliefs about the nature of literacy in a foreign language and to compare their views with contemporary theories of literacy.

1.1 RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

In Thailand, most schools in primary and secondary education are required to follow the same EFL literacy curriculum that has been established and endorsed by the Ministry of Education. Such a practice, though, is not strictly regulated in higher education. That is, although all institutions of higher education in Thailand have curriculum standards developed by the Office of the Higher Education Commission (under the supervision of the Ministry of Education), they are permitted to interpret, design and manage their own EFL literacy instruction to fit the goals of their institutions. This administrative feature is an important determinant that defines and differentiates approaches to teaching EFL literacy between primary and secondary education and higher education in the country. Even among universities, varied interpretations of the same curriculum standards from the Office of the Higher Education Commission lead to diverse approaches to EFL literacy instruction e.g., content-based, genre-based, task-based, project-based, problem-based, and self-directed learning. The existence of these various approaches across institutions is reflected in a statement by Kern (2000), namely, "literacy means different things to different people" (p. 2). However, since there are no studies of the various

interpretations of literacy instruction among universities, we do not know what teachers believe about literacy and how they address literacy in their classes.

What is known for certain is that EFL students' literacy achievement at the university level is not strong in comparison to neighboring countries in Asia and that EFL curriculum seems to be indifferent to the future workplace needs of students. Based on the TOEFL Test and Score Data Summary (Educational Testing Service, 2011), Thai students have a TOEFL iBT total score of 75, whereas the students from Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, and Singapore have total scores of 78, 88, 88, and 98, respectively. Similarly, Suwanarak and Phothongsunan (2008) state that fluency in English is important for many major companies in the job market, but many Thai teachers of English spend the majority of class time on reading and writing instruction, rather than integrating it with speaking and listening skills, or what might be called a comprehensive view of literacy practices. In addition, all high achieving participants in their study perceived their learning outcomes in English as failures due to their inability to put their English language knowledge into practice.

Thus, although the Ministry of Education claims that the curriculum standards (see Appendix D) have been designed for students to cultivate a higher proficiency for advanced studies, qualified occupations, and access to the world communities (Weerawong, 2004), clearly the various interpretations and implementation of literacy instruction among Thai EFL teachers at the university level need examination and revision to address the concerns presented above.

1.2 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

This study aimed to investigate the concepts of literacy that were held by Thai teachers of university-level Foundation English courses and to examine their literacy-teaching practices in these courses. The teachers' concepts of literacy were investigated to examine the differences among Thai teachers' beliefs about the nature of literacy in a foreign language and to compare their views with contemporary theories of literacy. The investigation, in addition, endeavored to identify the challenges of teaching EFL literacy at the university level.

In short, the study has four major aspects of investigation: concepts of literacy of the teachers, connections of concepts of literacy to EFL literacy instruction, classroom instructional practices, and challenges of EFL literacy instruction. The relationship between the concepts of literacy and the demographic backgrounds of the teachers was also addressed, so that the findings can lead to insightful discussions and practical suggestions for teacher education and curriculum development for EFL literacy instruction in Thailand. Ideally, they may suggest remedies regarding the deficiency of teaching and learning EFL literacy in this context. The next section will present the research questions.

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Based on the aims of the study, the research questions consisted of:

1. What concepts of literacy do Thai teachers of university-level Foundation English courses hold for their L2 literacy instruction?

- a. What is the relationship between *the concepts of literacy* and *the demographic backgrounds of the teachers* (age, gender, highest degree earned, country where the highest degree was earned, professional development, type of institution, and geographical area of the institution)?
2. How do Thai teachers of university-level Foundation English courses connect their concepts of literacy to EFL instruction?
3. What are the literacy instructional practices of Thai teachers of university-level Foundation English courses?
4. What are the challenges of EFL literacy instruction of Thai teachers of university-level Foundation English courses?

1.4 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

As mentioned above, this study was conducted with Thai teachers of university-level Foundation English courses in Thailand. The study mainly focused on identifying the concepts of literacy among teachers, connections of concepts of literacy to EFL literacy instruction, classroom instructional practices, and challenges of EFL literacy instruction. The research instruments included self-administrated surveys, classroom observations, and face-to-face interviews. Concerning the sampling method, described in detail in Chapter 3, the study was carried out with only teachers from representative universities whose current ranks are among the 50 most-accessible web publication universities of Thai higher education. The reason for this sampling procedure, explained further in Chapter 3, is to ensure that the participating teachers have the necessary language proficiency and professional training to understand and comment upon the

concepts that are critical to this study. In order to prevent overgeneralizing, however, case studies were conducted with teachers in two universities: one ranked in the middle tier and the other in the lower tier of their country's universities according to nationally published websites.

1.5 SUMMARY OF INTRODUCTION

This chapter introduces rationale of the study, purposes of the study, research questions, and scope of the study. As guided by the rationale of the study, the researcher affirms that teachers' concepts of literacy are significant and need to be investigated, particularly in the context of Thailand where there is still a deficiency of EFL literacy development and instruction. Hopefully, the findings will lead to practical and useful suggestions for the development of EFL literacy instruction in this setting. The research questions are developed under the guidance of the purposes of the study, or as specifically addressed, the four aspects of investigation: concepts of literacy of the teachers, connections of concepts of literacy to EFL literacy instruction, classroom instructional practices, and challenges of EFL literacy instruction. The scope of the study, finally, informs the area and capacity of conducting the study, in which methodology is descriptive research, the participants of the study are Thai teachers of university-level Foundation English courses, and the instruments are self-administrated surveys, classroom observations, and face-to-face interviews.

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter provides a review of literature concerning the present study. Specifically, it presents information related to the need for studying the concepts of literacy among Thai teachers of Foundation English courses. The key aspects include current theories of L2 literacy, literacy in Thai culture: a brief history of its meaning and use, a brief history of EFL literacy instruction in Thailand, re-envisioning literacy for EFL literacy instruction in Thailand, need for the study, and a chapter summary and brief introduction to proposed research. These will be presented as follows and discussed in detail.

2.1 CURRENT THEORIES OF L2 LITERACY

With regard to the definitions of literacy proposed by several scholars, the researcher agrees with Ferdman (1991) and Anders and Guzzetti (2005) that the definitions of literacy are in flux and are idiosyncratic. In other words, the definitions of literacy from past to present have been reconceptualized across time by many scholars. This section will examine closely the contemporary explanations of literacy and also discuss how it is different from the traditional definitions.

For many years, several scholars in the field of literacy such as Street (1984), Kramsch (1985), Gee (1990, 2008), Heath (1991), Kress (1994, 1997), New London Group (1996), Kern

(2000, 2004), Hull and Schultz (2001), and Olson (2006) have re-envisioned the definitions of literacy, expanding the descriptions to a wider range of abilities of communications, not only in-school academic literacy, but also in out-of-school literacies. Specifically, literacy from the new perspective refers to the ability to understand and negotiate meanings through any form of texts and modalities, such as oral and written languages, images, equations, symbols, sounds, gestures, graphs and artifacts, in any set of socially-, historically, and culturally situated practices. To understand and negotiate meanings through those forms of texts and modalities in varying situated practices, literacy also encompasses a dynamic set of sub-abilities like interpreting, predicting, inferring, imagining, problem solving, analyzing, synthesizing, collaborating, reflecting, and self-reflecting.

One significant feature that seems to make the contemporary and traditional definitions of literacy divergent is “a wide variety of abilities of communication in multiple forms of texts and modalities”. These abilities reflect in the contemporary definition rather than in the traditional definition of literacy. Within the traditional definition, we find that literacy is generally defined only as “the ability to read and write” the print text. The traditional definition can also be found in the Compact Oxford English Dictionary (2006).

In second and foreign language learning (L2), the traditional view of literacy dominates and is routinely referred to the ability to read and write or, stated differently, the basic skills of coding and decoding the print text (Warschauer, 1997). In some cases, literacy instruction from this traditional view refers to only the study of literature and literary history from the target cultures. Based on the researcher’s own experience as a student and teacher of English as a Foreign Language, critical, creative, imaginative, reflective and interpretive ways of reading and writing are not extensively addressed in Thai EFL instruction. Even in the United States, Flower

(1990) who describes the term “receptive literacy” as the ability to comprehend textual information, mentions that the primary skill that American students in foreign language classes are trained for is recalling and reproducing factual content. In the context of a foreign language literature course, receptive literacy is often understood as factual recall of details from literary pieces rather than textual analysis and interpretation. From this perspective, students of a foreign language are said to accomplish the goals of L2 literacy as long as they can decode and encode the new language and recall details from what they read. Therefore, it is not surprising to hear the terms “receptive literacy” or “skill-based literacy” in the context of second and foreign language learning. This is because the traditional view of literacy, which typically sees literacy as the skills of decoding and encoding information, has been accepted in this disciplinary context for several years.

Another important aspect that distinguishes the contemporary definition of literacy from the traditional definition is “social practices”. By social practices, Gee (1990) explains that “When we look at the practices of such [social] groups, it is next to impossible to separate anything that stands apart as a literacy practice from other practices. ...You can no more cut the literacy out of the overall social practice, or cut away the non-literacy parts from the literacy elements of the overall practice, than you can subtract the white squares from a chess board and still have a chess board” (p.43). This suggests that literacy and social practices are inseparable. As Street (2006) explains “the ways in which teachers or facilitators and their students interact is already a social practice that affects the nature of the literacy learned and the ideas about literacy held by the participants, especially new learners and their positions in relations of power” (p. 23). Therefore, defining literacy simply as the ability to read and write values only a set of technical skills or mental operations residing in individuals, and fails to value the ways in which literacy

interrelates with the power relations within social, institutional, and cultural relationship. Street (1995, 2006) calls literacy that values the technical skills, but fails to take the social, cultural, and historical context into consideration as the “autonomous” model, and the more socially, culturally, and historically sensitive view of literacy practices that vary from one context to another as the “ideological” model.

Viewing literacy as social practices suggests that literacy practices involve constructing and negotiating meanings of the text in any particular social situation. So, in language teaching and learning situation, language, as a system of meaning making (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004), needs to be used as one primary tool for mediating and negotiating social and cultural relationships embodied in text, not only the development of the mechanical skills of decoding and encoding information. The consequences of envisioning literacy as social practices in L2 teaching and learning are shown in the findings of the empirical study entitled “Those anime students”: Foreign language literacy development through Japanese popular culture” by Fukunaga (2006). This study demonstrates how literacy skills of Japanese foreign language learners such as word recognition, listening comprehension, and pronunciation can be developed through the social and cultural contexts provided by Japanese animation.

The last feature that differentiates the contemporary definition from the traditional definition of literacy is the role of “out-of-school literacy”. That is, from this new perspective, literacy should be recognized not only as school-based literacy (e.g., producing and interpreting academic texts), but also literacy practices that occur out of the classrooms and in the lives of students (Hull & Schultz, 2002; Ben-Yosef, 2003; Gee, 2004). One significant reason that lies behind this view is the crisis in literacy instruction and the realization that schools do not succeed in educating a fully literate citizenry (Resnick, 1990). According to Resnick, it is vital to

examine the nature of literacy practices both within school and outside of school so that we understand the literacy crisis and work toward possible solutions.

The nature of literacy practices outside of school involves everyday communication through multiple forms of text and modalities beyond the printed text in schools (Moje & Tysvaer, 2010; Alvermann, 2002; Hull & Schultz, 2001). Examples of out-of-school literacy practices that are related to in-school literacy activities include keeping diaries, writing plays, Internet surfing and chat, texting through cell phones, reading newspapers, magazines, and cookbooks, watching TV, joining sporting events, and attending various social functions. The positive effects of including out-of-school literacy practices in an English language class, are revealed in the study by Bitz (2004), “The Comic Book Project: Forging alternative pathways to literacy.” The analysis of this study showed that students who participated in the project made use of reading, writing, listening and speaking skills and demonstrated comprehension, expression, critical analysis, and social interaction. Most students (86%) reported that The Comic Book Project helped them become better writers and that they used the artistic medium to reflect on their lives through the expression of the expressing harsh inner-city realities in which they lived.

2.2 LITERACY IN THAI CULTURE:

A BRIEF HISTORY OF ITS MEANING AND USE

From past to present, literacy in Thailand has been progressively developed along with a shift in meaning and use. According to the Office of the Non-Formal Education Commission (2007), literacy development in Thailand can be divided into five periods: the first period between 1940

and 1947, the second period between 1948 and 1960, the third period between 1961 and 1976, the fourth period between 1977 and 1997, and the fifth period between 1998 and the present. Each period will be explained chronologically as follows.

The first period (1940-1947)

In this period, literacy was defined as the ability to read and write simple Thai language, as well as to understand the indispensable duties of the citizen. The target groups for literacy development were mostly adults, and adult education schools were formally introduced and run using the existing facilities of formal schools in the evening. Therefore, the terms “literacy” and “adult literacy” were used interchangeably during this period.

The second period (1948-1960)

The definition of literacy was no longer defined simply as the ability to read and write the Thai language. It was made broader by adding the ability in mathematical calculation as well as some knowledge and skills necessary for the improvement of everyday life. So, literacy for adult education in this period was extended to include fundamental education, vocational skills training and education for community development. The target groups were the same as the first period; that is, out-of-school population, including both children and adults. It was also categorized into sub groups, such as rural and urban adults, minority groups of hill tribes, and Thai Muslims.

The third period (1961-1976)

Notable developments in the concepts of literacy and non-formal education, formerly considered only adult education, evolved in this period. Namely, three major interrelated concepts of functional literacy, “Khit-pen” (ability to think) philosophy, and lifelong learning were set off and implemented in the development of literacy in non-formal education.

Functional literacy, in the beginning, encompassed basic literacy skills defined in the previous period and vocational skills. Later, its concept was expanded to include problem-solving skills and critical thinking abilities which were conceptually stated as a Khit-pen process. The Khit-pen philosophy consisted of three kinds of information: academic knowledge, self-knowledge and environmental knowledge. The concept of lifelong learning, which referred to a process in which individuals were able to learn throughout life for social, economic and political development, was brought to the attention before the end of the third period. The implementation of the concept, however, was not restricted to non-formal education, but included formal and informal education, as well.

The fourth period (1977-1997)

The National Statistical Office officially defined the definition of literacy in conducting national census as the ability to read and write in any language of a person 10-years-old and above. However, the target groups for literacy programs organized by the Ministry of Education were those between the ages of 14 to 50-years-old who had not completed Grade 4 of primary education and still could not read and write simple Thai language. One significant milestone that was considerably supported equal opportunity in basic education during this period was the new nationwide standard of six years of compulsory education. Moreover, the concept of lifelong learning initially introduced in the previous period was enacted for literacy development in the middle of this period. In addition, the term “adult education” was completely replaced by the term “non-formal education”.

The fifth period (1998-Present)

Due to the serious economic crisis at the end of 1997, the Ministry of Education and its administrative system was reformed and restructured. The Non-Formal Education Commission

began to take charge of all tasks of the Department of Non-Formal Education in 2003. The definition of literacy in this period varied according to each field of work within the government organizations, for example, persons between the ages of 15 to 60-years-old who can read and write Thai language, as well as can do simple calculations (minimum basic needs surveyed between 2007 and 2011 by the Community Development Department, Ministry of Interior). Currently, the Office of the Non-Formal Education Commission is attempting to broaden the definition of literacy by including “computer skills” in literacy (Suwanpitak, 2008). More importantly, all Thai citizens have an equal right to 12 years of free education, compulsory from Grade 1 to Grade 9 and optional from Grade 10 to 12 (Suwanpitak, 2008; Wongsothorn, Hiranburana, & Chinnawongs, 2004).

To sum up, the use of literacy in Thailand is mainly for the improvement of the quality of life and everyday activities of the people in the country. The definitions of literacy were extensively developed to solve the illiteracy problem among portions of population that lack opportunities in formal schooling. Therefore, literacy development, especially during the first four periods, was more closely related to non-formal education, or formerly understood as adult education in Thailand, than formal schooling. Thus, it could be said that non-formal education provided more flexibility than formal education in determining aims, modalities, management procedures, duration, assessment and evaluation conditional to its completion (Petcharugsa, 2004). At present, the development of literacy in the country has reached a considerable success, with the adult literacy rate (age 15 and over) at 93.5% (Suwanpitak, 2008). This high rate of literacy may be due to the fact that all Thai citizens have an equal right to receive twelve years of free education. However, despite the high rate of literacy, precise definitions of literacy are not widely shared among government and non-government organizations.

2.3 A BRIEF HISTORY OF EFL LITERACY INSTRUCTION IN THAILAND

2.3.1 General background of EFL literacy instruction in Thailand

As suggested by the previous section, although the definition of literacy in Thailand has shifted across time, the ability to read and write the language has always been seen as a priority and acknowledged in every period of literacy development. In addition to Thai, there are several other languages, both native and foreign, spoken by indigenous peoples in the country (Palmer, 1983). For foreign languages, Palmer identifies that Thai people use classical (Pali, Sanskrit, Arabic) and modern (English, Chinese, French, Japanese, German, Spanish, Italian, Russian, Arabic). However, the most widely used foreign language is English, which has become a compulsory subject for formal schooling for several decades. This section highlights general background of EFL literacy instruction in Thailand. It begins with the descriptions of the development of EFL literacy instruction in the country, and then current EFL literacy instruction and use in Thai culture.

2.3.1.1 Development of EFL literacy instruction in Thailand

The development of EFL literacy instruction in Thailand is comprehensively explained in the works by Durongphan, Aksomkul, Sawangwong and Tiancharoen (1982), Wongsothorn, Hiranburana and Chinnawongs (2004) and Foley (2005). To begin, the teaching of English in Thailand started since the reign of King Rama III (1824-1851). Knowledge of English became essential for the country due to the growing number of westerners, with a greater need amongst higher court officials and administrators. From its conception to the 19th century, learning English in the country originally took three forms: opening a class for members of the royal

family, sending members of the royal family and the ruling class to Europe for Western-style education, and establishing schools and teaching English as a subject in the curriculum (Okihara, Keyurawong, & Tachibana, 2007). A shift came in 1921 when English became a compulsory subject beyond Grade 4, not just for elites but for other children, too (Durongphan et al., 1982). In other words, the teaching of English literacy in this period was expanded to a wide range of classes and a larger group of learners. Later in 1960, the English syllabus for secondary schools was changed with a greater emphasis on English for international communication. Instruction was done through the audio-lingual method.

In 1977, English was no longer taught in primary education due to the low achievement of the learners (Phongthongchareon, 1977). English, as well as other foreign languages taught in schools, were then classified as electives in 1977 and 1980. The reasons for this policy were (a) the belief that second language learning should be introduced only after students had mastered their first language; (b) a lack of qualified teachers in most primary schools (Wongsothorn et al., 2004). With regard to the aims of the English curricula, they were primarily placed on the use of language for communicative purposes in all four skills: speaking, listening, reading and writing.

In 1996, English became a compulsory subject for all primary students from Grade 1. It was taught under the revised proficiency-based curriculum. The ultimate goals of teaching and learning were to train students to become proficient in using English to achieve a variety of purposes such as communication, acquisition of knowledge, use of English in academic studies, career advancement and appreciation of the language and culture. In 2001 to the present, standards and benchmarks for each grade level were clearly blueprinted. At the level of basic education, primary and secondary are combined into one single stream with four sub-levels: Preparatory Level: *Pratomsuksa* 1-3 (grade 1-3), Beginning Level: *Pratomsuksa* 4-6 (grades 4-

6), Expanding Level: *Matayomsuksa* 1-3 (grades 7-9), and Progressive Level: *Matayonsuksa* 4-6 (grades 10-12) (Wongsothorn et al., 2004). At the level of higher education, students are required to take at least 12 credits instead of six in English, namely, six in general English and the other six in English for academic or specific purposes. The new English Curriculum standards are developed and influenced by the American educational system (Mackenzie, 2002). They are based on the four C's: culture, communication, connection, and communities.

2.3.1.2 Current EFL literacy instruction and use in Thai culture

In order to improve student achievement in EFL literacy, there has been a paradigm shift in methods of teaching English in Thailand from traditional teacher-centred methods to more learner-centred methods. In the learner-centred methods, the learners are viewed as constructors of knowledge through multiple teaching and learning processes (e.g., active and reflective lesson involvement, multiple instructional delivery system, information exchange), while teachers as synthesizers, navigators and coordinators of learning (Barr & Tagg, 1995; Tudor 1996). The teaching methods are also integrated with practical experience based on local community needs and independent work, autonomous learning, and self-access centers (Baker, 2008). Similarly, the use of English language in the country has shifted from small groups to larger groups of people and from limited domains to broad domains. For example, rather than limited to royal family and ruling classes, English is now taught in formal schooling throughout the country and every Thai citizen can study it from Grade 1 and beyond. Thai people can also become familiar with the use of English at any time, as long as they have an access to the Internet, where English is the primary language. More specifically, Foley (2005) gives example domains where English is used very widely in Thai society in the current situation. These domains include working language of international organizations and conferences, international banking, economic affairs

and trades, advertising for global brands, media and audio-visual products (e.g., film, TV, popular music), tourism, tertiary education, international safety (e.g., airspeak, seaspeak), interpretation and translation, international law, scientific publications, technology transfer, and Internet communication.

Alternatively, Wongsothorn, Sukamolsun, Chinthammit, Ratanothayanonth and Noparumpa (1996) state that English in the Thai context is used to communicate with both native and non-native speakers, meaning it is used between fellow Thai citizens, particularly those who work in academia, and between Thais and native and non-native speakers of English in any domain of communication stated earlier. The necessity of English for students exists as a subject requirement and a national university entrance examination (Weerawong, 2004). As a subject matter, English is compulsory for students at all levels of education, from primary to higher education. A higher level of education means a greater skill in English for a wide range of domains. For example, some universities at the higher education level implement a project-based approach to their English courses; therefore, students are encourage to work on problem-solving, decision making, or investigative activities through the English medium, both collaboratively and autonomously over an extended period of time (Jones, Rasmussen, & Moffitt, 1997; Thomas, Mergendoller, & Michaelson, 1999). With regard to the national university entrance examination, although the admission system has changed over time, English among other subjects is still a requirement for high school students to be accepted into any university. English, in other words, is mandatory in the university entrance examination in which all students cannot avoid.

2.3.2 Foundation English courses in higher education and research studies

2.3.2.1 General background of Foundation English courses

What the researcher hopes this general background to Foundation English at the tertiary level will illustrate, is that despite advances to EFL instruction, the concept of literacy, as defined earlier, and literacy instruction as an overarching framework for curriculum development are still very much lacking. Despite initiatives to improve EFL instruction, university-level EFL instruction still fails to acknowledge the central role of literacy to a students' future as an English language user. The following background information will illustrate this point.

At the university level, English curricula have been revised to respond better to current needs and realistic use of English in a globalizing world. As previously stated, the number of credits in compulsory English courses that every student has to complete is increased from six credits to 12 credits. The 12 credits required for English courses include six in general English and the other six in English for academic or specific purposes (Wongsothorn et al., 2004; Foley, 2005; Prapphal, 2008). These courses form the Foundation English program in both public and private Thai universities.

Specifically, the curriculum standards for Foundation English courses 1-4 (June 2002) include two goals: (1) to use English to communicate in social settings both inside and outside the university; and (2) to use English to help achieve personal and academic goals and to promote life-long learning. Seven standards are tied to these goals (see Appendix D). The focus of instruction is principally on independent work, autonomous learning, innovation and new technology English language teaching, for example, self-access learning, performance standards of general English and English for academic and specific purposes. Therefore, in regard to the definition of literacy by Street (1995, 2006), EFL literacy in the context of Thai universities

appears to fall on a continuum of an “autonomous” model rather than an “ideological” model. However, this conclusion may not hold true for all universities, as each university has sufficient freedom in implementing a policy of English instruction to accommodate the goals of their institutions.

For instructors, the Foundation English courses are taught by Thai non-native English speakers and native speakers of English (Baker, 2003); nevertheless, the majority of those teachers are Thai (Saengboon, 2002). Like many other countries where English is not the native language, Punthumasen (2007) states that quality of teachers is one problem that leads towards a low standard of English literacy achievement of Thai students. In addition, since the Ministry of Education has allowed higher education institutions throughout the country to open an International Study Program, in which English is used as a medium of instruction, a shortage of English teachers takes place. The lack of qualified English teachers is also due to attractive salaries offered by the private sector (Weerawong, 2004).

In regard to teaching and learning materials, they vary from university to university depending on the contents and beliefs about teaching and learning within each university. In other words, apart from the content design, Thai universities have freedom to implement teaching and learning materials as they see fit and believe to support their Foundation English courses.

2.3.2.2 Studies on Foundation English courses

Research regarding EFL classroom in Thailand, especially those published in English, is rare (Weerawong, 2004). In addition to the studies of classroom interactions and actual practices of CLT claimed by Weerawong, studies on Foundation English courses are also minimal. Two recent studies on Foundation English courses were done by Tepsuriwong and Srisunakruea (2009)

and Suwandecha, Kittidhaworn and Vijchulata (2002). In the study on “Degrees of Learner-centredness in Thai Tertiary English Courses” by Tepsuriwong and Srisunakruea (2009), almost all Thai leading universities (6 out of 7) run their Foundation English courses in a skill-based and/or a grammar-based approach. The study’s findings are in accordance with those in the study by Sinprajakpol (2004), in which student teachers preferred traditional ways of teaching an audio-lingual approach and a grammar translation approach. Interestingly, two features of learner-centeredness, “community involvement” and “value and integrity” (qualities of good learners, for example, producing learners who are both competent and ethical), were not stated in the Foundation English courses of all universities. As previously mentioned, community involvement is one of the four C’s for the development of foreign language learning and also a significant feature (understood as out-of school literacy) in the contemporary concept of literacy. However, overall findings revealed that all of the Thai universities discussed in the study valued learner-centered education, but in varying degree.

The study by Suwandecha et al. (2002) investigated effectiveness of Foundation English Courses (I and II) at Sripatum University. The investigation focused on three major elements of the course syllabi: goals and objectives, teaching and learning process, and student assessment and the course effectiveness. The findings indicated that the students were not satisfied with the elements of the course syllabi in the actual teaching and learning situations despite high expectation for these elements. The weak points of the Foundation English courses, as commented by the students, were the goals and objectives and content, which should intensify the language skills especially listening and speaking skills. Likewise, the teachers claimed that the goals and objectives of teaching the four communicative language skills were not clearly specified. The findings were consistent with those in the study by Tepsuriwong and Srisunakruea

(2009), in which the course descriptions of Foundation English courses of most universities were rather broad, too short and rarely revised.

The similarity of the two studies presented above is that they look mainly at general communicative goals and purposes of English instruction of the Foundation English courses. Precisely, literacy is not a part of these studies. Therefore, it can be claimed that EFL instruction in Thai universities lacks an initiative on the study addressing the importance of the concept of literacy in any dimension.

2.3.3 Teacher preparation and professional development

To hold a position in EFL literacy instruction at the university level, most universities require teachers to have a minimum of a master's degree in a direct or related field of TEFL such as TESOL, TESL, ELT, English, Language and Communication, Linguistics, and Applied Linguistics. For teacher students, EFL and related programs are available at all level of higher education (bachelors, masters and doctorate) under different names, faculties and universities. However, it seems that the courses about theories of literacy are rarely taught among Thai universities, especially at a bachelor's degree level. According to Prapaisit (2003), the courses taught at the bachelor's degree level include (a) general education consisting of education, psychology, philosophy, philosophy of education, educational psychology and general methods of teaching classroom research; (b) major topics consisting of grammar, reading, composition, conversation, translation, English literature, language laboratory work, English western culture, first and second language acquisition theories, methods of foreign language teaching, and research on foreign language teaching and learning; (c) related areas consisting of linguistics,

psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, sociology, arts communication, and non-verbal communication.

In regard to professional development, a chance for the teachers to access theories of literacy is also rather limited. Although there are many conferences and workshops for professional development of English teachers held by several organizations each year (Tepsuriwong & Srisunakruea, 2009), only a few focus on literacy. In other words, most conferences and workshops organized year-round contribute to the aspects of language pedagogy, linguistics, and language skills development. Conferences directly promoting the pedagogies of literacy (primarily reading literacy) are organized by the Thailand Reading association (accessible at <http://thailandreading.com>). Nevertheless, there is still a constructive opportunity for the teachers to increase their knowledge and proficiency in theories of literacy. That is, the government and institutions with which the teachers are affiliated support them to take special courses overseas (Foley, 2005).

2.3.4 What makes effective literacy teachers

Although Medwell, Wray, Poulson and Fox (1998) view literacy as a unitary process with two complementary aspects, reading and writing, and an emphasis on a basic principle within the National Curriculum for English, their discussions on effective literacy instruction provide substantial insight. They believe that effective literacy teachers should have three characteristics. First, the teachers should systematically employ a range of teaching methods, materials and classroom tasks matched to the needs of the specific students they are teaching. For example, they should implement the deliberate teaching of the codes of written language, the creation of "literate environments", the provision of a range of models and examples of effective literacy

practices, the use of praise and constructive criticism in response to students' literacy work, the design and provision of focused tasks with academic content, and the continuous monitoring of students' progress into their classroom instruction.

Second, they should have coherent beliefs about the nature and the learning of literacy which can guide them in selection of teaching approaches. An example of a weak linkage between teacher beliefs and practice in a writing lesson is given: As a teacher aims at enabling students to produce an exciting story with plenty of action and good ideas, but in practice she emphasizes exclusively the need for accuracy in spelling and presentation without reference to the central criteria of excitement, action and good ideas. Therefore, effective progress of students is not achieved.

Third, the teachers should have a well-developed knowledge of the subject and its pedagogical principles which underpins their teaching. Specifically, types of knowledge that they should have include knowledge of content, knowledge about effective pedagogy, knowledge about learners and how they learn and knowledge of the particular students in their class.

In the Thai context, the characteristics of effective EFL literacy teachers are not much different from those described by Medwell et al. (1998). Those characteristics addressed in the studies by Suwandee (1994), Meepiarn (1995) and Wichadee (2007) cover being well-prepared for class, having a good knowledge of subject, having interesting teaching techniques, making difficult subject easy to understand, giving clear explanations, stressing important materials, summarizing major points, motivating or encouraging students to attend classes, providing activities and exercises to promote students' learning, willing to help students in and out of the classroom, having a pleasant personality, and being friendly towards students. Considering in

terms of categories and in order of importance, the three studies revealed that most Thai EFL students agree that effective teaching characteristics of the teachers should be in the aspect of organization/preparation, communication skills, and socio-affective skills, respectively.

Thus, it can be said that to become effective literacy teachers, particularly in the EFL context requires a variety of quality characteristics, and these characteristics should be considered dynamic. The reason for this recommendation lies in the fact of individual differences. According to the results of the study by Wichadee (2007), students with low proficiency and high proficiency of English perceived effective EFL literacy teachers differently, for example, the students with low proficiency of English identified “teaching step by step and checking students’ understanding continually”, whereas the students with high proficiency addressed “providing different learning activities that promote students’ participation.”

2.4 RE-ENVISIONING LITERACY FOR EFL INSTRUCTION IN THAILAND

The sections above suggest that EFL instruction in the Thai university context meets several constraints that prevent students from being functionally literate in English and that, therefore, literacy and its contemporary conception should be considered as important components of the instruction. These constraints involve teacher beliefs, instructional approaches, and the relationship between culture and literacy development.

According to Kagan (1992), the study of beliefs is important to educational practice, stating that, “it may be the clearest measure of a teacher’s professional growth, and it appears to be instrumental in determining the quality of interaction one finds among the teachers in a given school” (p. 85). Likewise, Pajares (1992), Richards and Lockhart (1994) and Rios (1996) state

that classroom practices can be affected by the beliefs of the teachers. In the Thai EFL literacy context, two empirical studies by Vibulphol (2004) and Mullock (2003) uncovered beliefs that may need to be challenged. In the study by Mullock (2003), a Thai postgraduate TESOL student, among six international participants, responded that a good teacher was one who helped students receive good grades on exams. The finding elucidates the constraints of the current situation of Thai education that prioritizes literacy as an achievement on exams instead of achievement in functional performance. In the study by Vibulphol (2004), some pre-service EFL literacy teachers believed that it was best to learn English in an English-speaking country; some of them endorsed the concept of speaking English with correct pronunciation. Moreover, most pre-service teachers were concerned about form rather than meaning when conducting class activities. If the in-service teachers hold these beliefs in their EFL literacy teaching, students may not achieve true literacy in the English language.

Still, Thai teachers implement traditional approaches to EFL literacy teaching, particularly a grammar-translation approach and an audio-lingual approach, into their classes (Saengboon, 2002; Prapaisit, 2003; Sinprajakpol, 2004). Those approaches are potentially unsupportive to student learning and literacy achievement in the context of Thailand (Mackenzie, 2002). Meanwhile, the instructional approaches believed to be effective for student achievement in EFL literacy, such as a learner-centered approach (Hallinger, 2003; Waelateh, 2009) and a Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach (Nonkukhetkhong, Baldauf Jr., & Moni, 2006; Promsiri, Prabphal, & Vijchulata, 1996) are still problematic in the implementation. That is, educational staff, especially teachers, do not receive insight into the concepts of those instructional approaches, directly correlating with unsatisfactory levels of achievement. According to Promsiri, Prabphal and Vijchulata (1996), teachers who hold bachelor's degree in

English Education and have been teaching for 12-20 years in schools do not have a deep conceptual understanding of CLT pedagogy. This could mean that the teachers may interpret and implement CLT in a different way.

Lastly, although the Ministry of Education realizes the relationship between culture and EFL literacy development, an investigation of TESOL materials by Clarke and Clarke (1990) showed that the cultural issues in many of these materials were presented rather one sided, idealized and with an alarmingly narrow perspective. Similarly, the study on “Cultural Issues and Influences in ESL/EFL Reading” by Piromruen and Pandian (2007) revealed that Thai EFL literacy teachers reported only a few cases in the intercultural or multicultural communication when compared to those of EFL literacy teachers in Malaysia. In other words, the intercultural and multicultural communication is rarely found in Thai EFL literacy classrooms. According to Guest (2002), if EFL classrooms focus on national cultural stereotypes, then students and a diverse range of equally important sub-cultures may be ignored. The students will then develop an unrealistic stereotyped view of English culture (Clarke and Clarke, 1990). This disconnect from English in their own culture could hinder English literacy performance.

As presented at the beginning of the chapter, developing literacy abilities has several dimensions beyond developing some particular, exam-mandated abilities; therefore, re-envisioning literacy in the context of Thai EFL instruction where a level of student achievement in English literacy is still far from satisfactory should not be overlooked.

2.5 NEED FOR STUDY

Overall, the literature review affirms that although EFL literacy instruction in the Thai context has been valued and developed by relevant people and organizations (e.g., the Ministry of Education, educators, teachers, researchers) for several years, difficulties and challenges that interfere with student achievement in English literacy remain a constant. These difficulties and challenges consist of

- a shift in the use of English language from limited to broad domains in the current situation;
- limited courses, conferences, and workshops on theories of literacy;
- broad and underspecified course descriptions of the Foundation English program;
- teachers implementing traditional or out-dated teaching approaches that do not support student achievement in English literacy;
- teachers lacking insight into the concepts of contemporary approaches to EFL literacy teaching (e.g., content-based approach, standards-based approach, genre-based approach);
- lack of cultural relationships in EFL/TESOL teaching and learning materials;
- teachers' unawareness of cultural relationships, particularly intercultural and multicultural communications.

Obviously, almost all difficulties and challenges involve “teachers”, whose duties and responsibilities are to help students to become literate in English. These difficulties and challenges, recognized here as teachers' instructional practices, are partly influenced by a crucial

factor: freedom to implement the English curriculum standards developed by the Office of the Higher Education Commission. Schools and Foundation English programs have freedom to implant a curriculum loosely-based on the ministry's standards, which yields a variety of interpretations of the English curriculum standards among teachers in each university, which later become a guideline for their classroom practices. However, the interpretations of the curriculum standards among university teachers across the country are not found by all studies. Therefore, we do not know what teachers believe about literacy in the Thai EFL context that may engage the exact cause of the difficulties and challenges that prevent students from the achievement in English literacy. In addition, based on personal experiences as a student teacher, a Theories of Literacy course that the researcher took during a graduate study in the United States, but never in Thailand, allowed him to be aware of how literacy is significant to language development and instruction, especially in the EFL context. The course also substantiates that concepts of literacy are idiosyncratic, and so if we know what concepts of literacy that most teachers hold for their L2 instruction, we will likely understand why Thai teachers are not successful in fostering students to become literate in English. Thus, a national survey on teachers' concepts of literacy in the EFL university context is needed for the following reasons:

- It is a first step in understanding what teachers believe about literacy and how they approach instruction in their classrooms;
- It will help us understand what training teachers need;
- It might help us understand the relationship between educational background, what teachers believe about literacy, and what they do in the classroom;
- It will raise awareness of the teachers and relevant constituencies and organizations;

- Ultimately, it will provide recommendations and a direction for improving EFL literacy instruction in Thailand.

2.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY AND BRIEF INTRODUCTION TO PROPOSED RESEARCH

For better insight into the current study, this chapter presents and discusses the related information on current theories of L2 literacy, meaning and use of literacy in Thai culture, a brief history of EFL literacy instruction in the Thai context, and reasons for re-envisioning literacy for EFL literacy instruction in Thailand. Then, the presentation and discussions are narrowed down to the current difficulties and challenges of EFL literacy instruction in the country. Most of these difficulties and challenges are found associated with teachers' instructional practices, specifically, which may indicate that teachers are primarily at fault for lack of English literacy achievement in Thailand. However, as the exact cause of difficulties and challenges is still in doubt, the need for a current study on Thai EFL teachers' concepts of literacy is proposed.

As introduced in Chapter 1, this study aims to investigate the concepts of literacy of Thai Foundation English teachers at the university level. Mainly, the study is expected to uncover what teachers believe about the nature of literacy in a foreign language, L2 literacy instruction, and challenges of teaching for literacy. The findings might fill the gap in relevant literature, namely, proving if the difficulties and challenges that prevent students from achievement in English literacy extensively involve the teachers and their concepts of literacy.

3.0 METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the description of how the study was conducted along with essential parts involved in the investigation. The chapter introduces the context of the investigation, methods and procedures, data analysis and interpretation, and expected findings. The context of the investigation is described in terms of the research site, duration of study, goals, and justification for selecting a sample group. Methods and procedures cover demographic characteristics of the participants and information about research instruments, their validity and reliability, and data collection. Data analysis and interpretation, as the section title suggests, delineates approaches and techniques for processing, analyzing, interpreting, and representing the obtained data. Possible research outcomes will be then presented in the section of expected findings.

3.1 CONTEXT OF THE INVESTIGATION

As described in Chapter 1, the goal of the study was to investigate the concepts of literacy that were held by Thai teachers of university-level Foundation English courses and to examine literacy-teaching practices in these courses. The purpose of investigating teachers' concepts of literacy was to examine the differences among Thai teachers' beliefs about the nature of literacy in a foreign language, to compare their views with contemporary theories of literacy, and to identify the challenges of teaching for literacy. Based on findings, the study has the potential to

provide practical suggestions for teacher education and curriculum development for EFL literacy instruction in Thailand.

To accomplish the goal of the study, a survey was developed, pilot tested and revised (see Appendix A). The survey was distributed to 300 Thai teachers of university-level Foundation English courses in 23 universities in Thailand. These representative universities were selected from the 50 most-accessible web publication universities of Thai higher education institutions that were ranked by the Webometrics Ranking of World's Universities in July 2010 (accessible at http://www.webometrics.info/about_rank.html). The criteria of these 50 universities, representing 30% of all 167 higher education institutions in Thailand, are (a) Web publication; (b) Open Access initiatives; (c) electronic access to scientific publications and to other academic materials; (d) the web presence of activities of university faculty members. Therefore, the teachers from these universities are assumed to be qualified participants for the study. Clearly, 'qualified participants' in the study refers to teachers who were able to express their concepts of literacy and literacy teaching practices, the goal of the primary research question, due to their educational experiences and possible opportunities they have had to learn about the concept of literacy. Based on the ranking criteria, the teachers from the 50 universities are more likely to hold such opportunities and of course to become qualified participants. In addition, based on personal conversations with some friends who were teaching in a middle-ranking and low-ranking university a couple years ago, it was found that these teachers had no ideas about concepts of literacy and literacy instruction. As suggested by Dörnyei (2007), Glaser and Strauss (1967) and Gay, Mills, and Airasian (2006), one technique known as purposive sampling is to select potential respondents whom the researcher believes will achieve the purposes of the study. It is for this reason that the selection criteria for participant sampling were established for this

study. An overview of this sampling technique can be visually represented in relation to a figure designed by Malage (2010) (see Figure 1).

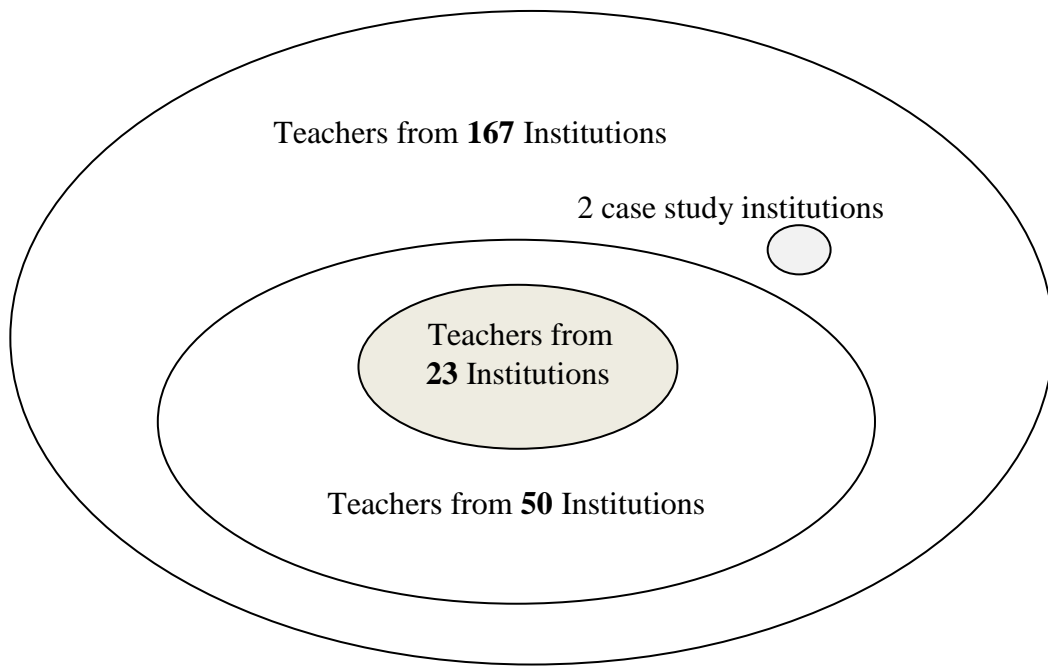
However, the justification for selecting qualified participants was based only on the researcher's view. There are no confirmatory studies to support the case. Thus, to prevent one from being skeptical that the findings of the study will not be generalized to the population in the middle-ranking and low-ranking universities, this study was also conducted with 20 teachers from one middle-ranking university and one low-ranking university as case studies. The two case study universities were selected at random. The findings from the case study universities were compared with the findings from the representative universities and may provide basic information for any relevant future studies.

The sampling group was also classified into subgroups regarding geographical areas and types of institutions. According to the Office of the Higher Education Commission (2008), there are five geographical areas where Thai higher education institutions are located: the North, the Northeast, the Center, the East, and the South. In these areas, three types of institutions are possible (a) Public Higher Education Institutions; (b) Private Higher Education Institutions; (c) Community Colleges. The Public Higher Education Institutions are divided into three groups: limited admission universities and institutions, autonomous universities, and open admission universities. Limited admission universities and institutions refer to universities and institutions where high school students need to pass a Central University Admissions System examination and are then selected based on a quota system administrated by each university and institution to gain admission. Open admission universities, on the other hand, do not require students to take an entrance examination nor do they need to have earned a minimum GPA. In other words, applicants are admitted to the university based on the applicants' previous academic experiences

rather than on external admission requirements established by the university (The World Bank Group, 2009). Autonomous universities have more freedom in academic matters, personnel administration, and financial and asset administration than other public universities (Bovornsiri, 2006). Under the supervision of the Ministry of Education, they still receive partial financial support from the government. Their admission systems are similar to those of limited admission universities and institutions; that is, high school students are selected to attend the universities through either the quota system or the Central University Admission System examination.

Community colleges were not in the 50 most-accessible web publication universities of Thai higher education institutions and therefore were not selected for this study. The number of universities represented in each geographical area and type of institution varied according to the proportion and presence of the institutions in the rank. That is, there were five representative universities in the north, three universities in the northeast, eleven universities in the center, one university in the east, and three universities in the south. These 23 representative universities from each geographical area were considered as a convenience sample where they were selected in part at the convenience of the researcher. Besides meeting the criteria of university ranking presented prior to this, these representative universities are well-known universities in the country. For case study universities, one was randomly selected among the middle-ranking and low-ranking universities in the east due to a reason of statistical analysis. To explain, there is only one university in the east that was ranked among the 50 universities and so was selected to be one representative university for this geographical area. The case study university, therefore, should be chosen among the middle-ranking and low-ranking universities in this geographical area so that there will be statistical information to compare between the universities (representative university and case study university). The other case study university was selected in a completely random

manner among the middle-ranking and low-ranking universities from all geographical areas. The number of universities selected on the basis of geographical area and type of institution is represented in Table 1 and the geographical representation can be seen in Appendix B.



Target Population -----> Sampling Population -----> Sample/Representative

Figure 1. An overview of sampling

Table 1. Number of Universities Selected on the Basis of Region and Type of Institution

Regions	<i>Public Higher Education Institutions</i>			<i>Private Higher Education Institutions</i>
	Limited	Autonomous	Open	
	Admission		Admission	
North (5)	2	2	-	1
Northeast (3)	2	1	-	-
Center (11)	3	4	1	3
East (1)	-	1	-	-
South (3)	1	2	-	-
Total (23)	8	10	1	4
+2 case studies				

Distribution and collection of the survey took approximately two months (June – July, 2011). More details on participants, components of survey questions, and data collection will be presented in the next section.

3.2 METHODS AND PROCEDURES

3.2.1 Research participants and their work

As mentioned earlier, the participants of this study were 300 Thai Teachers who are teaching Foundation English courses for undergraduate students. They held teaching positions in 20 universities that were ranked among the 50 most-accessible web publication universities in Thailand. The Foundation English courses that they taught are the English courses that students from all majors and departments are required to take during their first and second year of their

undergraduate study. In other words, they are compulsory English courses that every undergraduate student of all majors and from all departments has to complete. The contents of the courses vary according to the particular university's curriculum and goals of each institution.

In the case study universities, participants included 11 teachers who taught Foundation English courses in a middle-ranking university located in the eastern region of the country (designated as Case Study 1) and nine teachers in a low-ranking university located in the northeastern region of the country (designated as Case Study 2). Generally, the Foundation English courses that they taught have similar requirements to those of the representative universities as described earlier.

The demographic information of the teachers such as age, sex, educational background and professional development were collected in the survey (more details in the next section) and reported in the findings.

3.2.2 Instruments

To collect the data from the sample group, this study used paper-based surveys, classroom observations, and face-to-face interviews. The survey major components have been adapted from Erdos (1983). The reason for choosing a paper-based survey is to ensure that the response rate is large, though it might take a longer time to collect data than on an Internet-based survey (more details in the Data collection section). The components of the survey consist of (a) a cover letter; (b) instructions; (c) demographic information; (d) content questions on concepts of literacy and teaching practices; (e) open-ended comments; (f) a closing thank you message.

The *cover letter*, which introduces the survey, addresses the importance and purposes of the study, anonymity of the participants, the offer to send a report on findings of the study, appreciation of the researcher, and incentives for the respondents. The *instructions* on page one inform the respondents to give the answers to each question either in English or in Thai. The assurance of anonymity of the participants and their answers and contact address of the researcher are also given in this part. The *demographic information* part contains questions on gender, age, highest degree earned, current work toward an advanced degree, professional development experiences (EFL teaching experience and study trip/workshop/conference attended), Foundation English courses taught, and types and geographical areas of the institutions where the respondents teach.

The *content questions*, the most extensive part of the survey, include 15 questions on four aspects of investigation: (a) concepts of literacy of the teachers; (b) connections of the concepts of literacy to EFL instruction; (c) classroom instructional practices for developing literacy in EFL students; (d) challenges of EFL literacy instruction. Specifically, respondents are asked to describe their concepts of literacy directly in question 9 and indirectly in question 10, 11, and 22. All the questions are open-ended. Weisberg, Krosnick, and Bowen (1996) state that rather than restricting in words chosen by the researcher, the respondents are allowed to express their thoughts and feelings in their own words when giving answers to the open-ended questions. Similarly, Dörnyei (2007) states that employing open responses can bring about an unknown range of possible answers as well as issues not previously anticipated. Therefore, this question form fits the purposes of the study, because it ensures that what the respondents write about the concepts of literacy is actually from their own thoughts, not from the researcher's preconceived ideas or suggested answers.

Next, the views of the respondents on the connections of their concepts of literacy to EFL instruction can be identified in question 12, 13, and 14. Both open-ended and closed-ended questions are asked in this part. Classroom instructional practices can be reflected in question 19, 19a, 19b and 21. However, since the questions in the survey contain open-ended questions, it is also possible to collect information on their classroom instructional practices from question 14. The challenges of EFL literacy instruction can be identified from the closed- and open-ended responses to question 12, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19a, 20, 21 and 23. The four aspects of investigation do not have the assigned questions in a fixed sequential order (e.g., questions for the concepts of literacy are question 1, 2, 3 and 14) due to the realization of the effect of one answer on another.

The *comments and suggestions* section of the survey is an optional part to allow respondents to provide additional opinions freely. Therefore, whatever issue the respondents address would possibly cover any of the four aspects of investigation in the content questions (concepts of literacy of the teachers, connections of the concepts of literacy to EFL instruction, classroom instructional practices, and challenges of EFL literacy instruction). The last part of the survey is a *thank you* for participation. It is to show the appreciation of the researcher and indicate the end of the survey.

The components of the survey and the aspects of investigation can be summarized in Table 2. The survey can be seen in Appendix A.

Table 2. Components of the Survey and Aspects of Investigation

Aspects of Investigation	Questions	Response Format
Concepts of literacy of the teachers	9, 10, 11 and 22	Open-ended
Connections of the concepts of literacy to EFL literacy instruction	12, 13 and 14	Closed-ended and open-ended
Classroom instructional practices	14, 19, 19a,19b and 21	Closed-ended and open-ended
Challenges of EFL literacy instruction	12, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19a, 20, 21 and 23	Closed-ended and open-ended

Both interviews and classroom observations were conducted with five teachers (one time for each teacher). They were designated as Teachers 1 through 5. The selection was based on their training/education characteristics, which are presented in detail in Chapter 5. The questions for the interviews focused on the participants' responses in the survey. The purposes of the observations were to examine whether what the teachers respond in the surveys and the interviews are aligned with what they do in a classroom.

3.2.3 Validity and reliability of the Instrument

As described above, the survey in this study uses multiple questions in both closed- and open-ended response formats to identify answers on each aspect of investigation; therefore, the data collected provide a certain degree of reliability. For example, on the aspect of concepts of literacy of the teachers, question 9: from your perspective, what is literacy? is asked to the respondents directly. The respondents are then indirectly asked to describe the term 'literate

person' (question 10), the practice of literacy in their own lives (question 11) and their needs and concerns about literacy in their Foundation English classes (question 22), respectively. This practice is consistent with a suggestion by Groves et al. (2009) in which one approach to accomplish reliability is to administer multiple items that assess the same construct in the same research instrument. Then, the answers across items are examined for their consistency.

To ensure clarity and understandability, the questions in the survey were pilot tested with four teachers of English. Three of them were Thai teachers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) at the university level in Thailand and one was an American teacher of English as a Second Language (ESL) at a language institute in the USA. The survey was then revised before the data collection stage. The revisions consisted of changing ambiguous wording and scaling closed-ended responses to allow for more variability of response and greater differentiation among respondents. For example, a "yes" or "no" response to question 13 has been changed to a four-point scale: very appropriate, appropriate, somewhat appropriate, and not appropriate. An unclear word, "teaching techniques", in question 19, has been replaced with a phrase "teaching activities, techniques, or strategies."

Concerning validity, this study holds the traditional concept from a measurement perspective that "a test is valid if it measures what it is supposed to measure" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 51). Precisely, the type of validity that this study takes into account is 'content validity' which is defined as the judgment about content questions of the survey by experts. For the purposes of this study, content validity was established by the dissertation committee members through their review of the survey instrument, judgment of appropriate content, and final decision that the survey collected the necessary information to answer the research questions of the study.

3.2.4 Data collection

After possible revisions to the survey, the survey was distributed to the respondents. Since it is a self-administrated and paper-based survey and the respondents reside in different areas, university-based survey coordinators from each university were selected. The university-based survey coordinators were contacted before the distribution of the survey began. Some of them were contacted in person whereas the others were reached formally through their schools and departments.

The university-based survey coordinators from each university distributed the survey and gathered the responses from the respondents of the sample group. By personalizing the distribution and collection of the survey, the researcher hopes to ensure a greater response rate than can be achieved through an anonymously distributed survey on the internet or on e-mail. Moreover, with respect to anonymity, the university-based survey coordinators were asked to assign a number to each respondent who completed the survey. Therefore, it was only the coordinators from the representative universities, not the researcher, who know and have a record of the respondents' identities. In the event that the researcher needs clarification to responses during the interpretation stage, a follow up survey can be given by the coordinators. The information about the respondents will remain anonymous. To assure that gathering the survey responses will be done and finished within a reasonable time frame, the researcher returned to Thailand to work with the coordinators. Finally, the coordinators signed a statement that they will not reveal the identity or responses of the participants and that their role is only one of logistics.

The interviews and classroom observations were conducted after the completion of the survey. The interviews were conducted face-to-face at the teachers' own school. Interviewees

were given the choice of using English or Thai. The interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed for analysis.

The classroom observations took place on days that were convenient for the teachers. The teachers informed their students before the observations. During each observation session, the researcher sat at the back of the classroom and took notes about the literacy practices and classroom environment. Each teacher was observed for about one hour.

Overall, the study took about two months, June – July, 2011, to complete the data collection stage.

3.3 DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

Survey research is generally known as descriptive research. Gay et al. (2006) say that “the descriptive method is useful for investigating a variety of educational problems and issues” (p. 159) and that the descriptive data can be both quantitative and qualitative. The survey in this study provides both quantitative and qualitative data on the topic of literacy from the respondents. However, rich qualitative data are also obtained from the interviews and classroom observations. The main reason why this study uses both a quantitative and qualitative approach is because doing this will facilitate validation of data, or, as it is known in the field, triangulation. That is, the data from the three research instruments (surveys, interviews, and observations) are triple checked so that we will be confident that the findings of the survey are credible and accurate. The data analysis and presentation were carried out primarily through quantitative analysis. Qualitative analysis was used for further explaining the quantitative findings.

3.3.1 Measures and level of measurement

All data from the surveys were analyzed with PASW statistics 18 (SPSS, Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). Survey responses in Thai were translated into English. Both the dependent and independent variables were identified and numerically assigned for measurement. The *independent variables* are age (ratio), gender (nominal), highest degree earned (ordinal), country where the highest degree was earned (nominal), type of institution where the teacher works (nominal), location of the institution (nominal), and professional development which comprises two other variables: teaching experience (ratio) and study trip/workshop/conference attended (nominal). More details about these independent variables and the level of measurement are provided as follows.

Age (ratio): Open-ended data were tabulated and coded.

Gender (nominal): male and female

Highest degree earned (ordinal): bachelors, masters, doctorate, and other

Country where the highest degree was earned (nominal): Open-ended data were tabulated and coded.

Type of institution where the teacher works (nominal): limited admission, autonomous, open admission, and private

Geographical area of the institution (nominal): north, northeast, center, east, and south

Professional development:

1. *Teaching experience (ratio)*: Open-ended data were tabulated and coded.

2. *Study trip/workshop/conference attended (nominal)*: yes and no

The *dependent variables* are concepts of literacy, connections of the concepts of literacy to EFL instruction, classroom instructional practices, and opinions regarding the challenges of

literacy teaching in Foundation English courses in Thailand. Similarly to independent variables, all dependent variables were identified by both closed-ended and open-ended data and were assigned a numerical value for the type of response. In a more complex way than variables from closed-ended data; however, the variables from open-ended data were coded and tabulated before being assigned a numerical value. The dependent variables and the level of measurement are expressed in more specific details below.

Concepts of literacy (nominal): presence and absence of the features in the contemporary definition of literacy. Completeness of the definition is also examined. Criteria for judgment can be seen in Appendix C. This variable covers the open-ended responses to question 9, 10, 11 and 22.

Connections of the concepts of literacy to EFL instruction, consisting of three variables from the closed-ended and open-ended responses to question 12, 13, and 14:

1. *Addressing literacy in EFL teaching (ordinal)*: strongly agree, agree, disagree, strongly disagree, undecided
2. *Time to begin developing literacy (nominal)*. Open-ended data were tabulated and coded.
3. *Influence of everyday literacy practices on classroom teaching (ordinal)*: a great deal, somewhat, a little, never

Classroom instructional practices, comprising three main variables from the closed-ended and open-ended responses to question 19, 19a, and 21. The open-ended responses to question 19b were additionally used to support the findings in question 19.

1. *Teaching activities/techniques/strategies (nominal)*: Open-ended data were tabulated and coded.

2. *Satisfaction with teaching activities/techniques/strategies (ordinal):*

very satisfied, satisfied, little satisfied, dissatisfied

3. *Teaching and learning materials (ordinal):* very appropriate, appropriate,

somewhat appropriate, not appropriate

Challenges of literacy teaching, composed of three main variables from the closed-ended responses to question 15, 16 and 17:

1. *Literacy addressed by school (nominal):* yes and no

2. *Literacy addressed by syllabus (nominal):* yes and no

3. *Characteristics of syllabus (ordinal):* required to use the syllabus strictly, allowed to change the syllabus freely, allowed to change the syllabus occasionally, and allowed to use my own syllabus

There were other unpredicted variables within a group of *challenges of literacy teaching* that were identified from the open-ended responses to question 12, 18, 19a, 20, 21, 23 and to the comments and suggestions section. They were tabulated and numerically assigned for nominal level of measurement like other variables mentioned above.

Frequency counts and percentages, n(%), were used to describe all categorical variables with either nominal or ordinal level of measurement. Median was used for continuous variables (ratio). Minimum-maximum range was used to illustrate dispersion.

3.3.2 Coding method

Since the survey questions contain open-ended responses, numerical assignment for level of measurement, or as it known in the field, a coding method, needs to be implemented at the data analysis stage. The method of establishing codes in this study was through the use of test

tabulations, or more specifically hand tallies of open-ended data in the test batch (Erdos, 1983). That is, all answers to the open-ended questions were hand tabulated. Then, the most frequent answers were assigned for the codes. A sample of coding method adapted from Erdos (1983) is demonstrated in Table 3.

Table 3. Coding Method Sample

<i>Name of Survey: Concepts of Literacy of Thai EFL Teachers</i>		
Q.11 Please list the teaching techniques that you use in your foundation English classes.		
<i>(Supposed answer categories)</i>	No. of responses	Suggested code
Group discussions	50	1
Class presentation	45	2
Communication games	37	3
Reading aloud	13	4
Interviewing peers/teachers/others	11	5
Inviting guest speakers/lectures	9	6
No answer	5	X
Total responses	170	
Base 170		

In the table above, the suggested codes in the last column are a sequence of numerical values. They are assigned numerical values because the correlation coefficients on the relationship between two variables cannot be calculated using string values. Each number coded represents each answer category that was used to calculate in PASW statistics 18.

3.3.3 Data screening and data analysis procedures

Data accuracy and clarity were examined during preliminary analysis. It was done by analyzing descriptive statistics through the graphic representations of range and contingency of all

variables. To explore univariate outliers for categorical variables, balanced and imbalanced splits among the level of each category were examined by frequency of the variables. Variables with missing values, and amounts, patterns and sources of missing values were revealed at this stage. Next, the researcher considered whether or not these data should be excluded from the analysis.

Based on the research questions, the relationship of each pair of independent variables and dependent variables were examined by means of bivariate correlations. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was used to assess the relationship between two continuous variables (ratio data). Point-Biserial correlation coefficient was used to assess the relationship between a continuous variable (ratio data) and a categorical variable (nominal data). Spearman's rho was used to assess the relationship between two ordinal level variables. Chi-square test was used to examine the relationship of two categorical variables. Procedures of data analysis and interpretation can be summarized in Table 4.

Table 4. Summary of Data Analysis and Interpretation Procedures

Level of Measurement of Independent Variables	Level of Measurement of Dependent Variables	Permissible Statistics	Correlation Techniques
nominal	nominal	- Frequency counts and percentages, n(%) - Mode - Median	- Chi-square Test
ordinal	nominal		
nominal	ordinal		
ordinal	ordinal		- Spearman's rho

ratio	nominal		- Point-Biserial Correlation Coefficient
ratio	ordinal		- Spearman's rho
ratio	ratio		- Pearson - Spearman's rho

For the qualitative data from the interviews and classroom observations, they were analyzed in a similar way. To begin, the purpose of the analysis and what the study wants to find out were reviewed. Later, consistencies and differences in the narrative data from the two instruments, interviews and classroom observations, were identified, and then double checked with the information from the survey. The connections and relationships between phenomena in the three data sources were explored as well. Next, themes (e.g., ideas, concepts, behaviors, incidents) were addressed and organized into inherent categories. Then, those themes as well as any connections were used to explain the findings.

To increase the degree of reliability, other people were trained to analyze the data. Then, the agreement between us on the findings was examined.

3.4 EXPECTED FINDINGS

As suggested by the research questions and data analysis and interpretation, the study was expected to reveal (a) the concepts of literacy that the Thai teachers of university-level Foundation English courses hold; (b) the teachers' classroom instructional practices; (c) challenges of EFL literacy teaching in the context of Thailand. Specifically, it was also hoped that the findings would show whether the concepts of literacy that the teachers hold are complete concepts of literacy. What the teachers believe about literacy and the connection to language teaching were expected to be identified as well. All findings were described and supported with the statistical information, except the reasons of the occurrence of phenomenon, which were analyzed qualitatively.

Furthermore, the findings of the study were expected to uncover the relationship between the concepts of literacy (dependent variables) and the demographic factors of the teachers (independent variables such as age, gender, highest degree earned, and professional development). For example, the findings may show that the teachers who have comprehensive views of literacy hold a doctoral degree or a master's degree. Also, the findings may point out that the degree that the teachers hold may or may not indicate something about the concepts of literacy of the teachers. Additionally, the findings from the investigation will suggest practical ways for curriculum improvement for EFL literacy instruction in Thailand.

3.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In conclusion, the study of concepts of literacy of Thai teachers in university-level Foundation English courses is survey research. It is descriptive research which used the self-administrated and paper-based surveys, face-to-face interviews, and classroom observations as the instruments. The chapter mainly describes the context of the investigation where the data were collected among 300 teachers of Foundation English courses in the sample group of 23 universities in Thailand and 20 teachers from the two case study universities. The details on procedures of data collection and components of the survey are also given. The chapter then presents the way that the data were statistically analyzed and interpreted with PASW statistics 18 (SPSS, Inc., Chicago, IL, USA) and sequentially substantiated with some qualitative information. In the end, the chapter is completed with the expected findings that will hopefully fulfill and accomplish the research questions and purposes of the study.

4.0 RESEARCH FINDINGS PART I

The data were collected and analyzed in accordance with the procedures described in Chapter 3, and the findings are presented in this chapter. Based on the research questions, the chapter includes an analysis of: (a) teachers' concepts of literacy and correlations with their demographic backgrounds; (b) connections of teachers' concepts of literacy to EFL instruction; (c) teachers' instructional practices for literacy, and (d) challenges of EFL literacy instruction.

Because the study employed survey research, demographic information of the participants is provided in the first section of the chapter.

4.1 DEMOGRAPHIC OVERVIEW

As presented in Table 5, the number of returned surveys was 300 (65.36%) out of 459. Of these 300 surveys, one teacher (0.3%) did not identify his/her age; one (0.3%) did not address highest degree earned; eight (2.7%) ignored country where the highest degree was earned; four (1.3%) failed to provide information on years of teaching experience; and three (1.0%) left the question on attending a professional program (e.g., workshop, conference, study trip) where the topic of literacy was presented and discussed blank. This incomplete information is designated in the table as *missing*.

Table 5. Demographic Characteristics of Survey Respondents

Characteristic	Level/ Subcategory	Frequency (<i>N</i> = 300)	Percent (%)
Age	Mean	39.7	
	Minimum	24	2
	Maximum	68	1
	Mode	34	22
	Valid	Total	299
		Missing	1
Gender	Male	64	21.3
	Female	236	78.7
Type of institution where the teacher works	Autonomous	135	45.0
	Limited admission	103	34.3
	Open admission	6	2.0
	Private	56	18.7
Geographical area of the institution	Center	132	44.0
	East	33	11.0
	North	64	21.3
	Northeast	45	15.0
	South	26	8.7
Highest degree earned	Bachelor	6	2.0
	Master	204	68.0
	Doctorate	60	20.0
	Pursuing PhD	20	6.7
	Pursuing MA	9	3.0
	Missing	1	0.3
Country where the highest degree was earned	Australia	16	5.3
	Canada	1	0.3
	France	1	0.3
	India	4	1.3
	Japan	1	0.3
	Malaysia	1	0.3
	New Zealand	4	1.3
	Philippines	2	0.7
	Russia	1	0.3
	Thailand	189	63.0
	UK	23	7.7

(continued)

Table 5 Demographic Characteristics of Survey Respondents (continued)

Characteristic	Level/ Subcategory		Frequency (<i>N</i> = 300)	Percent (%)
Country where the highest degree was earned	USA		45	15.0
	Other (two countries)		4	1.3
	Missing		8	2.7
Teaching experience (years)	Mean	11.1		
	Minimum	0	1	0.3
	Maximum	44	1	0.3
	Valid	Total	296	98.7
		Missing	4	1.3
Attending workshop, conference or study trip	No		176	58.6
	Yes		119	39.7
	Not sure, cannot remember		2	0.7
	Missing		3	1.0

The teachers who responded to the survey were between the ages of 24 and 68 years with a mean age of 39.7 years. Most (7.3%) were 34 years old. The majority of the teachers who responded to the survey (78.7%) were female and the rest (21.3%) were male.

Concerning the type of institution, 45% of the teachers who participated in this study held a teaching position in autonomous universities, 34.3% in limited admission universities, 2% in open admission universities, and 18.7% in private universities. These representative universities were located in five different regions of the country: 44% in the center, 11% in the east, 21.3% in the north, 15% in the northeast, and 8.7% in the south.

The highest educational degree earned by participating teachers was a doctorate (20%). Sixty-eight percent of the teachers earned master's degrees and 2% earned bachelor's degrees. During their participation in this study, 3% of the teachers were pursuing master's degrees and 6.7% were pursuing doctorates. Their degrees were earned and pursued at institutions from the following countries: Australia (5.3%), Canada (0.3%), France (0.3%), India (1.3%), Japan

(0.3%), Malaysia (0.3%), New Zealand (1.3%), Philippines (0.7%), Russia (0.3%), Thailand (63%), UK (7.7%), and USA (15%). Four teachers (1.3%) earned their highest degrees from two different countries; for example, from both UK and USA.

The participants' teaching experience ranged between 0 and 44 years. The mean years of teaching experience was 11. In the past year, 39.7% of the teachers participated in a professional development program where the topic of literacy was presented and discussed, but 58.6% did not take part in that type of program. Two teachers (0.7%) identified that they were not sure and could not remember the attendance.

As can be seen from the above demographic information, the participants in the study represent a cross section of the kinds of teachers in Thai universities, the kinds of institutions where they teach, and the academic preparation that they have had.

When responses were missing for a particular item on the survey, the participant was omitted from the analysis for this item. Only the participants with missing data for the item on teachers' concepts of literacy were included in the analysis. This is because all data for this item were considered to be useful data. That is, failing to answer a question could mean that the participant never heard the term *literacy* and had no concept of the term.

4.2 TEACHERS' CONCEPTS OF LITERACY AND CORRELATIONS WITH THEIR DEMOGRAPHIC BACKGROUNDS

This section presents the results of the analysis of the relationship between the teachers' concepts of literacy and their demographic backgrounds. The teachers' concepts of literacy were a critical aspect of the investigation and the response to this item on the survey provided open-ended data

and, therefore, required establishing the reliability of the coding through an inter-rater reliability check.

4.2.1 Inter-rater reliability analysis

Fifty-four out of 300 surveys (approximately 20% of the total) were sampled for the inter-rater reliability analysis. Before rating, the coding criteria for appraising features in the definitions of literacy were developed based upon a review of the literature (see Section 4.2.2 and Appendix C). Then, an inter-rater reliability check was performed to examine the agreement between the researcher (Rater 1) and the other rater (Rater 2) on the participants' response to the open-ended question on the meaning of literacy (see Appendix A, question 9). To complete the rating, Rater 2 was trained in using the criteria and the rating process by the researcher (Rater 1). When the ratings were completed, the scores of the two raters were calculated using Cohen's kappa statistical analysis. The reason for using Cohen's kappa is that it is designed to determine inter-rater reliability for both binary and nominal types of data (Soeken & Prescott, 1986; Uebersax, 2011). Additionally, it takes into account the agreement occurring by chance. The results are presented in Table 6.

Table 6. Inter-rater Reliability Statistics for Definitions of Literacy

Features in the Definitions of Contemporary Literacy	*Cohen's Kappa
Communication in oral and/or written language rather than form focused	0.94
A wide variety of abilities of communication	0.82
A dynamic set of sub-abilities	0.96
A dynamic set of socially, historically, and culturally situated practices	1.00
Multiple forms of texts and modalities	0.93
Out-of-school textual language experiences	0.73

*Kappa values: < 0.00 = poor agreement; 0.00-0.20 = slight agreement; 0.21-0.40 = fair agreement; 0.41-0.60 = moderate agreement; 0.61- 0.80 = substantial agreement; 0.81-1.00 = almost perfect agreement. Adapted from "The Measurement of Observer Agreement for Categorical Data," by J. R. Landis and G. G. Koch, 1977, *Biometrics*, 33, p. 165.

According to Table 6, the kappa values for each feature in the definition of literacy were 0.94, 0.82, 0.96, 1.00, 0.93, and 0.73, respectively. Based on the benchmark for interpreting kappa values proposed by Landis and Koch (1977), the inter-rater reliability for the features in the definition of literacy was *almost perfect*. Only the rating for the last feature, namely out-of-school textual language experiences (kappa = 0.73), was in the range of *substantial*.

Overall, the kappa values for inter-rater reliability in this study were very high. This high degree of rater agreement might be because the researcher (Rater 1) had trained Rater 2 carefully in the rating criteria and the rating process and stayed to help in case Rater 2 could not read the handwriting of the research participants. In addition, Rater 2 is a native speaker of English majoring in Linguistics and working as an ESL instructor at the English Language Institute. Her academic and professional experiences are also associated with language assessment, and she had familiarity with contemporary definitions of literacy.

4.2.2 Teachers' concepts of literacy

Analysis of the definitions of literacy that were given by the participating teachers (questions 9-11 of the survey) was based on six features which had been identified as comprising a complete definition of literacy. It was assumed that the more complete the definition, the more likely it was that the participant held a comprehensive view of literacy. The six features, developed from several contemporary definitions of literacy, include: (a) oral and/or written communication focusing on meaning; (b) a wide variety of abilities of communication; (c) a dynamic set of sub-abilities; (d) a dynamic set of socially, historically, and culturally situated practices; (e) multiple forms of texts and modalities; and (f) out-of-school textual language experiences. A definition that did not meet these six features was considered to be either an incomplete or incorrect definition of literacy. More details of each feature can be found in Appendix C.

A frequency analysis of the teachers' definitions of literacy was conducted and results are provided in Table 7. Of the 300 teachers, 278 (92.7%) were able to describe the meaning of literacy in some way, whereas 22 (7.3%), designated as *missing*, failed to do so and did not answer this question. Based on the instructions for the survey, it seems to indicate that the teachers never heard the term *literacy* and had no idea of its definition.

The definitions of literacy that were given by the 278 teachers met to a varying degree the six features of a contemporary definition of literacy. The definitions of 219 teachers (73%) contained the feature of oral and/or written communication focusing on meaning; 83 (27.7%) contained the feature of a dynamic set of sub-abilities; 82 (23.7%) contained the feature of a wide variety of abilities of communication; 67 (22.3%) contained the feature of a dynamic set of socially, historically, and culturally situated practices; 23 (7.7%) contained the feature of

multiple forms of texts and modalities; and 12 (4.0%) contained the feature of out-of-school textual language experiences.

Table 7. Frequency of the Presence and Absence of the Six Features in the Definitions of Literacy

	Oral and/or written communication focusing on meaning	A wide variety of abilities of communication	A dynamic set of sub-abilities	A dynamic set of socially historically and culturally situated practices	Multiple forms of texts and modalities	Out-of-school textual language experiences
Valid						
Presence	219 (73%)	82 (27.3%)	83 (27.7%)	67 (22.3%)	23 (7.7%)	12 (4.0%)
Absence	59 (19.7%)	196 (65.3%)	195 (65.0%)	211 (70.3%)	255 (85.0%)	266 (88.7%)
Missing	22 (7.3%)	22 (7.3%)	22 (7.3%)	22 (7.3%)	22 (7.3%)	22 (7.3%)
Total	300 (100.0%)	300 (100.0%)	300 (100.0%)	300 (100.0%)	300 (100.0%)	300 (100.0%)

Each definition of literacy given by the participating teachers was analyzed using the six features for a contemporary definition of literacy. A summed score distribution of the features in the definition of literacy was performed and results are presented in Table 8. It was found that only the definitions of three teachers (1.0%) contained all six features. The definitions of six teachers (2.0%) contained five features, the definitions of 17 teachers (5.7%) contained four features, the definitions of 45 teachers (15.0%) contained three features, the definitions of 82 teachers (27.3%) contained two features, and the definitions of 71 teachers (23.7%) contained one feature. The definitions of 54 teachers (18.0%) did not include any of the six features in the contemporary definition of literacy.

Table 8. A Summed Score Distribution of Features in the Definition of Literacy

Score (out of 6)		Frequency	Percent
Valid	0	54	18.0
	1	71	23.7
	2	82	27.3
	3	45	15.0
	4	17	5.7
	5	6	2.0
	6	3	1.0
Total		278	92.7
Missing		22	7.3
Total		300	100.0

The summed score distribution of the features in the definitions of literacy is also presented in a form of a line graph (see Figure 2). The graph shows an inverse relationship between the number of features of the definition and the number of respondents who included these features. As the number of features of the definition increased, the number of teachers who responded with these features decreased.

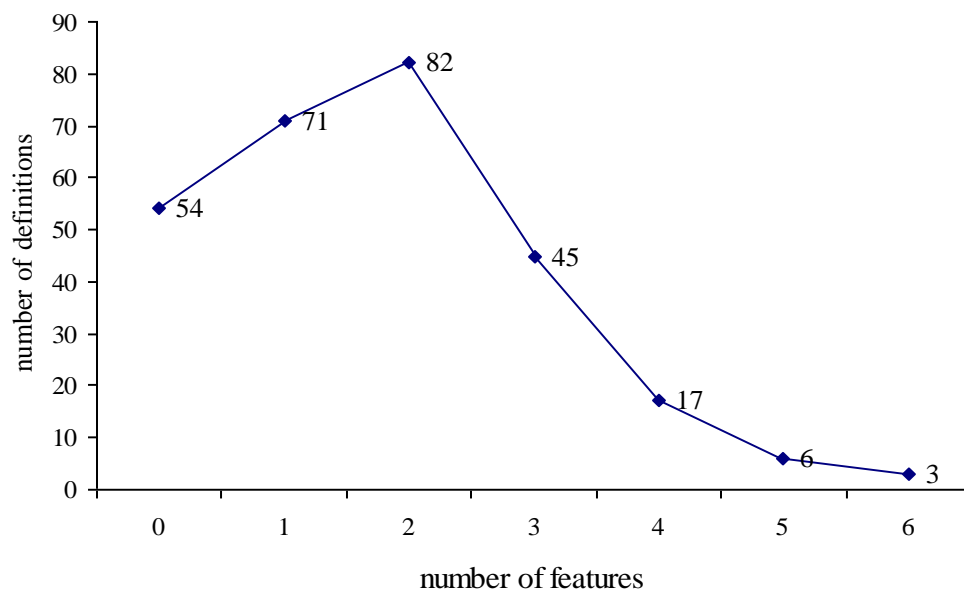


Figure 2. A summed score distribution of the features in the definitions of literacy

Analysis of the distribution of features in each summed score group shows that the feature of *oral and/or written communication focusing on meaning* was widely distributed, particularly in summed score groups 1, 2, and 3 (see Table 9). With the exception of group 6, the features that were less widely distributed in each summed scored group were *multiple forms of texts and modalities* and *out-of-school textual language experiences*. Thus, it can be concluded that *oral and/or written communication focusing on meaning* tends to be the feature of literacy most commonly perceived by the teachers, whereas the features of *multiple forms of texts and modalities* and *out-of-school textual language experiences* are less readily perceived by them.

Table 9. Distribution of Features of the Definition of Literacy in Each Summed Score Group

Features	Summed Score Groups						
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
	(n = 54)	(n = 71)	(n = 82)	(n = 45)	(n = 17)	(n = 6)	(n = 3)
Oral and/or written communication focusing on meaning	0	67	81	45	17	6	3
A wide variety of abilities of communication	0	0	32	28	14	5	3
A dynamic set of sub-abilities	0	1	27	32	14	6	3
A dynamic set of socially, historically, and culturally situated practices	0	3	21	24	10	6	3
Multiple forms of texts and modalities	0	0	3	5	9	3	3
Out-of-school textual language experiences	0	0	0	1	4	4	3

When the demographic characteristics of the teachers in each summed score group were compared (see Tables 10 through 16), it was found that their mean age (range 35.5-44 years) was similar. In addition, each summed score group contained both male and female respondents, although the total number of male respondents in the survey (see Table 5 in Section 4.1) was much smaller than that of the female respondents.

In relation to type and geographical location of the institution, only teachers who worked in autonomous universities located in the Center were found in summed score group 6. However, teachers who worked in this type of institution and geographical location were also found in summed score groups 0 to 5.

Similarly, only teachers who had earned master's degrees and doctorates in the UK and USA were found in summed score group 6. Teachers with these types of degrees earned in these two countries, however, were also found in summed score groups 0 to 5.

Mean years of teaching experience of the teachers in summed score groups 0 to 5 were very similar (8.4, 11.5, 11.3, 12.1, 9.9, and 13.3 years, respectively). Only in summed score group 6 was this figure very different (20.1 years).

In relation to professional development, two groups of teachers—those who *attended* and *did not attend* a workshop, study trip or conference where the topic of literacy was presented and discussed in the previous year—were found in all summed score groups (0 to 6).

It seems, therefore, that demographic background does not predict whether teachers hold a comprehensive or less-comprehensive concept of literacy.

Table 10. Demographic Characteristics of the Teachers whose Definitions of Literacy Contained Six Features:

Summed Score Group 6				
Characteristic	Level/ Subcategory		Frequency (<i>n</i> = 3)	Percent (%)
Age	Mean	44		
	Minimum	26	1	33.3
	Maximum	61	1	33.3
	Valid	Total	3	100.0
Gender	Male		2	66.7
	Female		1	33.3
Type of institution where the teacher works	Autonomous		3	100.0
	Limited admission		0	0.0
	Open Admission		0	0.0
	Private		0	0.0
Geographical area of the institution	Center		3	100.0
	East		0	0.0
	North		0	0.0
	Northeast		0	0.0
	South		0	0.0
Highest degree earned	Bachelor		0	0.0
	Master		1	33.3
	Doctorate		2	66.7
	Pursuing PhD		0	0.0
	Pursuing MA		0	0.0
Country where the highest degree was earned	Australia		0	0.0
	Canada		0	0.0
	France		0	0.0
	India		0	0.0
	Japan		0	0.0
	Malaysia		0	0.0
	New Zealand		0	0.0
	Philippines		0	0.0
	Russia		0	0.0
	Thailand		0	0.0
	UK		1	33.3
	USA		2	66.7
	Other (two countries)		0	0.0

(continued)

Table 10. Demographic Characteristics of the Teachers whose Definitions of Literacy Contained Six Features:

Summed Score Group 6 (continued)				
Characteristic	Level/ Subcategory		Frequency (<i>n</i> = 3)	Percent (%)
Teaching experience (years)	Mean	20.1		
	Minimum	1.2	1	33.3
	Maximum	39	1	33.3
	Valid	Total	3	100.0
Attending workshop, conference or study trip	No		2	66.7
	Yes		1	33.3

Table 11. Demographic Characteristics of the Teachers whose Definitions of Literacy Contained Five Features:

Summed Score Group 5				
Characteristic	Level/ Subcategory		Frequency (<i>n</i> = 6)	Percent (%)
Age	Mean	42.7		
	Minimum	28	1	16.7
	Maximum	52	1	16.7
	Valid	Total	6	100.0
Gender	Male		1	16.7
	Female		5	83.3
Type of institution where the teacher works	Autonomous		3	50.0
	Limited admission		1	16.7
	Open admission		1	16.7
	Private		1	16.7
Geographical area of the institution	Center		3	50.0
	East		0	0.0
	North		1	16.7
	Northeast		0	0.0
	South		2	33.3
Highest degree earned	Bachelor		0	0.0
	Master		4	66.7
	Doctorate		2	33.3
	Pursuing PhD		0	0.0
	Pursuing MA		0	0.0

(continued)

Table 11. Demographic Characteristics of the Teachers whose Definitions of Literacy Contained Five Features:

Summed Score Group 5 (continued)				
Characteristic	Level/ Subcategory		Frequency (<i>n</i> = 6)	Percent (%)
Country where the highest degree was earned	Australia		0	0.0
	Canada		0	0.0
	France		0	0.0
	India		0	0.0
	Japan		0	0.0
	Malaysia		0	0.0
	New Zealand		0	0.0
	Philippines		0	0.0
	Russia		0	0.0
	Thailand		3	50.0
	UK		0	0.0
	USA		3	50.0
	Other (two countries)		0	0.0
Teaching experience (years)	Mean	13.3		
	Minimum	2	1	16.7
	Maximum	25	1	16.7
	Valid	Total	6	100.0
Attending workshop, conference or study trip	No		5	83.3
	Yes		1	16.7

Table 12. Demographic Characteristics of the Teachers whose Definitions of Literacy Contained Four Features:

Summed Score Group 4				
Characteristic	Level/ Subcategory		Frequency (<i>n</i> = 17)	Percent (%)
Age	Mean	38.3		
	Minimum	24	1	16.7
	Maximum	60	1	16.7
	Mode	34	2	11.8
	Valid	Total	17	100.0
Gender	Male		8	47.1
	Female		9	52.9

(continued)

Table 12. Demographic Characteristics of the Teachers whose Definitions of Literacy Contained Four Features:

Summed Score Group 4 (continued)				
Characteristic	Level/ Subcategory		Frequency (<i>n</i> = 17)	Percent (%)
Type of institution where the teacher works	Autonomous		7	41.2
	Limited admission		7	41.2
	Open admission		0	0.0
	Private		3	17.6
Geographical area of the institution	Center		8	47.1
	North		3	17.6
	Northeast		3	17.6
	South		3	17.6
Highest degree earned	Bachelor		1	5.9
	Master		9	52.9
	Doctorate		4	23.5
	Pursuing PhD		3	17.6
	Pursuing MA		0	0.0
Country where the highest degree was earned	Australia		1	6.2
	Canada		0	0.0
	France		0	0.0
	India		0	0.0
	Japan		0	0.0
	Malaysia		0	0.0
	New Zealand		0	0.0
	Philippines		0	0.0
	Russia		0	0.0
	Thailand		9	56.2
	UK		2	12.5
	USA		4	25.0
	Other (two countries)		0	0.0
	Missing		1	5.9
Teaching experience (years)	Mean	9.9		
	Minimum	2	1	5.9
	Maximum	22	1	5.9
	Valid	Total	17	100.0
Attending workshop, conference or study trip	No		11	64.7
	Yes		6	35.3

Table 13. Demographic Characteristics of the Teachers whose Definitions of Literacy Contained Three Features:

Summed Score Group 3				
Characteristic	Level/ Subcategory		Frequency (<i>n</i> = 45)	Percent (%)
Age	Mean	41.5		
	Minimum	28	5	11.4
	Maximum	61	1	2.3
	Mode	28	5	11.4
	Valid	Total	44	100.0
	Missing		1	2.2
Gender	Male		11	24.4
	Female		34	75.6
Type of institution where the teacher works	Autonomous		26	57.8
	Limited admission		13	28.9
	Open admission		1	2.2
	Private		5	11.1
Geographical area of the institution	Center		19	42.2
	East		4	8.9
	North		10	22.2
	Northeast		7	15.6
	South		5	11.1
Highest degree earned	Bachelor		0.0	0.0
	Master		30	68.2
	Doctorate		13	29.5
	Pursuing PhD		1	2.3
	Pursuing MA		0	0.0
	Missing		1	2.2
Country where the highest degree was earned	Australia		1	2.3
	Canada		0	0.0
	France		0	0.0
	India		0	0.0
	Japan		0	0.0
	Malaysia		0	0.0
	New Zealand		0	0.0
	Philippines		0	0.0
	Russia		0	0.0
	Thailand		27	61.4
	UK		4	9.1
	USA		11	25.0
	Other (two countries)		1	2.3
	Missing		1	2.2

Table 13. Demographic Characteristics of the Teachers whose Definitions of Literacy Contained Three Features:

Summed Score Group 3 (continued)				
Characteristic	Level/ Subcategory		Frequency (<i>n</i> = 45)	Percent (%)
Teaching experience (years)	Mean	12.1		
	Minimum	1	2	4.5
	Maximum	37	1	2.3
	Valid	Total	44	100.0
	Missing		1	2.2
Attending workshop, conference or study trip	No		25	55.6
	Yes		20	44.4

Table 14. Demographic Characteristics of the Teachers whose Definitions of Literacy Contained Two Features:

Summed Score Group 2				
Characteristic	Level/ Subcategory		Frequency (<i>n</i> = 82)	Percent (%)
Age	Mean	41.1		
	Minimum	26	4	4.9
	Maximum	62	1	1.2
	Mode	35	8	9.8
	Valid	Total	82	100.0
Gender	Male		19	23.2
	Female		63	76.8
Type of institution where the teacher works	Autonomous		39	47.6
	Limited admission		29	35.4
	Open admission		1	1.2
	Private		13	15.9
Geographical area of the institution	Center		31	37.8
	East		12	14.6
	North		21	25.6
	Northeast		12	14.6
	South		6	7.3
Highest degree earned	Bachelor		2	2.4
	Master		54	65.9
	Doctorate		16	19.5
	Pursuing PhD		7	8.5
	Pursuing MA		3	3.7

(continued)

Table 14. Demographic Characteristics of the Teachers whose Definitions of Literacy Contained Two Features:

Summed Score Group 2 (continued)				
Characteristic	Level/ Subcategory		Frequency (<i>n</i> = 82)	Percent (%)
Country where the highest degree was earned	Australia		4	4.9
	Canada		1	1.2
	France		0	0.0
	India		4	4.9
	Japan		0	0.0
	Malaysia		1	1.2
	New Zealand		0	0.0
	Philippines		1	1.2
	Russia		1	1.2
	Thailand		52	64.2
	UK		8	9.9
	USA		8	9.9
	Other (two countries)		1	1.2
	Missing		1	1.2
Teaching experience (years)	Mean	11.3		
	Minimum	1	6	7.4
	Maximum	39	1	1.2
	Valid	Total	44	100.0
	Missing		1	1.2
Attending workshop, conference or study trip	No		44	55.7
	Yes		35	44.3
	Missing		3	3.7

Table 15. Demographic Characteristics of the Teachers whose Definitions of Literacy Contained One Feature:

Summed Score Group 1				
Characteristic	Level/ Subcategory		Frequency (<i>n</i> = 71)	Percent (%)
Age	Mean	39.7		
	Minimum	25	1	1.4
	Maximum	65	1	1.4
	Mode	33	3	4.2
	Valid	Total	71	100.0
Gender	Male		12	16.9
	Female		59	83.1

(continued)

Table 15. Demographic Characteristics of the Teachers whose Definitions of Literacy Contained One Feature:

Summed Score Group 1 (continued)				
Characteristic	Level/ Subcategory		Frequency (<i>n</i> = 71)	Percent (%)
Type of institution where the teacher works	Autonomous		29	40.8
	Limited admission		24	33.8
	Open admission		1	1.4
	Private		17	23.9
Geographical area of the institution	Center		36	50.7
	East		9	12.7
	North		10	14.1
	Northeast		9	12.7
	South		7	9.9
Highest degree earned	Bachelor		2	2.8
	Master		53	74.6
	Doctorate		11	15.5
	Pursuing PhD		4	5.6
	Pursuing MA		1	1.4
Country where the highest degree was earned	Australia		5	7.1
	Canada		0	0.0
	France		1	1.4
	India		0	0.0
	Japan		0	0.0
	Malaysia		0	0.0
	New Zealand		3	4.3
	Philippines		0	0.0
	Russia		0	0.0
	Thailand		47	67.1
	UK		4	5.7
	USA		9	12.9
	Other (two countries)		1	1.4
	Missing		1	1.4
Teaching experience (years)	Mean	11.5		
	Minimum	1	4	5.8
	Maximum	40	1	1.4
	Valid	Total	44	100.0
	Missing		2	2.8
Attending workshop, conference or study trip	No		39	55.7
	Yes		31	44.3
	Missing		1	1.4

Table 16. Demographic Characteristics of the Teachers whose Definitions of Literacy did not Contain

Any of the Six Features: Summed Score Group 0

Characteristic	Level/ Subcategory	Frequency (<i>n</i> = 54)	Percent (%)
Age	Mean	35.5	
	Minimum	24	1
	Maximum	64	1
	Mode	26	7
	Valid	Total	54
Gender	Male	9	16.7
	Female	45	83.3
Type of institution where the teacher works	Autonomous	21	38.9
	Limited admission	22	40.7
	Open admission	1	1.9
	Private	10	18.5
Geographical area of the institution	Center	20	37.0
	East	6	11.1
	North	14	25.9
	Northeast	11	20.4
	South	3	5.6
Highest degree earned	Bachelor	0	0
	Master	36	66.7
	Doctorate	10	18.5
	Pursuing PhD	4	7.4
	Pursuing MA	4	7.4
Country where the highest degree was earned	Australia	5	9.6
	Canada	0	0.0
	France	0	0.0
	India	0	0.0
	Japan	1	1.9
	Malaysia	0	0.0
	New Zealand	1	1.9
	Philippines	0	0.0
	Russia	0	0.0
	Thailand	37	71.2
	UK	3	5.8
	USA	4	7.7
	Other (two countries)	1	1.9
	Missing	2	3.7

(continued)

Table 16. Demographic Characteristics of the Teachers whose Definitions of Literacy did not Contain

Any of the Six Features: Summed Score Group 0 (continued)

Characteristic	Level/ Subcategory		Frequency (<i>n</i> = 54)	Percent (%)
Teaching experience (years)	Mean	8.4		
	Minimum	0	1	1.9
	Maximum	44	1	1.9
	Valid	Total	54	100.0
Attending workshop, conference or study trip	No		34	63.0
	Yes		20	37.0

A correlation analysis presented in Section 4.2.3 provides further insight into the relationship between teachers' concepts of literacy and their demographic backgrounds.

4.2.3 Correlation analysis

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient, a Point-Biserial correlation coefficient, and a Spearman rank-order correlation coefficient were computed to assess the relationship between teachers' concepts of literacy and their demographic backgrounds. Specifically, the Spearman correlation coefficient analysis was undertaken to assess the relationship between *teachers' concepts of literacy* and *highest degree earned*. The Pearson's correlation coefficient analysis was calculated to assess the relationship between *teachers' concepts of literacy* and *age* and *years of teaching experience*. The Point-Biserial correlation coefficient analysis was computed to assess the relationship between *teachers' concepts of literacy* and *gender*, *type of institution where the teacher works*, *geographical area of the institution*, *country where the highest degree was earned*, and *attending workshop, conference or study trip*. Since the Point-Biserial correlation coefficient can be calculated the same way as the Pearson's product-moment

correlation coefficient, the results of the analysis can be presented under the Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient (Lani, 2012; Corder & Foreman, 2009).

Table 17 presents overall findings. The Spearman rank-order correlation did not produce significant results, $r_s = 0.038$, $n = 278$, $p = 0.528$. Thus, it can be stated that there is no clear relationship between teachers' concepts of literacy and degree earned. A teacher with a high or low level of degree might or might not have the comprehensive concept of literacy.

The results from the Pearson's product-moment correlation revealed that there was a very weak relationship between *teachers' concepts of literacy* and *age of the teachers*, $r = 0.150$, $n = 277$, $p = 0.012$. Also, non-significant statistical correlations were found between *teachers' concepts of literacy* and *years of teaching experience*, $r = -0.155$, $n = 274$, $p = 0.058$. Therefore, more or fewer years of teaching experience and age did not predict if the teachers held the comprehensive concept of literacy.

Likewise, the results from the Point-biserial correlation coefficient indicated very weak relationships between *teachers' concepts of literacy* and *gender*, $r_{pb} = 0.115$, $n = 278$, $p = 0.010$, and *teachers' concepts of literacy* and *country where the highest degree was earned*, $r_{pb} = 0.168$, $n = 272$, $p = 0.005$. Non-significant statistical correlations were identified between *teachers' concepts of literacy* and *type of institution where the teacher works*, $r_{pb} = -0.104$, $n = 278$, $p = 0.084$, *teachers' concepts of literacy* and *geographical area of the institution*, $r_{pb} = 0.005$, $n = 278$, $p = 0.937$, and *teachers' concepts of literacy* and *attending workshop, conference or study trip*, $r_{pb} = -0.018$, $n = 274$, $p = 0.762$. Therefore, the concept of literacy that one teacher expressed tended not be denoted by gender, country where the degree was earned, type of institution where the teacher works, geographical area of the institution, and attending workshop, conference or study trip.

Overall, the relationships between teachers' concepts of literacy and their demographic backgrounds ranged from zero or non-existent to very weak. So, it can be stated that the concepts of literacy each teacher held in their EFL literacy instruction could not be clearly suggested by their demographic backgrounds.

Table 17. Correlations Between Teachers' Concepts of Literacy and their Demographic Backgrounds

		Age	Gender	Institution	Geographical Area	Country (Degree)	Teaching Experience	Attending Workshop	Degree
Sum Score	Pearson Correlation	.150*	-.155**	-.104	.005	.168**	.115	-.018	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.012	.010	.084	.937	.005	.058	.762	
	N	277	278	278	278	272	274	274	
	Spearman's rho								.038
	Sig. (2-tailed)								.528
	N								278

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

To gain a better understanding of the findings on teachers' concepts of literacy, a closely related aspect was investigated in question 22 in the survey instrument. In this open-ended question, the participating teachers were asked what they thought they needed to learn more about concerning literacy in the Foundation English classroom. Interestingly, the findings shown in Table 18 unveiled a wide variety of facets that the teachers needed to learn; the most frequent ones were *teaching techniques/strategies/activities and/or instructional approaches* (21.3%) and *concept of literacy or anything about theories of literacy from definition to application* (14.9%).

Table 18. Facets That Teachers Needed to Learn More about Concerning Literacy in Foundation English

Facets	Frequency	Percent
Teaching techniques/strategies/activities and/or instructional approaches	43	21.3
Concept of literacy or anything about theories of literacy from definition to application	30	14.9
Analytical reading skills and/or effective writing	9	4.5
Teaching and learning activities for large classes	9	4.5
Technology in language teaching and/or resources for literacy practices	8	4.0
How to help students develop literacy skills more appropriately and/or in a short period of time	8	4.0
How to manage and control either a regular or linguistically diverse classroom	7	3.5
How to support and motivate students to see the importance of being literate	7	3.5
Not sure, particularly about the concept of literacy	7	3.5
No need to learn/not at this course	7	3.5
Teaching techniques/activities and material development	6	3.0
Pronunciation, vocabulary and/or idiom	5	2.5
Learning styles and proficiency level of the learners	4	2.0
More literacy practices for teacher self-development	4	2.0

(continued)

Table 18. Facets That Teachers Needed to Learn More about Concerning Literacy in Foundation English

(continued)

Facets	Frequency	Percent
How to make students become autonomous and/or lifelong learners	4	2.0
How to develop a curriculum and/or learning materials	3	1.5
Home and foreign cultures and social relations	3	1.5
Thinking skills	3	1.5
Speaking skills	3	1.5
Literacy assessment, particularly reading and/or writing	2	1.0
How to manage effective literacy teamwork or literacy courses	2	1.0
How to keep learners alert and focused on the task at hand or literacy related tasks	2	1.0
Research studies on literacy	1	0.5
Past curriculum and learning background of the students	1	0.5
How to develop literacy skills, technological skills and learning materials	1	0.5
Classroom organization and selection of learning materials	1	0.5
Student's productive skills of English language	1	0.5
How to support or coach literacy teachers	1	0.5
A variety of genres of reading and writing	1	0.5
How to get main ideas in reading quickly	1	0.5

(continued)

Table 18. Facets That Teachers Needed to Learn More about Concerning Literacy in Foundation English

(continued)

Facets	Frequency	Percent
Group work and audience based writing	1	0.5
Defining level of literacy skills for each Foundation English course	1	0.5
How to enhance learner awareness/self-awareness	1	0.5
Application of lessons to real life situation	1	0.5
Teaching skills and research development	1	0.5
Irrelevant or unclear answer	13	6.4
Valid Total	202	100
Missing	98	
Total	300	

4.3 CONNECTIONS OF TEACHERS' CONCEPTS OF LITERACY TO EFL INSTRUCTION

The connections of teachers' concepts of literacy to EFL instruction were analyzed and interpreted based on the responses to Questions 12, 13 and 14 in the survey. Comprehensive findings of the analysis are presented as follows.

In question 12, the participating teachers were asked if they agreed that EFL teaching needed to address literacy as they had defined it in the previous question (question 9). Two hundred and seventy-three out of 300 (91%) of the teachers responded to the question. Of these

273 teachers, 53.5% strongly agreed and 42.1% agreed that EFL teaching needed to address literacy as they had defined it. Only 1.5% of them reported disagreeing and 2.9% reported being undecided. The distribution can be seen in Table 19.

Table 19. Agreement to Address Literacy in EFL Teaching

Agreement Scale		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Undecided	8	2.9
	Disagree	4	1.5
	Agree	115	42.1
	Strongly agree	146	53.5
	Total	273	100.0
Missing		27	
Total		300	

Extensively, the reasons that EFL teaching needed to address literacy were investigated through the open-ended response. As reported in Table 20, the number of respondents was 239 (79.7% of total), and the main reasons to address literacy were *language and/or literacy are a tool for communication in any social context and for career advancement* (19.7%), *language and/or literacy are a medium of learning and individual development in general and for specific purposes* (12.6%), *being literate in L2 is important and students and teachers need to be aware of it* (9.6%), and *it is to help students and teachers know objectives of studying EFL and to fulfill students' needs and success* (9.2%).

Table 20. Reasons for Addressing Literacy in EFL Teaching

Reasons	Frequency	Percent
Language and/or literacy are a tool for communication in any social context and for career advancement.	47	19.7
Language and/or literacy are a medium of learning and individual development in general and for specific purposes.	30	12.6
Being literate in L2 is important and students and teachers need to be aware of it.	23	9.6
It is to help students and teachers know objectives of studying EFL and to fulfill students' needs and success.	22	9.2
Literacy needs to be an instructional goal for teachers.	17	7.1
Literacy is the foundation for all learning, providing basic skills to understand texts and to write.	16	6.7
Literacy is to build up more perfect skills, not reciting.	14	5.9
Learning a language includes multi-abilities and requires a variety of contexts.	14	5.9
Reading and writing enables students to understand, learn new knowledge and succeed in learning.	12	5.0
Literacy is the right track of learning that helps students learn properly and effectively.	7	2.9

(continued)

Table 20. Reasons for Addressing Literacy in EFL Teaching (continued)

Reasons	Frequency	Percent
EFL students' lack of ability to read and write	7	2.9
Literacy is part and parcel of life, language learning and/or education system.	7	2.9
Level and concise definition of literacy need to be defined.	2	0.8
It (ability to read and write) is a basic definition of literacy.	2	0.8
Not sure about the definition of literacy	2	0.8
Students know about, but do not master, the language.	1	0.4
Literacy is a tool for further education.	1	0.4
Literacy depends upon individual needs.	1	0.4
A goal of many EFL students is to read and write academic texts.	1	0.4
It depends on the objectives of the course.	1	0.4
It should be the responsibility of L1 teachers.	1	0.4
Good writers are required in our society at the present time.	1	0.4
Literacy is both <i>a medium of learning</i> and <i>a tool for further education</i> .	1	0.4
Being literate in a foreign language is <i>advantageous</i> but not <i>a must</i> .	1	0.4
Irrelevant or unclear answer	8	3.3
Valid Total	239	100.0
Missing	61	
Total	300	

Question 13 also provided an open-ended response. The teachers were asked when they thought Thai students of English needed to begin developing literacy in their EFL classes. Two hundred and sixty-eight teachers (89.3% of total) responded to the question. Most of them stated that the students needed to begin developing literacy *at young ages, as early as possible, before schooling, or kindergarten* (59.0%). Table 21 shows the distribution of the findings.

Table 21. When Students Needed to Begin Developing Literacy in EFL Classes

When to Begin Developing Literacy	Frequency	Percent
At young ages, as early as possible, before schooling, or kindergarten	158	59.0
The start of learning English	36	13.4
Grade 3 - 5	7	2.6
Middle or secondary school	7	2.6
High school	7	2.6
First year of university level/higher education	6	2.2
After the development of speaking and listening or four skills altogether	4	1.5
The start of learning L1 or after being skillful in L1	3	1.1
In every class	3	1.1
Later years of primary schooling	2	0.7
When students know the goal of language learning	2	0.7
Grade 4	2	0.7
Now/at the present time	2	0.7

(continued)

Table 21. When Students Needed to Begin Developing Literacy in EFL Classes(continued)

When to Begin Developing Literacy	Frequency	Percent
At any level of schooling from kindergarten to university	2	0.7
At age 10 (after the development of mother tongue)	1	0.4
Four or five years after learning English language	1	0.4
When students know more about English alphabet, structures and vocabulary	1	0.4
After students are being introduced to <i>literacy</i> by the teacher	1	0.4
In Foundation English classes	1	0.4
When students/children start to talk (1-3 years old)	1	0.4
At any time by themselves	1	0.4
When students want to further their study at a higher level	1	0.4
Not necessary	2	0.7
Irrelevant or unclear answer	17	6.3
Valid Total	268	100.0
Missing	32	
Total	300	

In question 14, the teachers were asked to rate the degree their own everyday literacy practices influenced their teaching. Of 266 responses (88.7% of total), 136 teachers (51.1%) reported *a great deal*, 101 teachers (38.0%) reported *somewhat*, 20 teachers (7.5%) reported *a little*, and nine teachers (3.4%) reported *never*. The findings are shown in Table 22.

Table 22. Influences of Everyday Literacy Practices on Classroom Teaching

Degree of Influence		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Never	9	3.4
	A little	20	7.5
	Somewhat	101	38.0
	A great deal	136	51.1
	Total	266	100.0
Missing		34	
Total		300	

Further, the teachers were asked to give examples of the everyday literacy practices that influenced their teaching. The findings in Table 23 show that the everyday literacy practices that most teachers reported influencing their teaching were *listening, watching, talking, writing and/or reading from multiple sources* (41.4%). Specifically, some of these examples included listening to music, listening to podcasts, watching news, watching films, reading e-mails, reading research papers, talking to foreigners, writing memos, and writing reports.

Table 23. Everyday Literacy Practices That Influenced Classroom Teaching

Everyday Literacy Practices	Frequency	Percent
Listen, watch, talk, write and/or read from multiple sources	89	41.4
Search for information and look for new ideas from Internet and library	8	3.7
Both <i>listen, watch, talk, write and/or read from multiple sources</i> and <i>search for information and look for new ideas from Internet and library</i>	6	2.8
Keep track of, follow, and/or use current issues	5	2.3
Use words, texts, and/or examples learned outside the class	4	1.9
Pronounce and/or spell words correctly	4	1.9
Give explanations and share professional experience with colleagues	3	1.4
Use one's own strategies in reading and writing	3	1.4
Ask and answer questions	2	0.9
Observe the language and/or think critically and analytically	2	0.9
Use a dictionary to check spelling and use of words	2	0.9
Emphasize the importance of media information and sources of information	1	0.5
Both <i>reading news/articles</i> and <i>translating documents</i>	1	0.5
Do research studies	1	0.5

(continued)

Table 23. Everyday Literacy Practices That Influenced Classroom Teaching (continued)

Everyday Literacy Practices	Frequency	Percent
Prepare presentation with PowerPoint	1	0.5
Mark things	1	0.5
Both <i>listen, watch, talk, write and/or read from multiple sources</i> <i>and use a dictionary to check spelling and use of words</i>	1	0.5
Look and learn things around ourselves	1	0.5
Use personal experiences in school	1	0.5
Speak slowly or repeat a speech	1	0.5
Irrelevant or unclear answer	78	36.3
Valid Total	215	100.0
Missing	85	
Total	300	

4.4 TEACHERS' INSTRUCTIONAL PRACTICES FOR LITERACY

The investigation of teachers' instructional practices for literacy was conducted and presented based on the responses to questions 19, 19a, 19b and 21 in the survey. Overall findings of the analysis are reported below.

Question 19 required the participating teachers to list teaching activities, techniques, or strategies that they used in their Foundation English classes. This question allowed the teachers to address more than one teaching activity, technique, or strategy. The number of respondents

was 257 (85.7% of total). The results are presented in Table 24. It was found that the teachers implemented a variety of teaching activities, techniques, or strategies in their Foundation English classes. The teaching activities, techniques, or strategies that they used most included pair work and/or group work (57.6%), role-play, drama and/or simulation (34.8%), and discussion (33.5%).

Table 24. Teaching Activities, Techniques, or Strategies Used in Foundation English Classes

Teaching Activities, Techniques, or Strategies	Frequency (of 257 each)	Percent
Pair work and/or group work	148	57.6
Role-play, drama and/or simulation	89	34.8
Discussion	86	33.5
Presentation and/or demonstration	79	30.9
Writing with multiple purposes/functions	75	29.2
Using technology in teaching	62	24.1
Integrated skills (e.g., read-aloud, note-taking)	62	24.1
Self-directed/autonomous learning	61	23.7
Reading from a variety of sources/genres	60	23.3
Games	54	21.0
Speaking, conversation and/or oral drill	40	15.6
Doing small research, project work, and/or task-based learning	39	15.2
Asking/answering questions	34	13.2
Listening	34	13.2
Quiz, exercises, and/or homework	33	12.8
Brainstorming and/or problem-based learning	30	11.7

(continued)

Table 24. Teaching Activities, Techniques, or Strategies Used in Foundation English Classes (continued)

Teaching Activities, Techniques, or Strategies	Frequency (of 257 each)	Percent
Comprehension scaffolds (e.g., reviewing, repeating, emphasizing, giving examples, giving feedback)	28	10.9
Vocabulary building and/or word association	26	10.1
Lecture and/or workshop	25	9.7
Text analysis	24	9.3
Grammar learning	21	8.2
Communicative activities (in general)	20	7.8
Skimming and/or scanning	18	7.0
Songs	17	6.6
Jigsaw reading	15	5.8
Using context clues in reading	14	5.4
Visual supports (e.g., pictures, diagrams, objects)	13	5.1
Dictation	11	4.3
External reading	9	3.5
Mind mapping	9	3.5
Pronunciation	9	3.5
Using authentic materials and/or materials of interest	8	3.1
Predicting in pre-reading	8	3.1

(continued)

Table 24. Teaching Activities, Techniques, or Strategies Used in Foundation English Classes (continued)

Teaching Activities, Techniques, or Strategies	Frequency (of 257 each)	Percent
Interviewing	7	2.7
Translating	7	2.7
Information gap	5	1.9
Student-centered learning (in general)	5	1.9
Using L1 and/or non-verbal language	4	1.6
Story telling	4	1.6
Portfolio	4	1.6
Using a dictionary	3	1.2
Consultation	2	0.8
Total Physical Response/Kinesthetic learning	2	0.8
Out-of-class activities (e.g., site visit, field trip)	2	0.8

Also, the teachers were asked to indicate whether the teaching activities, techniques, or strategies that they used in their Foundation English classes were *required* by the syllabus or were *developed* by the teachers themselves (question 19b) and whether they were satisfied with the use of those teaching activities, techniques, or strategies (question 19a). The number of responses and data analysis techniques varied depending on the responses to question 19. The results of the analysis revealed that most implemented teaching activities, techniques, or strategies were both developed by the teachers and required by the syllabus (see Table 25). Nearly 83 percent of the teachers reported being *satisfied* and *very satisfied* with the teaching

activities, techniques, or strategies that they used. Only 16 percent reported being *little satisfied* and 1.2 percent reported being dissatisfied (see Table 26).

Table 25. Features of Teaching Activities, Techniques, or Strategies: Developed or Required

Teaching Activities, Techniques, or Strategies	Frequency (%)		Total
	Developed	Required	
Pair work and/or group work	40 (35.7)	72 (64.3)	112
Role play, drama and/or simulation	27 (41.5)	38 (58.5)	65
Discussion	29 (42.0)	40 (58.0)	69
Presentation and/or demonstration	21 (30.9)	47 (69.1)	68
Writing with multiple purposes/functions	12 (20.0)	48 (80.0)	60
Using technology in teaching	19 (38.8)	30 (61.2)	49
Integrated skills (e.g., read-aloud, note-taking)	22 (44.0)	28 (56.0)	50
Self-directed/autonomous learning	11 (23.9)	35 (76.1)	46
Reading from a variety of sources/genres	15 (34.9)	28 (65.1)	43
Games	39 (90.7)	4 (9.3)	43
Speaking, conversation and/or oral drill	13 (46.4)	15 (53.6)	28
Doing small research, project work, and/or task-based learning	9 (33.3)	18 (66.7)	27
Asking/answering questions	18 (69.2)	8 (30.8)	26
Listening	1 (4.0)	24 (96.0)	25
Quiz, exercises, and/or homework	10 (34.5)	19 (65.5)	29
Brainstorming and/or problem-based learning	15 (68.2)	7 (31.8)	22

(continued)

Table 25. Features of Teaching Activities, Techniques, or Strategies: Developed or Required (continued)

Teaching Activities, Techniques, or Strategies	Frequency (%)		Total
	Developed	Required	
Comprehension scaffolds (e.g., reviewing, repeating, emphasizing, giving examples, giving feedback)	16 (88.9)	2 (11.1)	18
Vocabulary building and/or word association	9 (45.0)	11 (55.0)	20
Lecture and/or workshop	2 (13.3)	13 (86.7)	15
Text analysis	7 (38.9)	11 (61.1)	18
Grammar learning	8 (47.1)	9 (52.9)	17
Communicative activities (in general)	6 (46.2)	7 (53.8)	13
Skimming and/or scanning	1 (6.7)	14 (93.3)	15
Songs	14 (93.3)	1 (6.7)	15
Jigsaw reading	10 (76.9)	3 (23.1)	13
Using context clues in reading	5 (41.7)	7 (58.3)	12
Visual supports (e.g., pictures, diagrams, objects)	7 (70.0)	3 (30.0)	10
Dictation	3 (37.5)	5 (62.5)	8
External reading	0	8 (100.0)	8
Mind mapping	2 (33.3)	4 (66.7)	6
Pronunciation	6 (75.0)	2 (25.0)	8
Using authentic materials and/or materials of interest	2 (66.7)	1 (33.3)	3
Predicting in pre-reading	1 (14.3)	6 (85.7)	7
Interviewing	5 (71.4)	2 (28.6)	7
Translating	3 (100.0)	0	3

(continued)

Table 25. Features of Teaching Activities, Techniques, or Strategies: Developed or Required (continued)

Teaching Activities, Techniques, or Strategies	Frequency (%)		Total
	Developed	Required	
Information gap	0	2 (100.0)	2
Student-centered learning (in general)	2 (50.0)	2 (50.0)	4
Using L1 and/or non-verbal language	3 (100.0)	0	3
Story telling	2 (66.7)	1 (33.3)	3
Portfolio	1 (50.0)	1 (50.0)	2
Using a dictionary	2 (66.7)	1 (33.3)	3
Consultation	0	2 (100.0)	2
Total Physical Response/Kinesthetic learning	2 (100.0)	0	2
Out-of-class activities (e.g., site visit, field trip)	1 (50.0)	1 (50.0)	2

Table 26. Teaching Activities, Techniques, or Strategies' Satisfaction

Satisfaction Scale		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Dissatisfied	3	1.2
	Little satisfied	41	16.0
	Satisfied	179	69.6
	Very satisfied	34	13.2
	Total	257	100.0
Missing		43	
Total		300	

In question 21, the participating teachers were asked if they thought the teaching and learning materials in their Foundation English courses were appropriate to EFL literacy development. Of 264 responses (88% of total), nine teachers (3.4%) reported being *very appropriate*, 115 teachers (43.6%) reported being *appropriate*, 119 teachers (45.1%) reported being *somewhat appropriate*, and 21 teachers (8.0%) reported being *not appropriate*. The distribution can be seen in Table 27.

Table 27. Appropriateness of Teaching and Learning Materials

Appropriateness Scale		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Not appropriate	21	8.0
	Somewhat appropriate	119	45.1
	Appropriate	115	43.6
	Very appropriate	9	3.4
	Total	264	100.0
Missing		36	
Total		300	

4.5 CHALLENGES OF EFL LITERACY INSTRUCTION

The analysis of challenges of EFL literacy instruction was performed based on the responses to questions 15, 16, 17, 18, 20 and 23 in the survey. The findings of the analysis are shown as follows.

In question 15, the participating teachers were asked if the programs at their schools addressed '*literacy*' in specific Foundation English courses or in all Foundation English courses. The number of responses was 272 (90.7% of total). The results of the analysis are shown in Table 28. Almost 66% of the teachers reported *yes* whereas 16.5% reported *no*. Interestingly, nearly 20% of the teachers reported *don't know*.

Table 28. Addressing 'Literacy' in Foundation English Courses: Program at the School

	Response Scale	Frequency	Percent
Valid	Yes	179	65.8
	No	45	16.5
	Don't know	48	17.6
	Total	272	100.0
Missing		28	
Total		300	

Question 16 asked the teachers if the objectives on the syllabus of the Foundation English course(s) that they were teaching addressed '*literacy learning*.' Two hundred and sixty-three teachers (87.7% of total) responded to the question. Of these 263 teachers, 74.5% reported *yes* whereas 25.5% reported *no*. The distribution is presented in Table 29.

Table 29. Addressing ‘Literacy Learning’ in Foundation English Courses: Syllabus Taught

Response Scale		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Yes	196	74.5
	No	67	25.5
	Total	263	100.0
Missing		37	
Total		300	

A further investigation (question 17) was conducted for the answer ‘yes’ to question 16. The teachers were extensively asked how they used the syllabus. Almost 100 % of the teachers (193 out of 196) responded to the question. Most of them reported being *required to use the syllabus strictly* (56.0%) and being *allowed to change the syllabus occasionally* (31.6%). Only 10.4% reported being *allowed to change the syllabus freely* and 2.1% reported being *allowed to use their own syllabus*. The results of the analysis can be seen in Table 30.

Table 30. How Teachers Used the Syllabus

Response Scale		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Required to use the syllabus strictly	108	56.0
	Allowed to change the syllabus freely	20	10.4
	Allowed to change the syllabus occasionally	61	31.6
	Allowed to use my own syllabus	4	2.1
	Total	193	100.0
Missing	Answer ‘no’ to question 16	67	
	No response	40	
Total		300	

In question 18, the teachers were asked to indicate to what extent they thought the curriculum in their school addressed the '*teaching of literacy*' to Foundation English students. Of the 84.7% of respondents (254 out of 300), 10.6% reported *not at all*, 15.0% reported *a little*, 46.9% reported *to some extent*, and 27.6% reported *adequately*. Table 31 presents the distribution of the analysis results.

Table 31. Addressing the 'Teaching of Literacy' to Foundation English Students

	Response Scale	Frequency	Percent
Valid	Not at all	27	10.6
	A little	38	15.0
	To some extent	119	46.9
	Adequately	70	27.6
	Total	254	100.0
Missing		46	
Total		300	

In question 20, the teachers were required to tell if there were any other teaching activities, techniques, or strategies that they would like to use to help the students develop their EFL literacy, but they did not have a chance to use them. Of the 84.3% of respondents (253 out of 300), 52.2% reported *yes* whereas 47.8% reported *no* (see Table 32). The teaching activities, techniques, or strategies that most teachers would like to use, but did not have a chance to use, were *using media and technology* (16.7%). The distribution of the analysis results can be seen in Table 33.

Table 32. Need for Using Other Teaching Activities, Techniques, or Strategies

Response Scale		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Yes	132	52.2
	No	121	47.8
	Total	253	100.0
Missing		47	
Total		300	

Table 33. Teaching Activities, Techniques, or Strategies That the Teachers Could Not Use

Teaching Activities, Techniques, or Strategies	Frequency	Percent
Using media and technology	21	16.7
Reading	15	11.9
Speaking	11	8.7
Writing	10	7.9
Integrated activities or multiple instructional approaches	10	7.9
Collaborative learning	9	7.1
Out-of-class activities (e.g., field trip, exhibition)	8	6.3
Role-play, drama and/or simulation	7	5.6
Grammar and/or vocabulary	5	4.0
Task-based learning	4	3.2
Promoting self-awareness and/or autonomous learners	3	2.4

(continued)

Table 33. Teaching Activities, Techniques, or Strategies That the Teachers Could Not Use (continued)

Teaching Activities, Techniques, or Strategies		Frequency	Percent
Presentation skills		3	2.4
Listening		2	1.6
Dictation		2	1.6
Literature-based learning		2	1.6
Project-based learning		2	1.6
Inviting a guest speaker		2	1.6
Using English/target language in classes		2	1.6
Individual assignment or self-directed learning		1	0.8
Both reading and dictation		1	0.8
Both speaking and self-directed learning		1	0.8
Both reading and speaking		1	0.8
Communicative language learning (CLT)		1	0.8
Problem-based learning		1	0.8
Using current issues/topics		1	0.8
Contemplative education		1	0.8
Total		126	100.0
Missing	Answer 'no'	121	
	No response	53	
Total		300	

Question 23 asked the teachers to indicate the challenges or problems of teaching the Foundation English course(s). These challenges were also collected from other questions in the survey, such as Questions 12, 19a, 20 and 24 (comments and suggestions). Thus, more than one challenge could be found from each survey response. The number of respondents was 263 (87.7% of total). The results in Table 34 reveal a variety of challenges that the teachers faced in teaching their Foundation English courses. The challenges that most teachers indicated were *large class sizes* (45.6%) and *mixed ability language classes* (34.2%).

Table 34. Challenges of Teaching Foundation English Course(s)

Challenges	Frequency (of 263 each)	Percent
Large class sizes	120	45.6
Mixed ability language classes	90	34.2
Time constraints	68	25.9
Students' low proficiency/insufficient knowledge	66	25.1
Students' learning styles/characteristics	52	19.8
Student motivation and interests	48	18.3
Lack of facilities	21	8.0
Contents of study	18	6.8
Inappropriate and/or unavailable materials and activities	17	6.5
Negative attitudes towards learning English	15	5.7
Classroom/teaching and learning management	10	3.8
Lack of effective teachers and professional development	9	3.4

(continued)

Table 34. Challenges of Teaching Foundation English Course(s) (continued)

Challenges	Frequency (of 263 each)	Percent
Lack of budget, cooperation and/or school support	8	3.0
Unsupportive learning environment	7	2.7
Disconnected lessons, materials, teachers' needs and/or teaching and assessment	7	2.7
Cross cultural classes	2	0.8

4.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter presents the findings from the survey instrument. Four major aspects of investigation including *concepts of literacy of the teachers, connections of the concepts of literacy to EFL instruction, classroom instructional practices, and challenges of EFL literacy instruction* were statistically analyzed alongside the correlations to demographic backgrounds of the teachers. The findings revealed that most teachers were able to describe the meaning of literacy; nevertheless, those definitions given by the teachers contained only some of the six features in the contemporary definition of literacy. Most teachers in this study, in other words, do not have a comprehensive view of literacy. Considering the connections of the concepts of literacy to EFL instruction, over half of the participating teachers strongly agree that EFL teaching needed to address literacy as they had defined it and that Thai EFL students need to begin developing literacy at very young ages. They also reported that their own everyday

literacy practices, particularly listening, watching, talking, writing and/or reading from multiple sources, have a great influence on their teaching. For their classroom instructional practices, the findings showed that the teachers implement a variety of teaching activities, techniques, or strategies in their Foundation English classes. Those teaching activities, techniques, or strategies are both required by the syllabus and developed by the teachers themselves. However, the teachers reported facing many challenges of teaching Foundation English. The challenges that most of them faced are large class sizes and mixed-ability language classes.

The correlations between teachers' concepts of literacy and the demographic variables range from non-existent to very weak. Therefore, the demographic backgrounds of the teachers tend not to indicate clearly about their concepts of literacy.

5.0 RESEARCH FINDINGS PART II

The previous chapter presented the findings related to the survey instrument that queried the sample about the four major aspects of this investigation: teachers' concepts of literacy, connections between the concepts of literacy and EFL instruction, classroom instructional practices, and challenges of EFL literacy instruction. Continually, this chapter presents the findings of the reliability analysis of the participants' responses as related to the aspects of investigation. The chapter also presents the findings from the classroom observations and interviews, as well as the case studies and their comparisons to those of the sample. A summary is given at the end of the chapter.

5.1 RELIABILITY OF PARTICIPANTS' RESPONSES

Reliability of the participants' responses to the survey instrument was measured based on the amount of consistency in the responses as related to the aspects of investigation. The survey covered four major aspects of investigation; however, only two—teachers' concepts of literacy and the challenges of EFL literacy instruction—were able to be examined for response consistency because each of these aspects included more than one relevant question.

Teachers' concepts of literacy were examined via three open-ended questions: questions 9, 10, and 11. The response was considered "consistent" when the answers to these questions

were found to be similar or related to each other. The response to only one question was considered “missing” because the answer could not be compared for the consistency.

The response consistency related to the challenges of EFL literacy instruction was examined via two open-ended questions: questions 20 and 23. Additionally, related answers derived from questions 19a, 21, and 24 (comments and suggestions) were considered in the analysis. Because each participant was able to give more than one answer (i.e., identify more than one challenge) in the survey, the analysis of response consistency was different from that of the teachers’ concepts of literacy. That is, the response was considered “consistent” when at least one challenge was reported twice in any of the assigned questions (e.g., in questions 20 and 23, in questions 23 and 19a).

The results of consistency analysis of the participants’ responses are presented in Table 35. The consistency of the participants’ responses to both aspects of investigation—the teachers’ concepts of literacy and the challenges of EFL literacy instruction—was high at 90.6% and 94.1%, respectively. Consequently, it can be stated that the reliability of the participants’ responses to the other aspects of investigation in the survey tended to be high as well.

Table 35. Consistency of the Participants' Response to the Items of Investigation

Response Scale		Frequency (%)	
		Concepts	Challenges
Valid	Yes	252 (90.6)	160 (94.1)
	No	26 (9.4)	10 (5.9)
	Total	278 (100.0)	170 (100.0)
Missing	Not applicable/responding to one question		93
	No response		22
Total		300	300

5.2 FINDINGS FROM THE INTERVIEWS AND CLASSROOM OBSERVATIONS

Two other research instruments used in this study were face-to-face interviews and classroom observations. Both the interviews and classroom observations were conducted after the survey had been completed. Each was carried out one time for each of five selected teachers, designated as Teachers 1 through 5. The selection of the teacher participants was based on their training/education characteristics and willingness to participate as indicated at the end of the survey. Details on teachers' training/education characteristics are provided in Table 36.

Table 36. Training/Education Characteristics of the Selected Teachers for Classroom Observations and

Characteristic	Interviews				
	Teacher 1	Teacher 2	Teacher 3	Teacher 4	Teacher 5
Sum score of the features of the contemporary concept of literacy (out of 6)	6	0	4	5	2
Age	26	53	34	52	51
Gender	Male	Male	Female	Female	Female
Geographical area of the institution	Center	East	Center	North	North
Type of institution taught	Autonomous	Autonomous	Limited Admission	Autonomous	Autonomous
Teaching experience (years)	1.2	19	4	18	26
Highest degree earned	Master	Doctorate	Doctorate	Master	Master
Country where the highest degree was earned	United States	Australia	Australia	Thailand	Thailand
Attending workshop, conference or study trip	No	No	Yes	No	No

The purpose of the interviews and classroom observations was to use the results of the analysis to triangulate the findings that emerged from the analysis of the survey. Therefore, consistencies and differences in the narrative data from the interviews and classroom observations were reexamined alongside information from the survey. The findings are presented in the following sections.

5.2.1 Consistency in teachers' concepts of literacy

The findings on this aspect were derived from the comparison of the interviews and the survey data. In the interviews, each of the five teachers was asked questions that allowed them to elaborate on the definitions of literacy that they provided in their survey answers. The findings indicated that the definitions of literacy in the teachers' interview narratives were not far different from what they had reported in the surveys. The teachers' concepts of literacy in the interview narratives, in other words, were consistent in some way with those in the survey. The interview excerpt of Teacher 1, whose concept of literacy in the survey was considered to be comprehensive, supports this finding:

I have to admit that in the past I perceived the definition of literacy as “the ability to read and write” because it was made known that way in the context of Thailand. By that definition, a word of mouth, folktales, or storytelling might not be considered literacy, though in fact it is . . . When we teach kindergarten students, we use storytelling. Why don't we do this to students at a higher level? Instead, we only hand in them a passage/print text. It is restrictive when literacy is defined simply as the ability to read and write. It does not fit the current situation where new media plays an important role in the everyday life of the people . . . Critical skills should be included. (Teacher 1, Interview)

5.2.2 Importance of concept of literacy

One thing that was extensively found throughout the interviews, but not from the surveys, was the teachers' awareness of the importance of the concept of literacy. In the survey, only Teacher 2 responded in the open-ended items that he wanted to learn more about the concept of literacy. In the interviews, however, three of the teachers (specifically Teachers 1, 3, and 4) shared a common viewpoint that the concept of literacy was critically important for educational development. The findings are supported by the following excerpt:

You are the first person whom I discussed about the concept of literacy with, and I am glad. I mean, your topic touches on this kind of thing. To me, it is very important, especially for Thai universities. If you get the concept, you can put, arrange, or create a lot of things from there. (Teacher 4, Interview)

5.2.3 Addressing literacy in a curriculum/course syllabus

Follow-up questions in the interviews gave teachers the opportunity to report that the term *literacy* was not directly discussed and addressed in the school curriculum or course syllabus.

Rather, the teachers were assumed to understand its concept through the objectives of the courses that they taught:

It [literacy] is not addressed directly in the course syllabus; instead, it is described indirectly in the objective of the course, for example, as “being able to read” or “being able to critically read and evaluate material both electronic and print text.” That’s it. The objective is described in a board scheme. (Teacher 1, Interview)

Not at all [the term literacy is not addressed in the curriculum and/or syllabus]. Because they set up the objective like “upon completing the course, the students are able to socialize in English, express their needs in English, or report to class in English.” They assume it that way and I don’t think they are aware of students being illiterate. (Teacher 5, Interview)

Interestingly, the narrative data from the interview with Teacher 3 were related to the rationale of the current study in that the National Education Act is appropriate; however, a variety of interpretations at the institutional level tend to distort its intent.

Actually, our country has the National Education Act that is based on social constructivism and supportive to EFL literacy development. I am very proud of it. However, it seemed to be messed up when it is interpreted for classroom practices at the institutional level. It’s just not the way that it should be. For example, critical literacy is seen very simply as being able to read, write, listen, and speak a language. (Teacher 3, Interview)

5.2.4 A wide variety of classroom literacy practices

Classroom observations were an effective instrument with which to explore whether there was consistency between the teachers' written responses to the survey and their actual classroom practices. A double check of these two data sources revealed that the five participating teachers indeed implemented a variety of teaching activities, techniques, and strategies in their Foundation English classes as they had reported in the survey. For example, in the survey, Teacher 4 reported using the following teaching activities, techniques, and strategies in her classes: (a) learning active vocabulary for both meaning and pronunciation; (b) listening to conversations containing active vocabulary; (c) practicing conversations in pairs; (d) practicing grammar based on the conversations; (e) creating dialogs; (f) reading aloud; (g) using competitive games; (h) using songs, word completion, and singing; (i) using pictures and captions; (j) doing an outside class search on a given topic and presenting it in class; (k) role-playing in pairs or in groups; and (l) using the English language for classroom instruction. During a 1-hour classroom observation, Teacher 4 was seen actually incorporating the techniques of using the English language, creating dialogs, and role-playing activities in her class. More specifically, the teaching and learning activities that she performed from the beginning to the end of the class consisted of informing students about the topics for the day's lesson, reviewing previous lessons, checking exercises/homework with the whole class, asking students to prepare and do role-plays in groups of two to four students, visiting each group during preparation for the role-plays, and sharing comments with the whole class after the role-plays.

Significantly, the findings from the classroom observations revealed that Teacher 2, whose definition of literacy in the survey was found not to contain any features of the

contemporary concept of literacy, implemented several teaching activities, techniques, and strategies in his class. His classroom literacy practices included using audio (from a computer) and slides for the topic of discussion, initiating whole class discussion, addressing cultural differences on the topic of the discussion, asking students to read aloud a passage, correcting pronunciation, and allowing students to translate words and sentences into Thai (first language) to check for understanding.

5.2.5 Challenges of EFL literacy instruction

The challenges of EFL literacy instruction that emerged from the interviews and classroom observations proved to be consistent with those identified in the survey. These challenges included large class sizes, unsupportive school policies and administration, time constraints, students' low motivation, students' low proficiency, less-effective teachers, and insufficient facilities. Large class sizes and insufficient facilities were seen during the classroom observations. The findings confirmed that each teacher's class, except that of Teacher 2, comprised 30 to 40 students. The classrooms of Teacher 3 and Teacher 4 were not spacious and not comfortable for activities that required moving around. Teacher 4's classroom, in addition, was not equipped with any advanced teaching facilities such as a television, audio sound system, computers, visualizers, LCD projectors, or slide projectors.

Beyond the consistency of the findings, the interview data revealed school policies and administration to be a key problem that caused other unmanageable challenges of EFL literacy instruction, such as large class sizes, mixed ability language classes, insufficient facilities, and less-effective teachers. This finding is supported by the following excerpts:

Actually, we cannot blame it on the teachers because the university policy determined the course to be taught with a lecture method . . . Students do not have enough chances to practice English language skills in class. The teachers only lecture them on the course content . . . The teachers cannot do anything much because the university has determined it this way. We used to ask the university [leaders] why [they] recruited a large number of students, but they seemed not to care about it. (Teacher 2, Interview)

So, there are two things that we have to focus on. Make sure the students pass the test. That's the first priority. According to the Quality Control or QC, if a lot of students fail, the percentage of the Quality Control for our university will be lowered. And that means we will get in trouble . . . Yes, but you know, the administrative staff are not concerned about this [negative impact on student learning]. What they do is just ordering us to enable students to speak and write English well . . . We used to have a placement test/acceptance test for placing students to study English in an appropriate class, but the administrators don't want it now. (Teacher 5, Interview)

5.2.6 Possible ways to solve a problem

The findings related to this aspect emerged only from the interview narratives. Although the participating teachers realized that it was not easy for them to solve the challenges of EFL literacy instruction that resulted from school policies and administration, they were always thinking of possible ways to deal with the challenges they faced. For example, Teacher 2 noted that implementing technology into teaching, such as in an online course, could help solve the problem of large class sizes. Teacher 5 wanted to change the A through F grading system to a S/U or Pass/Fail grading system to fix the problem of students' low motivation. Teacher 3 wished to continue incorporating an autonomous/self-directed learning approach to cope with multiple classroom challenges (e.g., large class sizes, students' learning styles, EFL learning environment). The findings can be seen from the following excerpts:

I would like students to have self-study skills . . . I have been teaching Foundation English courses for 4 years but I have never been happy with it. It is because we cannot train students to become autonomous learners. The students themselves don't want to be, either. We have about 5,000 students and they should feel that they have learned

something from the course. We have a lot of students. We cannot teach and help all of them individually. (Teacher 3, Interview)

If I could do it my way, I will run a course with a Pass/Fail grading system. And I will make it voluntary. I don't think English is for everyone at the university level. We don't need to force students to study if they don't have motivation . . . We don't need to force every student to study the same thing. This course, the 101 course, becomes boring for smart students and too tough for struggling students. (Teacher 5, Interview)

5.3 FINDINGS OF THE CASE STUDIES

As introduced in Chapter 3, two institutions were chosen as case studies in this research. The first (designated as Case Study 1) was randomly selected from middle-ranking universities, and the second (designated as Case Study 2) from low-ranking universities. The reason for conducting the case studies was to examine whether the findings on teachers' concepts of literacy in all universities in the sample can be generalized to the population in all groups of universities across the country. The data of the two case studies were collected using the same set of survey questions as in the sample. Also, an analysis of data was performed the same way as that of the sample. The findings of Case Study 1 are presented in Section 5.3.1 and those of Case Study 2 are presented in Section 5.3.2. A comparison of the findings and the demographic information of the two case studies and the sample are given in Section 5.3.3.

5.3.1 Case Study 1: Middle-Ranking University

Case Study 1 is based on a middle-ranking university located in the eastern region of the country (see Chapter 3 for description of Thai universities). Of the 11 surveys distributed to teachers in this case study university, a total of 100% was returned. Nine teachers (81.8%) who responded

to the survey were female and two (18.2%) were male. They ranged in age from 29 to 61 years, with a mean of 46.18 years. Seven of the participating teachers (63.6%) held a master's degree, one (9.1%) held a doctorate, one (9.1%) was pursuing a PhD, and two (18.2%) were pursuing a master's degree. They earned or were studying for the degrees at institutions from the following countries: Australia (9.1%), Thailand (54.5%), UK (9.1%) and USA (9.1%). Two teachers (18.2%) did not identify the country where their degrees were earned. The teaching experience of the teachers ranged between 1 and 35 years, with a mean of 13.46 years. In the past year, four of them (36.4%) attended a professional development program where the topic of literacy was presented and discussed, while the other seven (63.6%) did not participate in the program.

The findings on the teachers' concepts of literacy in Case Study 1 are presented in Table 37. Ten of the eleven teachers (90.9%) were able to describe the meaning of literacy in some way. Only one teacher (9.1%), designated as *missing*, had no idea about literacy and returned the survey without response. However, the definitions of literacy given by the ten teachers did not meet all six features in the contemporary definition of literacy and contained only four features of the six features established to operationalize the construct in this study: communication focusing on meaning (90.9%), a wide variety of abilities of communication (27.3%), a dynamic set of sub-abilities (27.3%), and a dynamic set of socially, historically, and culturally situated practices (36.4%). The two features not found in the definitions given by these ten teachers were multiple forms of texts and modalities, and out-of-school textual language experiences.

Table 37. Frequency of the Presence and Absence of the Six Features in the Definitions of Literacy:

Case Study 1

	Oral and/or written communication focusing on meaning	A wide variety of abilities of communication	A dynamic set of sub-abilities	A dynamic set of socially historically and culturally situated practices	Multiple forms of texts and modalities	Out-of-school textual language experiences
Valid						
Presence	10 (90.9%)	3 (27.3%)	3 (27.3%)	4 (36.4%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)
Absence	0 (0.0%)	7 (63.6%)	7 (63.6%)	6 (54.5%)	10 (90.9%)	10 (90.9%)
Missing	1 (9.1%)	1 (9.1%)	1 (9.1%)	1 (9.1%)	1 (9.1%)	1 (9.1%)
Total	11 (100.0%)	11 (100.0%)	11 (100.0%)	11 (100.0%)	11 (100.0%)	11 (100.0%)

5.3.2 Case Study 2: Low-Ranking University

Case Study 2 was conducted at a low-ranking university located in the northeastern region of the country. The total number of returned surveys was 9 out of 20 (45.0%). The teachers who responded to the survey included six males (66.7%) and three females (33.3%). They were between the ages of 26 and 53 years, with a mean age of 36.78 years. The highest educational degrees they earned were a doctorate (11.1%) and a master's degree (55.6%). Two teachers (22.2%) were pursuing a master's degree and one (11.1%) was pursuing a doctorate. The degrees were earned or being pursued at institutions in three different countries: India (33.3%), Thailand (55.6%) and USA (11.1%). The range of their teaching experience was from 2 to 15 years, with a mean of 6 years, although one teacher did not supply his years of teaching

experience. In the past year, seven of the teachers (77.8%) took part in a professional development program where the topic of literacy was presented and discussed. Two teachers (22.2%) gave no information as to whether or not they had attended.

Table 38 presents the findings on the teachers' concepts of literacy in Case Study 2. The findings reveal that all nine teachers (100.0%) were able to describe the meaning of literacy in some way. However, none of their definitions contained either of these two features of the contemporary definition of literacy: multiple forms of texts and modalities, and out-of-school textual language experiences. The four features that were included in their definitions of literacy varied widely in frequency: oral and/or written communication focusing on meaning (66.7%), a dynamic set of socially, historically, and culturally situated practices (22.2%), a wide variety of abilities of communication (11.1%), and a dynamic set of sub-abilities (11.1%).

Table 38. Frequency of the Presence and Absence of the Six Features in the Definitions of Literacy:

Case Study 2						
	Oral and/or written communication focusing on meaning	A wide variety of abilities of communication	A dynamic set of sub-abilities	A dynamic set of socially, historically and culturally situated practices	Multiple forms of texts and modalities	Out-of-school textual language experiences
Valid						
Presence	6 (66.7%)	1 (11.1%)	1 (11.1%)	2 (22.2%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)
Absence	3 (33.3%)	8 (88.9%)	8 (88.9%)	7 (77.8%)	9 (100.0%)	9 (100.0%)
Total	9 (100.0%)	9 (100.0%)	9 (100.0%)	9 (100.0%)	9 (100.0%)	9 (100.0%)

5.3.3 A comparison of findings of the case studies and the representative universities

For more insight into a comparison of findings of the two case studies and the representative universities, a summary of the demographic characteristics is given in Table 39. Apart from the number of participating teachers, it was found that the three groups were not vastly different in a mean age, an average number of years of teaching experience, and highest degree earned.

Table 39. Demographic Characteristics of Survey Respondents

Characteristic	Level/ Subcategory	Frequency (%)		
		Case Study 1 (<i>N</i> = 11)	Case Study 2 (<i>N</i> = 9)	Representative (<i>N</i> = 300)
Age	Mean	46.18	36.78	39.7
	Minimum	29	26	24
	Maximum	61	53	68
	Mode	29 and 52	26	34
	Valid Total Missing	11 (100.0)	9 (100.0)	299 (99.7) 1 (0.3)
Gender	Male	2 (18.2)	6 (66.7)	64 (21.3)
	Female	9 (81.8)	3 (33.3)	236 (78.7)
Type of institution where the teacher works	Autonomous			135 (45.0)
	Limited admission	11 (100.0)	9 (100.0)	103 (34.3)
	Open admission			6 (2.0)
	Private			56 (18.7)
Geographical area of the institution	Center			132 (44.0)
	East	11 (100.0)		33 (11.0)
	North			64 (21.3)
	Northeast		9 (100.0)	45 (15.0)
	South			26 (8.7)
Highest degree earned	Bachelor			6 (2.0)
	Master	7 (63.6)	5 (55.6)	204 (68.0)
	Doctorate	1 (9.1)	1 (11.1)	60 (20.0)
	Pursuing PhD	1 (9.1)	1 (11.1)	20 (6.7)
	Pursuing MA	2 (18.2)	2 (22.2)	9 (3.0)
	Missing			1 (0.3)

(continued)

Table 39. Demographic Characteristics of Survey Respondents (continued)

Characteristic	Level/ Subcategory	Frequency (%)		
		Case Study 1 (<i>N</i> = 11)	Case Study 2 (<i>N</i> = 9)	Representative (<i>N</i> = 300)
Country where the highest degree was earned	Australia	1 (9.1)		16 (5.3)
	Canada			1 (0.3)
	France			1 (0.3)
	India		3 (33.3)	4 (1.3)
	Japan			1 (0.3)
	Malaysia			1 (0.3)
	New Zealand			4 (1.3)
	Philippines			2 (0.7)
	Russia			1 (0.3)
	Thailand	6 (54.5)	5 (55.6)	189 (63.0)
	UK	1 (9.1)	1 (11.1)	23 (7.7)
	USA	1 (9.1)		45 (15.0)
	Other (2 countries)			4 (1.3)
	Missing	2 (18.2)		8 (2.7)
Teaching experience (years)	Mean	13.46	6	11.1
	Minimum	1	2	0
	Maximum	35	15	44
	Valid	11 (100.0)	8 (88.9)	296 (98.7)
	Total Missing		1 (11.1)	4 (1.3)
Attending workshop, conference or study trip	No	7 (63.6)		176 (58.6)
	Yes	4 (36.4)	7 (77.8)	119 (39.7)
	Not sure, cannot remember			2 (0.7)
	Missing		2 (22.2)	3 (1.0)

In comparing the findings on teachers' concepts of literacy of the case studies in sections 5.3.1 and 5.3.2, it was found that the teachers from both middle-ranking and low-ranking universities were able to describe the meaning of literacy as they viewed it. However, the meanings that they described did not include all the features of the contemporary definition of literacy. That is, they included only some of these features.

When the findings of the case studies were compared with those of the representative universities in Section 4.2.2, there proved to be a similar pattern in the presence, absence, and summed score distribution of features in the definitions of literacy. The features most often found in the definitions of literacy by teachers from both the representative universities and the case studies were *oral and/or written communication focusing on meaning, a wide variety of abilities of communication, a dynamic set of sub-abilities, and a dynamic set of socially, historically, and culturally situated practices*. The features that were never or less often contained in the definitions of literacy were *multiple forms of texts and modalities* and *out-of-school textual language experiences*. The summed score distribution of the features in the definitions of literacy from both representative universities and case studies demonstrated the same pattern. The more complete the definition of literacy, the fewer teachers responded in this way (see Table 40 and Figure 3).

Table 40. A Summed Score Distribution of Features in the Definition of Literacy:

Representative Universities, Case Study 1 and Case Study 2

Score (out of 6)		Frequency (%)		
		Representative Univ.	Case Study 1	Case Study 2
Valid	0	54 (18.0)	0 (0.0)	3(33.3)
	1	71 (23.7)	2 (18.2)	2 (22.2)
	2	82 (27.3)	6 (54.5)	4 (44.4)
	3	45 (15.0)	2 (18.2)	0 (0.0)
	4	17 (5.7)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
	5	6 (2.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
	6	3 (1.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
	Total	278 (92.7)	10 (90.9)	9 (100.0)
Missing		22 (7.3)	1 (9.1)	0 (0.0)
Total		300 (100.0)	11(100.0)	9 (100.0)

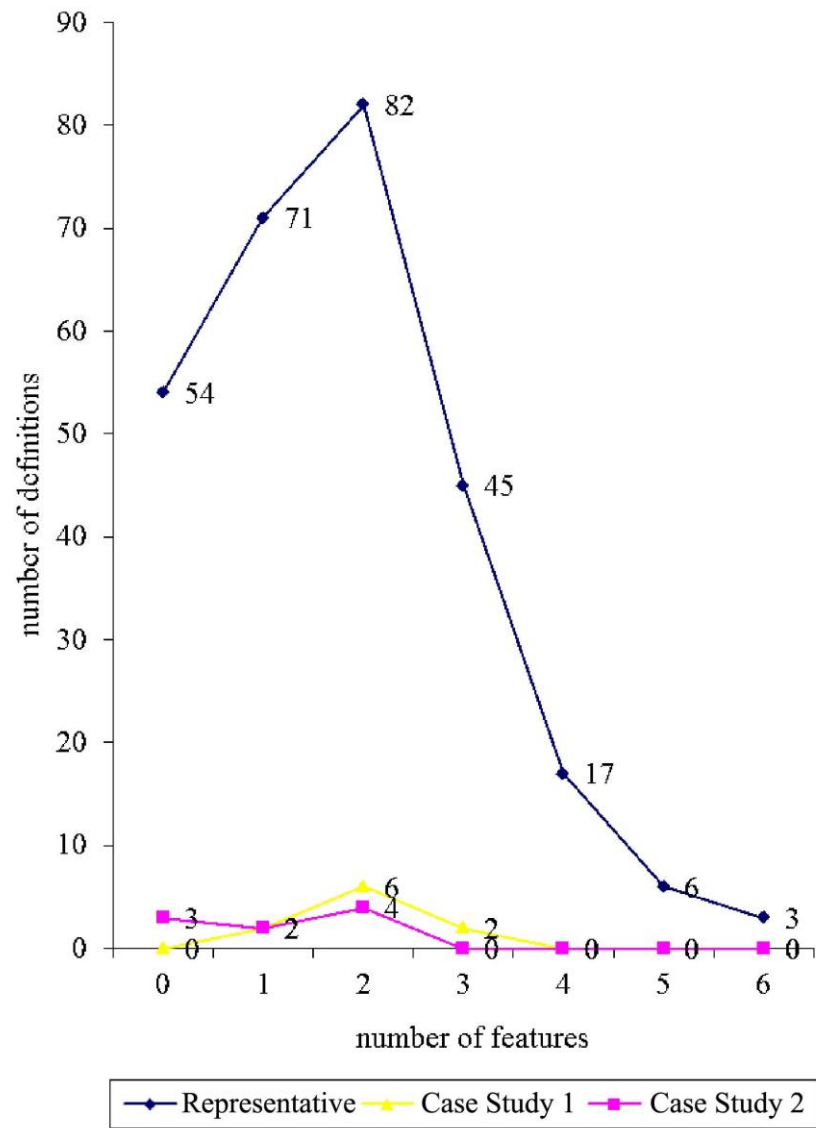


Figure 3. A summed score distribution of the features in the definitions of literacy:

Representative universities, Case Study 1 and Case Study 2

5.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The analysis showed that participants' responses to the surveys tended to have high reliability. In addition, the findings that emerged from the survey, particularly the aspects of teachers' concepts of literacy and challenges of EFL literacy instruction, were found to be largely consistent with the findings that emerged from the interviews and classroom observations. The case studies of the middle-ranking and low-ranking universities regarding teachers' concepts of literacy demonstrated that the teachers were able to describe the meaning of literacy as they viewed it, but the meanings that they described included only some of the features of the contemporary definition of literacy. A comparison of the findings of the case studies and the sample revealed a similar pattern in the presence, absence, and summed score distribution of features in the definitions of literacy. Discussions and implications of the research findings are presented in the next chapter.

6.0 DISCUSSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

In this chapter, the discussions and implications are presented based on the findings in Chapters 4 and 5. The limitations of the study are also reported alongside the suggestions for future research. A summary of the study is included at the end of the chapter.

6.1 DISCUSSIONS ON THE FINDINGS

The discussions are undertaken in response to the research questions and the findings of the study. They are developed and presented in the following sections: a gap in concepts of literacy of Thai EFL teachers; non-alignment of the concepts of literacy and instructional classroom practices; and constant difficulties and challenges of literacy instruction and development.

6.1.1 A gap in concepts of literacy of Thai EFL teachers

Based on the findings in Chapters 4 and 5, most participating teachers from both the sample and the case studies did not give a complete definition of literacy in the survey. The definitions that they gave, in other words, contained only some or none of the six features of the contemporary definition of literacy. Therefore, it can be concluded that most Thai teachers of university-level Foundation English courses seemed not to have comprehensive views of literacy. However, by

considering the teachers' age, gender, type of institution where the teacher works, geographical area of the institution, highest degree earned, country where the highest degree was earned, or attending a workshop, conference or study trip, we cannot definitely anticipate whether the teachers have the comprehensive concept of literacy. Teachers' concepts of literacy, in other words, tended not to be suggested by their demographic backgrounds.

In response to the findings, we see a gap between the National Foreign Language Standards in Thailand and the teachers' interpretations of literacy learning, or perhaps the lack of dissemination of these standards for foreign language instruction to the teachers. To clarify, it is acknowledged that Thai national standards include the four C's—culture, communication, connection, and communities—which reflect the features of the contemporary concept of literacy (see Chapter 2). Nevertheless, the findings of the study showed that only some of these components were contained in the definitions of literacy given by the teachers. The teachers, in other words, seemed not to know about the 4 C's which make up the Thai national standards for foreign language instruction in 2002.

Similarly, the curriculum standards for Foundation English courses 1-4 in 2002 (see Appendix D) also contain the goals and standards that reflect the six features of the contemporary definition of literacy, for example: students will use spoken and written English to participate appropriately in social interaction (Goal 1, Standard 2); students will recognize and understand cultural differences (Goal 1, Standard 3); students will use appropriate learning strategies to acquire, construct, and apply academic knowledge and to develop critical thinking skills (Goal 2, Standard 3). Many teachers in the study, however, did not include these features in their definitions of literacy. Possible reasons for this finding are discussed in Section 6.1.2.

6.1.2 Non-alignment of the concepts and instructional classroom practices

Most teachers participating in the study were found not to have comprehensive concepts of literacy. However, the findings of both the surveys and the classroom observations consistently revealed that they implemented a wide variety of literacy practices in their EFL classes, and that these practices pertain in some way to the contemporary concept of literacy. In addition, the practices were not entirely required by the syllabus, but were partially developed by the teachers. Therefore, it would stand to reason that Thai EFL university teachers had less-comprehensive views of literacy due to their unfamiliarity with the term *literacy* and theories of literacy. Their demographic information, specifically degree earned and professional development, supports this assertion. That is, in the past year, about 60 percent of the teachers did not participate in a professional development (e.g., workshop, conference, study trip) where the topic of literacy was presented and discussed. In addition, the degrees that most of them held were master or doctorate in TEFL, TESOL, Linguistics, and Applied Linguistics, in which the main emphases or contributions are not theories of literacy. Rather, in these programs, the emphasis is placed on teaching practices rather than theoretical understandings of concepts associated with the development of language and literacy.

Similarly, as discussed earlier, the National Foreign Language Standards, the curriculum standards for Foundation English courses 1-4, and a history of EFL literacy in Thailand suggest that beliefs about second and foreign language literacy in Thai culture are not vastly different from beliefs about literacy in American culture. Communication ability, critical-thinking ability, and technological ability are components of literacy that are common to both Thai and American culture. Therefore, it does not seem to be an overgeneralization to reason that Thai EFL

university teachers in this study have less-comprehensive views of literacy due to their unfamiliarity with the term *literacy* and theories of literacy.

6.1.3 Constant difficulties and challenges of literacy instruction and development

The teachers participating in this study, despite their concept of literacy, reported many difficulties and challenges to literacy instruction and development, as they conceive it. These challenges involved teacher and student issues (e.g., heavy workload, lack of professional development, students' low language proficiency, students' low motivation); curriculum design and instructional methods (e.g., disconnected lessons, unavailable materials, too much content to cover); classroom management (e.g., large class sizes, mixed ability language classes, lack of a motivating learning environment) and administrative support (e.g., insufficient facilities, lack of budget for out-of-class or extra-curricular activities, lack of school cooperation and support). Interestingly, these difficulties and challenges were also found in previous research, for example, Danskin (1979), Thep-Ackrapong (2005), Dhanasobhon (2006), and Punthumasen (2007). Thus, it can be stated that the difficulties and challenges of EFL literacy instruction and development in Thailand are the same challenges that plague most educational reforms in EFL instruction.

6.2 IMPLICATIONS

One intended outcome and application of the results of this national survey on teachers' concepts of literacy is that the study could potentially provide recommendations and a direction for improving EFL literacy instruction in Thailand. The findings of the study and the discussions

above suggest two possible courses of action for improving literacy instruction in Thailand. Based on the findings, two recommendations for improving EFL literacy development are presented: *national policy and instructional frameworks* for advancing the literacy of Thai EFL students and *classroom instruction and teacher preparation*.

6.2.1 National policy and instructional frameworks

The first action that policy makers and relevant constituencies and organizations at the national and institutional levels should take is to review and reconsider policies and frameworks of second and foreign language literacy. According to the review of literature in Chapter 2, Thai EFL teachers whose responsibility and duty pertain directly to literacy instruction implemented traditional or out-dated teaching approaches that do not support student achievement in English literacy. In addition, they lacked insight into the concepts of contemporary approaches to EFL literacy teaching (e.g., content-based approach, standards-based approach, genre-based approach). This situation, as discussed in the section above, is somewhat consistent with the findings of this study, in which many teachers did not conceptualize literacy in a comprehensive way and relied mainly on reductive notions of literacy, such as the ability to read and write. Admittedly, this perspective is hard to change given that notions of literacy are embedded in culture and history and even appear in the language we use to describe a literate person (e.g., in French, to be literate is to possess “*alphabétisme*” or the knowledge of one’s A, B, Cs, in Thai, literacy is “อ่านออกเขียนได้/*ann oc khien dai*” or the ability to read and write). Therefore, national policy makers need to review and reconsider the policies and frameworks of second and foreign language literacy to determine whether or not they are understandable, accessible, and realistic in practice. Particularly, they need to ensure that each institution across the country truly

understands and follows those unitary national policies and frameworks, even though each of them has freedom to set up its own institutional programs. An example of a perspective and direction for policy development on literacy can be found in the book *The Global Literacy Challenge*, by Richmond, Robinson and Sachs-Israel (2008).

As well as the policies and frameworks, the reconceptualized definition of literacy also needs to be disseminated widely within academia, especially to teachers of university-level Foundation English courses who, in this study, were found to be unfamiliar with the term *literacy* and theories of literacy. The notion of literacy should be broadened and should include three dimensions of literacy: linguistic, cognitive, and sociocultural (Kern, 2000). Also, it should fit the current situation where digital text and technology potentially influence the everyday life of the people. An example of a contemporary definition of literacy can be seen in the review of literature in Chapter 2 of this study. Additionally, an elaboration or further explanation of the definition should be provided for a more comprehensive understanding of literacy, so that there will be no vastly different interpretations and misconceptualizations. Alternatively, the elaboration of the definition in policy documents and instructional frameworks might entail the six features of the contemporary definition presented in the present study: (1) oral and/or written communication focusing on meaning; (2) a wide variety of abilities of communication; (3) a dynamic set of sub-abilities; (4) a dynamic set of socially, historically, and culturally situated practices; (5) multiple forms of texts and modalities; and (6) out-of-school textual language experiences. The last two features—*multiple forms of texts and modalities* and *out-of-school textual language experiences*—should be particularly emphasized since, as this study has suggested, the teachers did not seem to be aware of them.

The curriculum standards for Foundation English courses (see Appendix D) include the six features of the contemporary definition of literacy in some form, and the findings of the present study have shown that the teachers implemented a wide variety of literacy practices in their classes. Why, then, is there a need to disseminate the contemporary definition of literacy to the teachers? The reason can be found in Vygotsky's (1934) distinction between spontaneous concepts and scientific concepts. Spontaneous concepts, or the implicit knowledge of literacy, are not sufficient on their own to achieve success in teaching literacy. Scientific concepts, which teachers learn through formal instruction, help them to gain more structured and systematic knowledge and, importantly, to become aware of how to implement this knowledge in their literacy instruction.

The next effort that education ministers and relevant constituencies and organizations could undertake is to promote professional development for teachers. Both the literature review and the findings of the study consistently revealed that the training courses, seminars, conferences, and workshops on theories of literacy in the country were limited in number. In addition, over half of the participating teachers in this study did not participate in these types of professional development programs during the previous year. The study on *How Teachers Change: a Study of Professional Development in Adult Education* (Smith, Hofer, Gillespie, Solomon & Rowe, 2003) suggests that the most-important professional development factors influencing teacher change included hours of professional development attended and the quality of the professional development sessions. Therefore, more courses, seminars, conferences, and workshops on the topic of literacy, under either national or international sponsorship, need to be made available for the Thai teachers. Grants, scholarships, and awards should also be offered to teachers to encourage their active participation in on-going professional development.

6.2.2 Classroom instruction and teacher preparation

The findings of the study also suggest instructional development and teacher preparation at the school and classroom level.

First, Thai EFL teachers need to expand their concept of literacy. As discussed in Section 6.1.1, the definitions of literacy gathered in the survey did not include a wide range of features of the contemporary concept of literacy even though it was found that the teachers implemented a variety of literacy practices in their classroom instruction. Some teachers went as far as to admit in the open-ended response that they had no idea about theories of literacy. Considering the potentially negative impact of teachers holding limited concepts of literacy, a pilot study conducted prior to this research revealed that a teacher with a limited concept of literacy was frustrated when students could not well perform multiple-ability tasks (e.g., organizing notes during listening). Even in the present study, some teachers thought that it was a challenge when students made grammatical errors during EFL literacy instruction. The findings were coded and categorized in the section on challenges of EFL literacy instruction: students' low proficiency/insufficient knowledge. Therefore, the teachers should broaden their concept of literacy and, in this way, lead them to a better understanding of effective and useful literacy practice. One suggestion on expanding the concept of literacy is that the teachers should seek opportunities to attend training courses, seminars, conferences, or workshops where the topic of literacy is presented. They could also directly learn the new concepts by working collaboratively with the experienced and effective literacy teachers in their schools.

Second, every teacher who teaches the same course should engage in curriculum and syllabus design. Failing this, at least they should attend an instructional orientation on the course they are going to teach. The benefit would be similar to the one suggested above. That is, the

teachers with an informed understanding of literacy can support the work of those teachers who still maintain narrow and reductive concepts of literacy and approaches to literacy instruction (e.g., over-emphasis on decontextualized language accuracy at the expense of allowing students to engage in purposeful communication in social context using a wide array of modalities and genres). Something that should be taken into consideration in designing a curriculum and syllabus is that classes should be organized around *situated literacy practices*; moreover, more *critical framing* of the literacy practices should be embedded in the lessons (New London Group, 1996). This effort could possibly enable students to engage in internalizing literacy practice and transforming the practice for their own communicative purposes.

Third, teachers should be trained to engage in *instructional analysis* from the perspective of what skills and literacy practices are taking place in their classes (Hoffman & Medsker, 1983). The instructional analysis process increases the chance of identifying all learning that is prerequisite to performing a task; it also eliminates unnecessary instruction. Specifically, it guides teachers to what students must be able to do (*skills*) and what they must know (*related information*) to help them achieve the target performance (Anderhub, 1987). Anderhub and Hoffman and Medsker state that the more experience a teacher has in performing instructional analysis, the more skilled (s)he becomes in seeing an overview of the extensive types of learning and the major relationships between them. By breaking the skills needed to complete literacy tasks, Anderhub argues that the teachers can identify students who are having difficulty mastering literacy tasks, arrange additional practice time, and know students who are not yet ready to engage in more complex literacy skills. Doing this will help ease frustration resulting from unrealistic expectations for both students and teachers.

Fourth, co-teaching—also known as team teaching, cooperative teaching, and collaborative teaching (Reinhiller, 1996)—and resources for teacher training and development should be made available to the teachers. According to Davis-Wiley and Cozart (1998), co-teaching can lead to greater reflection on the part of the co-teachers. Co-teachers have the opportunity to collaborate, trade ideas, and increase each other's expertise (Bahamonde & Friend, 1999) and, ultimately, to develop self-examination and improved teaching (Bowles, 1994). Resources for teacher training and development should include the widest possible range of available materials and facilities. For example, videos of classroom literacy practices can be used for modeling and practice. The use of videos, however, needs to be carefully considered to avoid potential offense and loss of 'face' among attending teachers, and to ensure that professional development is culturally sensitive.

Fifth, constant difficulties and challenges of classroom literacy instruction need to be discussed and solved collaboratively among teachers and school administrators. Based on the findings and the discussions in Section 6.1.3, a number of problems in classroom literacy instruction were associated with teachers and students, for example, curriculum design, instructional methods, classroom management, and administrative support. Some of these challenges—for example, class size, teacher workload, and allotment of instructional time—were persistent problems and could not be solved by only one person or one party. They need, in other words, a collaborative solution by people who are involved in the problem. Thus, teachers who teach the same course, teachers in the same or different departments, and school administrators need to come together to solve problems of all kinds and at different levels of complexity.

6.3 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

As suggested by its methodology and findings in the previous chapters, a limitation of this research concerned a lack of contextualizing the answers to questions 15-17 in the survey. These questions asked the participating teachers whether or not *literacy* and *literacy learning* were addressed in their Foundation English courses and syllabuses. Since the concept of literacy seemed to be personal, idiosyncratic and ideological, and one Foundation English course in each institution was taught by many teachers, the answers to these questions were more likely to vary. The teachers who had a comprehensive view of literacy would likely respond “yes”, whereas the others who did not have any idea of literacy would likely respond “no.” Consequently, response inconsistency could occur in this case. Because of this, future researchers need to avoid the questions that can affect reliability of the participants’ responses. Or perhaps the analysis of the study should match definitions of literacy with perceptions of curriculum, syllabus, and teaching practices.

To address this limitation, possible future research could be conducted to trace the impact of literacy concepts on teachers’ classroom instructional practices and students’ literacy learning. The present study purposefully investigated what concepts of literacy the teachers held in their EFL literacy instruction and, therefore, the findings did not necessarily tell about the impact of those teachers’ literacy concepts on their perceptions of the curriculum and methods and how they enacted their instruction in the classroom. Future research examining the impact of teachers’ literacy concepts on perceptions and practices might confirm how much or how little the concepts of literacy affect teachers’ classroom instructional practices and students’ literacy development.

6.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The findings of this study showed that Thailand, where interest in EFL literacy instruction has been discussed for decades and approaches to improving literacy are continually being developed, still faces constant difficulties and challenges to provide literacy education for EFL students. As reported by the participating teachers, the difficulties and challenges were associated with teacher and student attributes, curriculum design, instructional methods, classroom management, and administrative support. Importantly, the study suggested that Thai EFL university teachers who were directly involved in the instruction and development of literacy were somehow concerned with those difficulties and challenges. They were found not to be familiar with or aware of the term and the theories of literacy, although in practice they implemented a variety of literacy practices in their classes. Specifically, many teachers with all types of degrees earned, types of institutions, years of teaching experience, and numbers of workshop, seminar, or conference participations did not have a comprehensive view of literacy. A positive outcome of this study was that some teachers indicated that the survey made them want to learn about the concept of literacy. Guided by the findings, the recommendations and a direction for improving EFL literacy instruction in the country have been put forth on two levels: the national level, and the school and classroom level. The recommendations at the national level are committed to national policy and instructional frameworks, whereas at the school and classroom level they are focused on classroom instruction and teacher preparation. Hopefully, there will be changes towards improving EFL literacy instruction and development in this context.

APPENDIX A

SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Survey of Thai Foundation English Teachers' Concepts of Literacy



Dear Respondent:

The purposes of the study are a) to identify the concepts of literacy that are held by Thai teachers of university-level Foundation English courses, and b) to examine literacy-teaching practices in these courses. For these reasons, I will be asking university-level teachers from a number of different universities across the country to complete this survey. If you are willing to participate, the survey will ask about background (e.g., age, gender, degree earned, professional development), concepts of literacy, your concept of literacy and its connection to EFL instruction, classroom instructional practices, and challenges of EFL literacy instruction.

There are no foreseeable risks associated with this project, nor are there any direct benefits to you. This is an entirely anonymous survey, and so all answers and demographic information are confidential. Your participation is voluntary, and you may withdraw from this project at any time.

I appreciate your help in completing this survey.

Jakraphan Riamliw
Ph.D. Student in Language Literacy and Culture
University of Pittsburgh
Email: jar100@pitt.edu Tel: 083-7872-905

P.S. The enclosed 100 baht bill is just a token of my appreciation.

Survey

Instructions: Feel free to give your answer to each question (either in *English* or in *Thai*). All answers will remain anonymous. If you don't understand any question or term in this survey, please contact me (Jakraphan) at jar100@pitt.edu.

Section I Demographic Information

1. What is your gender?

☐ Male ☐ Female

2. What is your age? _____

3. How many years have you been teaching English at the university level in Thailand?

4. What is the highest degree that you have earned?

- ☐ Bachelors (Major: _____)
- ☐ Masters (Major: _____)
- ☐ Doctorate (Major: _____)
- ☐ Other (_____)

4a) In **what university** and in **what country** was the highest degree earned?

5. Are you currently pursuing an advanced degree while teaching?

☐ **Yes** a) What degree are you pursuing?

b) Where are you pursuing this degree? (e.g., in what university and in what country?)

☐ **No**

6. Have you in the past year participated in any professional development program (e.g., workshop, conference, study trip) where the topic of *Literacy* was presented and discussed?

☐ **Yes** ☐ **No**

If yes, please indicate the following items:

- a) Nature of professional development program (e.g., *workshop, seminar, class, short presentation*) _____
- b) Duration (how many *hours, days, or years?*) _____
- c) Year taken _____
- d) Where _____
- e) Personal assessment of professional development program
- ☐ Informative/learned a lot of new ideas and concepts
 - ☐ Informative/learned many useful ideas
 - ☐ Less informative/learned a few ideas
 - ☐ Uninteresting/did not learn that much

7. Write down the **Foundation English course(s)** that you are teaching and put a tick (✓) in the box to indicate what kind of language courses they are.

Course Title	Kind of Course				
	<i>Discrete skills</i>				<i>Integrated skills</i> of reading, writing, speaking, and listening or some of them
	Reading	Writing	Speaking	Listening	
1.					
2.					
3.					
4.					

8. Identify type and location of institution/university where you teach.

- 8a) Type of Institution:
- ☐ Limited Admission (มหาวิทยาลัยของรัฐ/ จำกัดรับ)
 - ☐ Autonomous (ม.ในกำกับของรัฐ)
 - ☐ Open Admission (มหาวิทยาลัยเปิด/ ไม่จำกัดรับ)
 - ☐ Private (มหาวิทยาลัยเอกชน)

- 8b) Region: ☐ North
☐ Northeast
☐ Center
☐ East
☐ South

Section II Concepts of Literacy and Classroom Practices

9. From your perspective (and without looking the word up in a dictionary), **what is 'literacy'?** Describe its meaning as far as you understand. (You can be brief or as long as you want.) There are no right or wrong answers. If you have *never* heard this term before and have no idea of what it means, then stop here and return the survey to me with my thanks.

*** *Note: You can write down your answers on **the reverse side of the page**.*

10. In your opinion, what does it mean to be a **'literate person'**?

11. In your own life, how do you practice literacy, as you defined it in Question 9?

12. Do you agree that EFL teaching needs to address literacy, as you defined in Question 9?

☐ Strongly agree ☐ Agree ☐ Disagree ☐ Strongly disagree ☐ Undecided

Why? _____

13. When do you think Thai students of English need to begin developing literacy in their EFL classes?

14. To what degree do **your own everyday literacy practices** influence **your teaching**?

☐ A great deal ☐ Somewhat ☐ A little ☐ Never

If A great deal, Somewhat, or A little, give examples of the everyday literacy practices that influence your teaching.

15. Does the program at your school address '**literacy**' in specific Foundation English courses or in all Foundation English courses?

☐ **Yes** In what courses? _____

☐ **No** _____

☐ **Don't know**

16. Do the objectives on the syllabus of the Foundation English course(s) that you are teaching *address literacy learning*?

☐ **Yes** What are those objectives? (if you would like to give me your course syllabus and indicate where literacy goals are listed, this is fine, too).

☐ **No**

17. If you answer 'yes' to *Question 16*, how do you use this syllabus?

- ☐ Required to **use** the syllabus **strictly**
☐ Allowed to **change** the syllabus **freely**
☐ Allowed to **change** the syllabus **occasionally**
☐ Allowed to **use my own syllabus**

18. To what extent do you think the curriculum in your school addresses '**the teaching of literacy**' to Foundation English students?

☐ Adequately ☐ To some extent ☐ A little ☐ Not at all

Please explain _____

19. Please **list the teaching activities, techniques, or strategies** that you use in your Foundation English class (es).

- a. _____
- b. _____
- c. _____
- d. _____
- e. _____
- f. _____
- g. _____
- h. _____
- i. _____
- j. _____
- k. _____
- l. _____

19a) Are you satisfied with these activities/techniques/strategies?

☐ Very satisfied ☐ Satisfied ☐ Little satisfied ☐ Dissatisfied

Why? _____

19b) Which one(s) of these teaching activities/techniques/strategies did *you* develop? Which one(s) are *required by the syllabus*? You can write down only a letter (e.g., a, c, d, f, h).

Teaching activities/techniques/strategies that I developed: _____

Teaching activities/techniques/strategies required by the syllabus: _____

20. Are there any other teaching activities, techniques, or strategies that you would like to use to help the students develop their EFL literacy, but you **cannot or do not have a chance to use** them?

☐ **Yes** a) What are those teaching techniques? _____

b) Why can't you use them? _____

☐ **No**

21. Do you think your **teaching and learning materials** in your Foundation English course(s) are appropriate to EFL literacy development?

- ☐ Very appropriate
☐ Appropriate
☐ Somewhat appropriate
☐ Not appropriate

Please explain _____

22. What do you think you need to learn more about concerning literacy in the Foundation English classroom?

23. What are the problems or difficulties of teaching your Foundation English course(s)?

Section III Suggestions/Comments (Optional)

24. Any suggestions/comments on teaching EFL literacy (either for the course that you're teaching or for teaching EFL literacy in Thailand).

Note: You can write down your answers on *the reverse side of the page*.

*** 25. Will you allow me to interview you and observe one class?

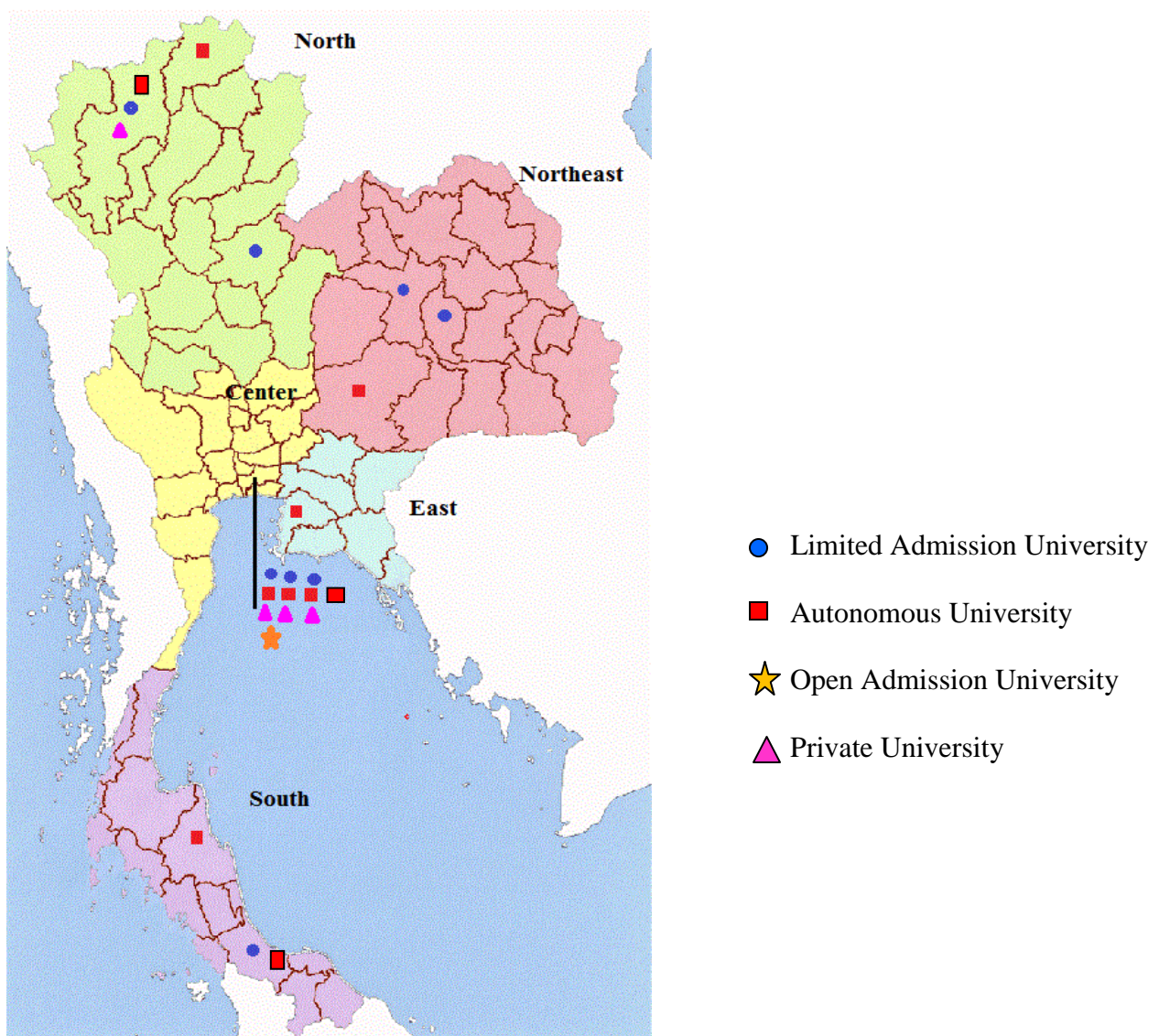
☐ **Yes** ☐ **No**

Contact Number: _____

Thank you so much for your time and your thinking!

APPENDIX B

GEOGRAPHICAL REPRESENTATION OF THE REPRESENTATIVE UNIVERSITIES



Source: http://www.thailandsworld.com/sites/thailandsworld_com/images/Thailand_maps/All_Thailand500map.gif

APPENDIX C

CODING CRITERIA FOR RATING FEATURES IN DEFINITIONS OF LITERACY

Features in contemporary definitions of literacy	Absence (score = 0)	Presence (score = 1)
1. Oral and/ or written communication focusing on meaning (e.g., meaning negotiation rather than linguistic forms and skills)		
2. A wide variety of abilities of communication (e.g., listening, speaking, reading and writing, verbal and nonverbal communication)		
3. A dynamic set of sub-abilities (e.g., interpreting, predicting, inferring, problem solving, analyzing, synthesizing, collaborating)		
4. A dynamic set of socially, historically, and culturally situated practices (e.g., technological reports, service encounters, academic language use)		
5. Multiple forms of texts and modalities (e.g., spoken and written texts, visual texts)		
6. Out-of-school textual language experiences (e.g., chatting and surfing the Internet, reading magazines, travelling, joining sporting events)		

APPENDIX D

CURRICULUM STANDARD FOR FOUNDATION ENGLISH COURSES 1-4 (JUNE 2002)

Definitions of Terms

Thai University English Foundation Courses have been framed around two goals and seven standards.

Goals

The goals cover two areas in which students need to develop competence in English: social language, and academic language. Each goal is supported by standards. Upon meeting these standards, students will have developed competence to function in a basic range of academics and social contexts.

Standards

The seven standards indicate more specifically what students should know and be able to do as a result of instruction. The standards in Goal 1 focus on using English to accomplish personal and social interaction tasks, including addressing cultural differences. The standards in Goal 2 are concerned with using English to accomplish personal and academic tasks, to further study, and to promote life-long learning. Both Goals specifically target the use of learning strategies to enhance the use of English for social and academic purposes.

Descriptors

The descriptors are broad categories of discrete, representative behaviors that students exhibit when they meet a standard. They reflect a range of behaviors that is needed to use English effectively and accurately in personal, social, and academic circumstances.

Sample Progress Indicators*

The sample progress indicators list assessable, observable activities that students may perform to show progress toward meeting the designated standard. These progress indicators represent a variety of instructional techniques that may be used by teachers to determine how well students are doing and they can be achieved by all students at some level of performance. Because students enter universities with different levels of English, the progress indicators represent a sampling of activities that can be demonstrated by the students at different proficiency levels of English (beginning, intermediate, advanced).

***Notes:** These indicators are just samples. They may be omitted, modified, or more can be added depending on each institution's requirements.

Goal 1: To use English to communicate in social settings both inside and outside the university:

Standard 1: Students will use spoken and written English for personal statement, and for enjoyment and enrichment.

Standard 2: Students will use spoken and written English to participate appropriately in social interaction.

Standard 3: Students will recognize and understand cultural differences.

Standard 4: Students will use appropriate learning strategies to extend their communicative competence.

Goal 2: To use English to help achieve personal and academic goals and to promote life-long learning:

Standard 1: Students will use English to access and process information and to construct knowledge in both spoken and written forms.

Standard 2: students will use English to participate in academic contexts.

Standard 3: Students will use appropriate learning strategies to acquire, construct, and apply academic knowledge and to develop critical thinking skills.

Goal 1: To use English to communicate in social settings both inside and outside the university:

Standard 1: Students will use spoken and written English for personal statement, and for enjoyment and enrichment.

Descriptors:

1. Expressing needs, feelings, values, ideas, and opinions
2. Getting personal needs met
3. Describing, reading about, or participating in favorite activities

Sample progress indicators:

1. Describe feelings, emotions, or opinions after watching a movie or listening to a song
2. Indicate interests, opinions, or preferences related to certain topics or class projects
3. Make recommendations about a place, a film etc.

Standard 2: Students will use spoken and written English to participate appropriately in social interaction.

Descriptors:

1. Sharing information, ideas, opinions, traditions, and values
2. Requesting information and assistance
3. Expressing needs and feelings
4. Engaging in conversation through various channels (e.g., phones, face-to-face, e-mails, chats, etc.)
5. Using appropriate degree of formality in different settings

Sample progress indicators:

1. Correspond with friends on familiar topics such as family and university
2. Express opinions on contemporary issues (narrative, descriptive, explanatory and argumentative)
3. Negotiate solutions to problems, interpersonal misunderstandings, and disputes
4. Request and give information in a formal setting such as an interview or meeting
5. Defend and argue a position (argumentative and logical)
6. Discuss preferences
7. Offer and respond to greetings, compliments, invitations, introductions, and farewells
8. Make polite requests

Standard 3: Students will recognize and understand cultural differences.

Descriptors:

1. Recognizing and interpreting differences in verbal and nonverbal communication
2. Observing and modeling how others speak and behave in a particular situation or setting
3. Recognizing differences in social and cultural traditions and values
4. Recognizing differences in cultural perspectives and determining appropriate topics for interaction

Sample progress indicators:

1. Use appropriate gestures, body language and oral expressions for greetings, leave-takings, complimenting, showing gratitude, apologizing, asking for clarification, planning activities and classroom interactions

2. Identify nonverbal cues that cause misunderstanding
3. Select appropriate topics in social interactions
4. Write or talk about the similarities and differences of Thai and other cultures on a variety of issues (e.g., holidays, celebrations, work habits, play)

Standard 4: Students will use appropriate learning strategies to extend their communicative competence

Descriptors:

1. Focusing attention selectively
2. Using context to construct meaning
3. Practicing the language and exploring the alternative ways of saying things
4. Asking for clarification and seeking support and feedback from others
5. Selecting different media to help understanding language
6. Self-monitoring and self-evaluating language development

Sample progress indicators:

1. Question critically to find answers
2. Draw conclusions or inferences from contexts
3. Recite and practice language chunks or formulaic expressions in order to form language, e.g., conversation
4. Recombine practiced language, e.g., words, phrases, or structures, to convey simple messages
5. Paraphrase to ensure understanding

6. Ask peers or teachers for needed words or expressions, or for explanation and examples
7. Use a dictionary or electronic dictionary to check spelling, find the meaning, select an appropriate choice of word and idiom, and to practice pronunciation
8. Create semantic maps or diagrams to learn vocabulary or to construct meaning
9. Write a journal to record learning experience, problems and appropriate ways to solve the problems
10. Understand the meaning of nonverbal cues, such as signs and gestures, in order to comprehend listening and reading passages

Goal 2: To use English to help achieve personal and academic goals and to promote life-long learning

Standard 1: Students will use English to access and process information and to construct knowledge in both spoken and written forms.

Descriptors:

1. Gathering information from different sources
2. Retelling information
3. Selecting, connecting, presenting, explaining and interpreting information
4. Comparing and contrasting information
5. Demonstrating knowledge through application

Sample progress indicators:

1. Use educational media or related sources, e.g., books, newspapers, and the Internet to discover relevant information in order to complete a learning task

2. Summarize lectures, articles, or films in oral and written forms
3. Locate, select, and organize materials needed to complete a task
4. Define, compare, and clarify objects (e.g., according to number, shape, color, size, function, physical characteristics)
5. Describe similarities and differences in ideas and opinions
6. Construct and present a chart or other graphic showing processed data

Standard 2: Students will use English to participate in academic contexts

Descriptors:

1. Following oral and written instructions
2. Asking and answering questions
3. Requesting and providing clarification/information
4. Participating in discussion
5. Presenting information, stating ideas, justifying opinions, and explaining action

Sample progress indicators:

1. Following instructions in oral and written forms
2. Ask for clarification/information from a teacher and peers
3. Take turns in class or group discussion
4. Express opinions in class or group discussion
5. Give reasons for actions and opinions

Standard 3: Students will use appropriate learning strategies to acquire, construct, and apply academic knowledge and to develop critical thinking skills.

Descriptors:

1. Determining and establishing the conditions that help one become an effective learner
2. Focusing attention selectively
3. Hypothesizing and predicting
4. Formulating and asking questions
5. Planning how and when to use learning strategies and using them appropriately in a learning task
6. Actively connecting new information to information previously learned
7. Applying self-monitoring and self-corrective strategies to build and expand a knowledge base

Sample progress indicators:

1. Understand different purposes of reading and use appropriate reading techniques to suit the purpose (also for listening, writing, and speaking)
2. Use a variety of emphasis techniques such as underlining, starring or coding to focus on important points or information in a passage when reading
3. Use schema to help understand the story when reading and listening
4. Clarify and restate information as needed
5. Practice by repeating, rehearsing, experimenting, consciously applying rules, imitating, using wider world to enlarge exposure to English (e.g., TV, radio, the Internet) and talking to self in English
6. Transfer information into the form preferred or easier to understand and memorize for use

7. Use reference materials such as dictionaries, glossaries, thesaurus, and grammar books, to solve problems in reading, writing, pronunciation, vocabulary, etc.
8. Reflect on their language learning in class and evaluate how well they are learning and think about what could be done to improve the learning process

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