

**POSITIONING IN MULTILINGUAL CLASSROOMS:
A CASE STUDY OF THAI STUDENTS IN A BRITISH UNIVERSITY**

Thesis submitted for the degree of

Doctor of Education

in

Applied Linguistics and TESOL

at the University of Leicester

by

Singhanat Nomnian

School of Education

University of Leicester

February 2008

ABSTRACT

The rapid growth of international students in UK higher education increases linguistic diversity in academic and social contexts in a British university, and that raises issues regarding the extent to which multilingualism influences interactions and inter-relationships between tutors and international students within classroom settings. This study explores the factors affecting the ways Thai students position themselves in relation to their tutors and peers with regard to oral participation in pre-sessional EAP and postgraduate classrooms. The data were collected from seven Thai students by means of semi-structured interviews, classroom observations, and English speaking logs from July 2005-April 2006. Drawing upon Creese and Martin's (2003) *multilingual classroom ecologies*, Pavlenko and Blackledge's (2004) *identities in multilingual contexts*, this study reveals how the construction of the Thai students' identities is influenced by linguistic ideologies and power relations existing within classroom settings and the wider socio-political environment. Based on *positioning theory* (Davies and Harré, 1990; van Langenhove and Harré, 1999), the data analysis uncovers four key factors affecting Thai students' positioning in the pre-sessional classroom. These factors include tutors' teaching styles and methods, as well as their implicit expectations about student participation which significantly impact on Thai students' involvement in class and group activities. Classmates also play a crucial role with regard to Thai students' willingness to engage in class discussions which is related to their relationships and the Thai students' attitudes towards their classmates' linguistic diversity. Thai students' personal identities and agency are vital in their decisions to take up participative subject positions in order to achieve their academic goals. There is also an interplay between social interactions outside the class and Thai students' language use within the class. In MSc Marketing classrooms, there are three additional factors, including lecturers' linguistic diversity, the perception of students from other business disciplines, and the large class size, which crucially determines the extent to which Thai students want to take part in class and group discussions. This study suggests EAP tutors acknowledge the status of English as an international language to enhance international students' classroom participation. It is also vital to improve the attitudes of students and academic staff regarding social inclusion and tolerance towards international students who bring about a positive, intellectual and social climate within the British university landscape.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Abstract	i
Table of Contents	ii
List of Tables	vi
List of Figures...	vii
Glossary	viii
Acknowledgments	ix
Dedication	xi
 CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	 1
1.1 Aims and focus of the study.....	1
1.2 Contextual background to the study.....	2
1.3 Significance of the study.....	3
1.4 Theoretical and analytical backgrounds for this study.....	7
1.5 Research questions and research methodology.....	9
1.6 Organisation of the thesis.....	11
 CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW	 14
2.1 Multilingual classroom ecologies.....	15
2.2 Identities in multilingual contexts.....	27
2.1 Characteristics of identities in multilingual contexts.....	28
2.2 Typologies of identity options in multilingual contexts.....	34
2.3 Positioning theory as an analytical framework.....	36
2.3.1 ‘Positioning theory’ (Davies and Harré, 1990).....	37
2.3.2 ‘Positioning theory’ (Harré and van Langenhove, 1999).....	39
2.3.2.1 Positioning modes.....	41
2.3.2.2 Types of intentional positioning.....	43
2.4 Chapter summary	48

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	50
3.1 Interpretive/Qualitative research paradigm	50
3.2 Case study as a research method	53
3.3 Research sites	55
3.3.1 The Language Unit	56
3.3.2 The Management Centre	57
3.4 Data Collection	59
3.4.1 Semi-structured interview	59
3.4.1.1 Role of interviewer	62
3.4.2 English speaking log	63
3.4.3 Classroom observation	66
3.4.4 Methodological triangulation	71
3.5 Data analytical procedures	71
3.6 Validity and reliability of the thesis	72
3.7 Ethical issues	74
3.8 Research participants	75
3.8.1 Julie	76
3.8.2 Pinkie	76
3.8.3 Pekky	77
3.8.4 Oudy	77
3.8.5 Sharp	78
3.8.6 Pook	78
3.8.7 Petch	79
3.9 My relationship with the participants	81
3.10 Chapter summary	82
CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS FROM A PRE-SESSIONAL EAP COURSE	84
4.1 Impact of EAP tutors	85
4.1.1 Tutors' teaching styles and methods	85
4.1.2 Tutors' perceived expectations about student participation	91
4.2 Influence of classmates	95
4.2.1 Peer relationships	95

4.2.2 Classmates' linguistic diversity	100
4.3 Effects of Thai students' personal identities and agency.....	104
4.4 Role of social interactions.....	109
4.5 Chapter summary.....	112
CHAPTER 5: FINDINGS FROM MSc MARKETING PROGRAMME.....	113
5.1 Impact of lecturers.....	115
5.1.1 Lecturers' teaching styles and methods.....	115
5.1.2 Lecturers' linguistic diversity.....	119
5.2 Power relations between Thai students and overseas classmates.....	121
5.2.1 Classmates' linguistic diversity.....	122
5.2.2 Dominance of classmates from different subject disciplines.....	128
5.3 Effects of Thai students' personal identities and agency.....	132
5.4 Large class size.....	138
5.5 Chapter summary.....	144
CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY.....	147
6.1 Definitions of EIL.....	149
6.2 EIL assumptions.....	150
6.2.1 Language use in multilingual contexts.....	150
6.2.2 'Native-speaker' model.....	152
6.2.3 Learners' attitudes towards other English varieties.....	154
6.3 Teaching goals for EIL.....	157
6.3.1 Achieving mutual intelligibility.....	158
6.3.2 Developing intercultural communicative strategies.....	160
6.4 Approaches to the teaching of EIL.....	162
6.4.1 Being culturally sensitive to classroom diversity.....	162
6.4.2 Recognising learners' 'cultures of learning'.....	165
6.4.3 Raising learners' awareness of socio-cultural and political influences.....	169
6.5 Chapter summary.....	174

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS	176
7.1 Summary of the Study.....	176
7.2 The Contribution of this Study.....	179
7.2.1 Addressing the Gap in Literature.....	180
7.2.2 Pedagogical Implications for MSc Marketing Lecturers.....	181
7.2.3 Relating Social Contexts to Multilingual Classroom Ecologies.....	182
7.3 Limitations of the Study.....	183
7.3.1 The Use of Tape-Recording Equipment.....	183
7.3.2 The Ineffectiveness of English Speaking Logs.....	184
7.3.3 The Generalisability of the Study.....	185
7.4 Directions and Recommendations for Future Research.....	185
7.4.1 Exploring Wider Linguistic and Ethnic Backgrounds.....	186
7.4.2 The Attitudes of Academic Staff towards International Students.....	186
7.4.3 Investigating other Language Skills.....	187
7.4.4 Employing Linguistic Ethnography (LE) as a Research Methodology.....	187
7.5 Concluding Remarks.....	188
REFERENCES	189
Appendix 1: Interview schedule.....	205
Appendix 2: A sample transcript.....	207
Appendix 3: English speaking log (I).....	226
Appendix 4: English speaking log (II).....	227
Appendix 5: Classroom observation field note.....	228
Appendix 6: Informed consent form.....	230
Appendix 7: EAP Syllabus (Speaking and Listening Skills).....	232

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1 Overview of Top EU Senders of Overseas Students to the UK.....	2
Table 1.2 Overview of Top Non-EU Senders of Overseas Students to the UK.....	3
Table 2.1 Situations of Intentional Positioning.....	45
Table 3.1 Classroom observation schedule in the pre-sessional EAP course (July-September 2005).....	67
Table 3.2 Classroom observation schedule in the MSc Marketing programme (October 2005 – March 2006).....	68
Table 3.3 Summary of Thai Participants.....	80

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1 Mutually Determining Triad.....	41
Figure 3.1 Number of Pre-Sessional EAP Students (July-September 2005) by nationality	59
Figure 3.2 Number of MSc Marketing Students in 2005/06 by nationality.....	60
Figure 3.3 Percentage of completed English speaking logs per participant.....	66

GLOSSARY

EAP	English for Academic Purposes
EIL	English as an International Language
EU	European Union
IELTS	International English Language Testing System
MBA	Master of Business Administration
MSc Management	Master of Science in Management
MSc Marketing	Master of Science in Marketing
NNS	Non-native speakers
NS	Native speakers

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, I would like to thank my supervisor Dr Julie Norton for her critical and constructive feedback of the drafts. Her insightful and direct comments help me to rethink and reframe different aspects of this thesis. She not only has patiently witnessed my academic journey and transformations, but also tirelessly provided the expert advice, wisdom, and encouragement that have sustained and enriched my life since the beginning of my doctoral study. I am also grateful to Dr Simon Gieve and tutors in TESOL and Applied Linguistics who enable me to develop my intellectual and professional repertoire. My special thanks also go to Professor Angela Creese, my external examiner from the School of Education, the University of Birmingham, and Dr Pamela Rogerson-Revell, my internal examiner, who provided fruitful comments and suggestions to improve this thesis.

I am deeply indebted to the Thai participants, whom I have identified as Julie, Pinkie, Pekky, Pook, Oudy, Sharp, and Petch who generously shared with me their experiences and critical reflections, and thereby made this thesis possible. My heartfelt gratitude also goes to tutors and directors at the Language Unit and Management Centre who allowed me into their courses. I gratefully acknowledge Assoc.Prof. Dr Songsri Soranastaporn and Asst.Prof. Maurice Broughton, who saw my potential to undertake this doctoral degree, and the financial support of the Faculty of Science, Mahidol University, Thailand and the Royal Thai Government throughout my study.

Many of my friends and colleagues I have lived and worked with also deserve recognition because they have opened my world to linguistic and cultural diversity and life-time friendships during my time in the UK. My thanks go to Shenqiu Zhang, Zhigang Zhao, and Natsuhito Fuji from TT10 Freeman's Common; Rory Waterman, Aaron Minton, Adam Tocock, and Martin Robinson from 20 Brazil Street; Nadia Shukri, Wan Baba, Zahra Baalawi, Fatima Al-Saadi, Pramarn Subphadoongchone, Ying-Chuan Wang, Joshua Mose, Alca Dokuzoglu-Ottewell, & Blue (Yi, Jongil) from the School of Education; Ishani Chandrasekara, Dr Andrea Tsoligkas, Dr Teera Phatrapornant, Dr Supruet Thavornyuthikarn, and Dr Vee Chayakul for their encouragement.

I reserve my deepest gratitude for my parents, whose ever-lasting love and understanding have supported me during good and bad times, and will always remain with me for the rest of my life. My warmest wishes also go to my grandparents, brothers and sisters; and friends in Thailand and other parts of the world. Without them, I would not be the person I am today. Thanks ever so much!

To

Mum and Dad --- Daoruang and Narit Nomnian

I can't equal all the love you have given me...
but surely I can keep trying all my life.

This thesis is for you.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Aims and focus of the study

This study is an in-depth empirical exploration of Thai students' learning experiences with regard to their classroom and group discussions in a British university. It particularly aims to investigate a fundamental question about the factors which affect their oral participation and the impact of these factors on their positioning in relation to their classmates and their tutors in classroom interactions. The objective of this study is to understand better Thai students' language use in multilingual classroom settings and to address under-explored issues, such as, power relations and linguistic ideologies, which crucially affect their relationships and interactions with speakers of other languages in particular academic contexts.

This study includes seven Thai students, five females and two males, aged 22-26 from diverse academic backgrounds and with varying amounts of work experience, who are required to take a pre-session English for Academic Purposes (EAP) course prior to enrolling on an MSc Marketing programme. The pre-session course is provided by the Language Unit for international students whose IELTS (International English Language Testing System) score is less than 6, and thus they are expected to improve their English language proficiency and acquire study skills to meet the academic demands of postgraduate programmes. Having successfully completed the pre-session course in September 2005, the Thai students enrolled on an MSc Marketing programme offered by the Management Centre from October 2005-September 2006. This study, however, focuses only on their classroom experience during two semesters from October-December 2005 and January-March 2006. It should also be noted that some Thai students who enrol on this postgraduate programme without taking the pre-session course, as their IELTS score is higher than 6, are not included in the data sample of this study because they do not enable us to investigate and make any links regarding their classroom behaviours between these two respective classroom settings. Accordingly, a distinctive quality of this study is its ability to reveal progressively different personal struggles, changes, and transformations over an extended timescale, and establish the unique trajectory from the EAP to the mainstream classroom of Thai students' experiences in a British university.

1.2 Contextual background to the study

British universities have in recent times faced the economic pressure to maintain income levels due to the falling number of British students, and thus many of them increasingly recruit international students for income generation (Bamford *et al.*, 2002). Consequently, the number of international students in UK higher education has dramatically increased not only in figures, but also in the range of their countries of origin (Gill, 2007; Trahar, 2007, Turner, 2006). The terms ‘international students’ and ‘overseas students’ in this study are defined, according to Ryan and Carroll (2005, p.3), as:

students who have chosen to travel to another country for tertiary study. They may or may not have attended some secondary or preparatory education in the country they have selected for higher education but most of their previous experience will have been of other educational systems, in cultural contexts and sometimes in a language that is different (or very different) from the one in which they will now study.

The definition of these terms enables us to recognise the presence of both EU and non-EU students in a British university and the terms will be used interchangeably throughout this study. Tables 1.1 and 1.2 below illustrate a clear scale of top EU and non-EU students in the UK according to their countries of origin respectively:

Table 1.1 Overview of top EU senders of overseas students in the UK

Top EU senders	2005/06	2004/05	% change
Greece	17,675	19,685	-10%
Republic of Ireland	16,790	16,345	3%
Germany	13,265	12,555	6%
France	12,455	11,685	7%
Cyprus	7,205	5,675	27%
Spain	6,225	6,000	4%
Italy	5,460	5,315	3%
Poland	4,325	2,185	98%

(Source: UK Council for International Students Affairs, 2007)

Table 1.2 Overview of top non-EU senders of overseas students in the UK

Top 10 non-EU senders	2005/06	2004/05	% change
China (PRC)	50,755	52,675	-4%
India	19,205	16,685	15%
USA	14,755	14,385	3%
Malaysia	11,450	11,475	0%
Nigeria	9,605	8,145	18%
Hong Kong	9,445	10,780	-12%
Pakistan	7,940	6,545	21%
Japan	6,200	6,180	0%
Taiwan	6,180	5,880	5%
Canada	4,640	4,190	11%

(Source: UK Council for International Students Affairs, 2007)

The tables above show the rapid growth of EU and non-EU students in UK higher education which has directly resulted in the rise of linguistic and cultural diversity in British universities. In this study, overseas students in the pre-session course are mainly from non-EU countries, especially China as the majority, Taiwan, Japan, Hong Kong, Pakistan, and Thailand. In the MSc Marketing programme, despite the majority of Chinese students, there is an increase in the number of students from EU countries, such as, Greece, Cyprus, and Italy, with additional students from non-EU countries, such as, Nigeria and Malaysia. Although Thai students are among the linguistic minority groups, their presence contributes to the multilingual and multicultural spaces for all parties within the British university setting.

1.3 Significance of the study

According to Russel (2005), the presence of international students in classrooms and campuses forms an essential part of academic and social communities within universities, and that calls for all parties, such as, academic and administrative staff as well as home students, to re-examine their attitudes towards international students in a more positive light. De Vita (2005) argues that higher education fails to promote genuine internationalism and foster intercultural learning (p.75). International students are thus likely to encounter a lack of integration within group work, and that can also lead to social isolation (Russell, 2005). As a result, scholars and researchers interested

in the field of higher education have started to pay more attention to this group of students in UK higher education.

There are a number of studies regarding international students in different Anglophone universities: Japanese and Chinese students in Canadian universities (see Morita, 2004; and Raymond and Parks, 2004, respectively); Turkish students in an American university (Tatar, 2005), international postgraduate students in Australian universities (see Cadman, 2000; Koehne, 2005). Although these studies explore relevant issues that international students encounter related to learners' academic expectations and performance, their linguistic competence, and cultural adjustments in Western academic and social communities, it is important to note that this study is based on UK higher education which has its own academic conventions and practices, and these may vary from those in other Anglophone universities. Todd (1997) claims that 'there will be differences in the cultures of these universities and students which may limit the extent to which such research can be applied to the UK context' (p.173). Rao (2005) also mentions that British educational culture expects students to develop independence and individuality, values self-expression and originality, promotes students' active participation in their learning process, encourages students to engage in seminars and group discussion, and allows them to openly disagree with academic staff and share their own ideas (p.161). As a result, this chapter will mainly review and focus on studies regarding international students in UK higher education, which are relevant to the discussion in this study.

Some previous studies of international students in British university contexts view students in a rather stereotypical and generalised way based on rigid cultural and national attributions. The earliest study of Thai students in UK higher education was undertaken by Hawkey and Nakornchai (1980) who provide a cultural profile based on Thai students' learning styles, which are said to involve large, group-oriented, book-oriented, teacher-dependent, rote learning, with students who are passive and concerned with face-saving, and this is presented as a useful guideline for understanding their behaviours during their UK studies. Similarly, Cortazzi and Jin (1997) offer the following description of Chinese students and their British tutors: students view their tutors in *authority* and *expert* roles and perceive themselves as *apprentices*; teachers, on the other hand, see themselves as *facilitators*, *organisers*,

and *critical friends* and expect students to be *independent learners* and *active participants* (p.85). In addition to reporting a rather essentialised relationship between international students and their tutors, the relationships between international students and British students have also been generalised. Ryan (2000) claims that international students find home students *self-centred*, *overly-competitive*, and *discriminatory*, while British students perceive international students as *under-confident* and *overly-quiet* (p.7). Turner (2006) develops the archetypes of Chinese and British students: Chinese students are perceived to be *passive-receptive* learners who listen to the teacher and do not question accepted ‘norms’ and ideas in the classroom; whereas their British counterparts are *active* learners who ask lots of questions, participate vocally in class, and take a critical stance on knowledge and learning (p.38).

These aforementioned studies, however, portray international students as problematic and present a deficit model based on static, monolithic, and stereotypical views, which do not provide us with detailed and useful understandings of the ways in which particular learners could develop over time. There is a need to shift from the ‘deficit model’ to the ‘dynamic model’ of international students who not only take responsibility and create positive learning experience for themselves, but also provide additional and valuable resources for intercultural understanding for all parties involved in the British university landscape, and thus the following studies are considered helpful to alleviate these misconceptions prevalent in certain literature regarding international students’ characteristics. Etherington (2006), for example, investigates a learning trajectory of a Japanese student from a pre-sessional course to PhD study, and that illustrates how the student’s view towards his language learning and language use changes from English as an exam subject to English for socialisation with other overseas students and for personal enjoyment. Gill (2007) points to a ‘stress-adaptation-growth’ stage which Chinese postgraduate students have to undergo during their academic year in a British university, and thus shows how they transform their understanding of the learning experience, adjust themselves to British social and academic expectations, and develop intercultural competence through meaning making and engaging in socio-cultural and academic practices interactively and relationally (p.171). Gill’s (2007) study suggests that overseas students have the ability to adapt to learning according to the British academic system if they are provided with a facilitative learning environment, sympathetic attitudes,

tutor support, and intercultural contact, and can thus become successful in British higher education (p.180). Similarly, Trahar (2007) believes that it is important to be explicit about the diversity in classrooms and acknowledge difficulties and frustrations all parties encounter, and claims that everyone should be encouraged to create conversations about their differences and similarities that can promote sensitive learning and teaching in multicultural British higher education (p.24).

It is interesting to note that although these recent studies aim to promote diversity in British higher education, the scope of diversity seems to be limited to students' cultural diversity and sensitivity without much emphasis on the linguistic diversity that vitally impacts on and shapes classroom teaching and learning. Ippolito (2007), for example, argues that although intercultural awareness raising and reflective practice fosters intercultural learning, there is a complex interplay between power relations and the interconnectedness of home and international students' classroom experience regarding linguistic inequalities and misunderstandings of classroom contribution, and thus many home students are keen to judge international students negatively. As a result, international students have been marginalised by group members who advise them not to take part in delivering the oral presentation in order to avoid getting a bad grade, and that calls for appropriate intervention to alleviate this inequality of opportunity by explicitly requiring all students to present as part of assessment criteria (Ippolito, 2007, p.760). Ippolito's (2007) study suggests that linguistic inequalities and negative attitudes towards international students' spoken English can undermine and distort classroom practices, and that implies there are more serious and under-explored issues stemming from perceptions of international students' language use and existing power relations in classroom interaction in British universities.

We can see that there has been very little research examining bi- or multilingual students in linguistically diverse classrooms in UK higher education. Classroom communication needs to be re-examined in the light of their language use in multilingual classroom settings, and that requires us to develop a comprehensive theoretical and analytical framework for scrutinising their views on classroom participation which are underpinned by a whole host of issues that have long existed, although some of which have never been brought to our attention. To my knowledge,

this is the first time the issue of Thai students' language use in linguistically diverse classrooms in a British university has been brought to the forefront, and that can vitally contribute to furthering critical perspectives in applied linguistic and TESOL research. The following sections will provide theoretical, analytical and methodological background information for this study, which is useful to understand the process of how the context-based, empirical investigation was carried out.

1.4 Theoretical and analytical backgrounds for this study

The theoretical framework for this study draws upon Creese and Martin's (2003) *multilingual classroom ecologies* and Pavlenko and Blackledge's (2004) *identities in multilingual contexts* because both concepts offer critical and systematic views and insights to unravel and make explicit certain issues, such as, power relations, linguistic ideologies and linguistic legitimacy, which influence individuals' positioning in multilingual classroom settings. Due to the increased multilingualism in British university classroom settings, Creese and Martin's (2003) concept of multilingual classroom ecologies is a valuable framework for this study because it exposes existing linguistic ideologies and power relations implicated in linguistic legitimacy and language users' attitudes towards a particular language used in classroom settings, and these insights can help to foster linguistic and cultural diversity and promote equality for speakers of different languages. The concept of *multilingual classroom ecologies* is initially derived from Haugen's (1972) *ecology of language* examining the 'psychological aspect' with reference to the minds of bi- and multilingual speakers interacting with interlocutors of different languages; and the 'sociological aspect' referring to a certain language used as a medium of communication in a particular society (p.325). The psychological and sociological aspects of language use thus raise the issues of 'linguistic ideologies' and 'linguistic legitimacy' which impact on Thai students' attitudes towards their own and others' spoken English. Blackledge (2008) defines 'language ideologies' as the values, practices, and beliefs associated with language use, which are subject to and influenced by socio-political interests (p.30). According to Martin-Jones and Heller (1996), a 'legitimate' language derives from the social construction of language values and practices, and thus it is related to unequal power relations situated within multilingual educational practices, which can adversely lead to inequality among

‘illegitimate’ speakers. In this study, multilingual classroom settings are thus viewed as sites of struggle where Thai students have to overcome imbalanced power relations and claim their right to linguistic legitimacy.

To scrutinise how Thai students position themselves as ‘legitimate’ speakers in multilingual classroom settings, it is crucial to understand how language users’ identities in multilingual contexts are constructed and negotiated, and that can be explained by Pavlenko and Blackledge’s (2004) framework. They claim that, in multilingual contexts, there is a conflict between linguistic ideologies and identities in terms of the language choice and its varieties influenced by particular groups of people in certain contexts. Language choice and attitudes are, therefore, associated with political arrangements, power relations, language ideologies, and interlocutors’ perceptions of their own and others’ identities (Pavlenko and Blackledge, 2004, p.1). In other words, the way Thai students speak could represent what ‘types’ of person they are, and that not only depends upon what ‘types’ of persons their interlocutors are, but is also determined by the implicit variables including power relations and linguistic ideologies, existing at a particular time and in a particular location.

Pavlenko and Blackledge’s (2004) framework consists of characteristics of identities and typologies of identity options. Identity characteristics include firstly, the interplay between linguistic ideologies and individuals’ use of linguistic resources to indicate their identities; secondly, the fact that these identities are embedded within local and global power relations; thirdly, that identities can be multiple, fragmented, and hybridised due to the influence of different variables, such as, age, gender, ethnicity, social status; fourthly, that identities can involve a process of imagination to create new identities; and finally, that identities can be represented through individuals’ narratives (Pavlenko and Blackledge, 2004, p.14-19). Identity characteristics in multilingual contexts are useful for this study because they suggest a variety of factors that can impact on identity construction in multilingual contexts.

To explore how language users’ identities are constructed and negotiated in multilingual settings, Pavlenko and Blackledge (2004) employ ‘positioning theory’ (Davies and Harré, 1990; Harré and van Langenhove, 1999). As a result, they suggest three typologies of identity options: *imposed*, *assumed*, and *negotiable*, and these

identity options taken up by each individual have a significant impact on positioning in particular sociohistorical circumstances (Pavlenko and Blackledge, 2004, p.21). These identity characteristics and typologies illustrate complex and sophisticated views of identity construction and negotiation that are relevant for this study because they offer multiple and critical interpretations of Thai students' positioning during particular interactive events in British university classrooms.

In line with Pavlenko and Blackledge's (2004) analytical perspectives, the analytical framework for this study is based on 'positioning theory' (Davies and Harré, 1990; Harré and van Langenhove, 1999) because it can disentangle different subject positions which Thai students assume while interacting with their tutors and classmates. Introducing the notion of 'position' to replace the static view of 'role', Davies and Harré (1990) distinguish two types of positioning: *interactive positioning* and *reflexive positioning*. The former suggests that speakers position others whereas the latter assumes speakers position themselves (p.48). Harré and van Langenhove (1999), however, extend Davies and Harré's (1990) earlier work by suggesting various modes of positioning and types of intentional positioning: *deliberate* or *forced self/other positioning*, and this offers a more elaborate analytical lens for this study.

1.5 Research questions and research methodology

This study adopts an interpretive/qualitative approach to investigate seven Thai students' participation in multilingual classroom settings in a British university. The overarching research questions which guide this study are:

1. What factors impact on the ways Thai students position themselves in relation to their tutors and peers during classroom participation in a pre-sessional EAP course?
2. What factors impact on the ways Thai students position themselves in relation to their tutors and peers during classroom participation in an MSc Marketing programme?

These questions aim to uncover Thai students' classroom behaviours and explore Thai students' relationships with their tutors and their classmates; discover how different classroom settings and disciplines (i.e. a pre-sessional course and MSc Marketing) affect Thai students' participation; examine how they view their own and others' spoken English; reveal in what circumstances they decide to engage or withdraw from classroom participation; consider how classroom size and the number of students impact on their confidence to speak; and investigate what difficulties they face inside and outside the classroom, and how they overcome such difficulties; explore what opportunities they have for language contact, and how they can benefit from such opportunities to improve their speaking competence and confidence, and suggest how language teachers can help international students improve their classroom participation. These aspects of classroom and social interactions are complex and require a systematic approach to investigate them.

This study employs case study as a research method using a series of semi-structured interviews as a main research tool, supplemented by English speaking logs and classroom observations. This approach enabled me to develop a gradual understanding of the complex relationships and interactions Thai students had with their tutors and classmates in pre-sessional EAP and MSc Marketing classroom settings. The close relationships I share with my Thai participants crucially facilitated the research process and data collection as they were willing to express their views and feelings concerning their classroom and life experiences in the UK. The interviews were tape-recorded, transcribed, and translated from Thai to English, and the transcripts were then returned to the Thai students for verification to enhance the validity and reliability of the study. Data analysis was inductive since categories and themes emerged mainly from the Thai students' interview transcripts, and thus key factors related to each student were identified and compared across the students to summarise the common themes from the seven students and establish the basis of the findings for this study. Although this study does not aim to be generalisable, it could be a useful starting point for future research on Thai students' classroom behaviours and experiences in UK higher education. The following section briefly discusses the findings and addresses the pedagogical implications of this study

1.6 Organisation of the thesis

This thesis is divided into seven chapters. Chapter one outlines the overall structure of this study by establishing the focus and aim of this study, describing the contextual background to the study, explaining the significance of the study, discussing the theoretical and analytical backgrounds for this study, stating research questions and explaining methodology, and presenting a summary of the findings and pedagogical implications. Chapter two discusses the theoretical and analytical frameworks of the thesis. It firstly focuses on the theoretical frameworks of *multilingual classroom ecologies* (Creese and Martin, 2003) and *identities in multilingual contexts* (Pavlenko and Blackledge, 2004), which are used to provide a critical understanding of how multilingual classroom environments vitally impact on Thai students' construction and negotiation of their identities. Following this, the analytical framework of the study, *positioning theory* (Davies and Harré, 1990; and Harré and van Langenhove, 1999), is presented and is used to reveal how Thai students position themselves when interacting with their tutors and classmates in multilingual classroom settings.

Chapter three describes the research methodology of the study. Following the description of the interpretive/qualitative research paradigm employed in this study, case study as a research approach is discussed. Research settings are then described. Data collection tools, including semi-structured interviews, classroom observations, and English speaking logs, and the approach taken to data analysis are also scrutinised. The validity and reliability of the study are explained with regard to transcription procedures, the interpretation of the data, and the generalisability of the findings. Seven Thai research participants are introduced in terms of their respective biographies, educational backgrounds, goals and expectations about studying in a British university. The chapter ends by addressing the relationship between my participants and I in relation to a discussion of research ethics, and suggests how this relationship and collaboration is crucial for the accomplishment of this study's goals.

Chapter four presents four main findings by identifying factors contributing to Thai students' positioning in the pre-sessional EAP course. Firstly, EAP tutors impact on Thai students' engagement in two ways: firstly, supportive teaching styles and methods promote learners' involvement, whereas critical ones can demoralise and

suppress learners' participation; and secondly, EAP tutors' perceived expectations about student classroom participation also enhance Thai students' involvement in lessons and activities. The second factor, the impact of classmates, includes peer relationships and classmates' linguistic diversity. Friendly and supportive peer relationships increase Thai students' confidence and willingness to participate but patronising ones are likely to discourage this. Classmates' linguistic diversity is valued differently, and thus Thai students' positive attitudes towards linguistic diversity and other varieties of English increase communication whereas negative ones prohibit them from interacting with speakers of 'non-standard' varieties of English. The third factor, the exertion of Thai students' personal identities and agency on their involvement in class and group activities, reveals how Thai students attempt to accommodate to their new learning environments and expect to gain relevant academic and linguistic skills for their postgraduate study. The final finding concerns the effect of social interactions on the improvement of Thai students' confidence to speak in class and awareness of different English varieties spoken outside the language classrooms.

Chapter five presents four key factors with regard to participation in the MSc Marketing programme. Although there are similar factors, such as, the role of lecturers' teaching styles and methods; classmates' linguistic diversity, and Thai students' personal identities and agency, there are three additional factors that affect Thai students' positioning. Firstly, lecturers' linguistic diversity is not equally valued by all Thai students as some desire to study with 'native-speaker' lecturers rather than the 'non-native' ones. Secondly, the dominance of students from other subject disciplines, such as, MBA and MSc Management, discourage Thai students from participating. Lastly, the large class size results in various serious issues, especially Thai students' anxiety and fear of speaking up because they are afraid of causing confusion and misunderstanding as their Thai accent might not be intelligible. The findings from these two chapters calls for appropriate language pedagogy to re-educate Thai students about their views on 'standard' and 'non-standard' English varieties and the use and function of English as an International Language (EIL) in multilingual classroom contexts.

In Chapter six, drawing upon the findings from the pre-sessional EAP course and MSc Marketing programme, we can see that one of the main obstacles that Thai students encounter is their misconception regarding their ‘non-standard’ or ‘non-native’ spoken English, which has not been appropriately addressed and demystified by their EAP tutors. McKay’s (2002) comprehensive theory of EIL teaching in multilingual contexts is discussed to show how to create better understanding among international students. This approach could also empower them, give them confidence about their spoken English, broaden Thai students’ perceptions towards linguistic diversity and enable them to claim their right of being speakers of EIL in a British university.

Chapter seven firstly draws together the threads of this study by summarising its main findings. Section two addresses key contributions of this study, which are, viewing Thai students’ classroom experiences through a ‘dynamic’ lens, recognising linguistic diversity in British university classroom settings; fostering Thai students’ classroom participation with more updated and practical teaching materials; and considering the influence of social contexts on Thai students’ language use in EAP classroom ecologies. Limitations of the study are addressed in section three. Directions and recommendations for future research are then considered with reference to conducting further studies including students from wider linguistic and ethnic backgrounds, examining academic staff’s attitudes towards international students, scrutinising other language skills, and using ‘Linguistic Ethnography’ (LE) as a research methodology. The last section raises ethical concerns regarding British higher education’s responsibility for international students who deserve to be treated equally to create a more tolerant and inclusive British university.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter discusses the theoretical and analytical frameworks of this study and examines the factors affecting Thai students' positioning in classroom settings in a British university. The theoretical framework draws upon two crucial concepts, namely, Creese and Martin's (2003) *multilingual classroom ecologies* and Pavlenko and Blackledge's (2004) *identities in multilingual contexts*. Creese and Martin's (2003) *multilingual classroom ecological approach* makes visible the implicit impact of power relations, linguistic ideologies, and linguistic legitimacy on interrelationships and interactions between speakers of different languages in particular multilingual classroom settings. This transparency can reveal which particular languages or which varieties of languages are valued or 'legitimised' by particular individuals or groups, and suggests that speakers in multilingual classroom environments should be examined in relation to both local and wider geographical, socio-political and cultural circumstances (Creese and Martin, 2003). Creese and Martin's multilingual classroom ecological approach is relevant for the classroom contexts of this study because of the number of international students who contribute to the linguistic diversity in EAP and MSc Marketing classroom settings.

Thai students, as linguistic minority speakers in a British university, construct and negotiate their identities differently in multilingual classroom contexts, which can be considered sites of struggle where Thai students must claim their participation rights. Pavlenko and Blackledge's (2004) framework is helpful to examine various variables that contribute to the construction and negotiation of language users' identities in multilingual contexts. Pavlenko and Blackledge's (2004) framework consists of identity characteristics and identity typologies. Characteristics of identities in multilingual settings can be divided into five aspects: firstly, identities are situated within particular discourses and linguistic ideologies; secondly, they are embedded within local and global power relations; thirdly, they are multiple, fragmented, and hybridised; fourthly, they are related to individuals' imagination which constructs 'new identities'; and finally, they are manifest within personal narratives (Pavlenko and Blackledge, 2004, p.14).

Identity characteristics reveal factors that influence identity construction in multilingual settings. To analyse how individuals construct and negotiate their identities in multilingual settings, Pavlenko and Blackledge (2004, p.20) employ ‘positioning theory’ (Davies and Harré, 1990; Harré and van Langenhove, 1999), and thus they offer an analytical framework of identity typologies: *imposed identities*, *assumed identities*, and *negotiable identities*. These identity typologies are relevant for this study because they offer critical discussion to scrutinise how and under what conditions identities can be constructed, appreciated, imposed, resisted, and negotiated, and that allows particular ‘identity positions’ and ‘acts of positioning’ to be uncovered.

Consequently, in accordance with Pavlenko and Blackledge’s (2004) analytical perspectives, ‘positioning theory’ is adopted as the analytical framework of this study because it allows a wide range of positioning acts of Thai students in multilingual classrooms to become visible and meaningful, and enables us to understand different factors that influence their identity positions. These theoretical and analytical frameworks provide a strong foundation which results in greater critical understanding of Thai students’ positioning in multilingual classroom contexts.

This chapter is divided into three main sections. The first section discusses Creese and Martin’s (2003) multilingual classroom ecological approach, drawing upon its original conception by Haugen (1972). Section two examines Pavlenko and Blackledge’s (2004) work with regard to the aforementioned characteristics and typologies of identities in multilingual settings. The last section focuses on ‘positioning theory’, dealing with Davies and Harré’s (1990) initial concept of ‘positioning theory’; and its development by Harré and van Langenhove (1999), which is a useful tool to analyse Thai students’ interview transcripts and establish their ‘positioning’ with regard to their classroom participation in this study.

2.1 Multilingual classroom ecologies

According to Creese and Martin (2003), it is significant to explore the ecological minutiae of interactional practices within multilingual classroom environments when considering interactions between speakers and their languages and the inter-

relationships between these speakers and their environments. The concept of multilingual classroom ecologies is originally based on Haugen's (1972) '*ecology of language*' which will be explained first and then followed by a discussion of Creese and Martin's (2003) interpretation of '*multilingual classroom ecologies*' in order to establish a theoretical foundation for this study.

Haugen (1972) defines '*ecology of language*' as 'the study of interactions between any given language and its environment,...[t]he true environment of a language is the society that uses it as one of its codes. Language exists only in the minds of its users, and it only functions in relating these users to one another and to nature, i.e. their social and natural environment' (p.325). Haugen explains that linguistic ecology consists of 'psychological' and 'sociological' aspects, which are defined as follows: the 'psychological aspect' refers to the minds of bi- and multilingual speakers who interact with speakers of other languages; and the 'sociological aspect' refers to a society that uses a particular language as a medium of communication (p.325). Haugen (1972) emphasises the significant impact of people who learn, use, and transmit the given language to others in society because they primarily determine the ecology of that language. The notion of '*ecology of language*' aims at understanding the interactions of languages and their users as well as raising awareness of what the role of 'small' languages will be or should be, and how they can be made 'better', 'richer', and more 'fruitful' for mankind (Haugen, 1972, p.329). This is explained further below.

The concept of '*ecology of language*', therefore, enables us to recognise the interrelationship between speakers of any languages, their interlocutors, and the context in which these speakers reside. Although Haugen's definition concerns the use of a particular language in society, the expression, 'one of its codes' (p.325), suggests linguistic diversity may exist in that context. Due to the crucial role of language users in a particular ecology, this concept is useful when considering how Thai students and significant others, such as, tutors and other students, interact and participate with each other in classrooms in a British university where English is used as a medium of instruction and communication. The psychological aspect for Thai students can be associated with the comparison between their language use and that of other students, which reflects how they position themselves and others, and vice

versa. Classroom contexts illustrate the importance of the sociological aspects which impact on the attitudes of Thai students regarding which language should be used, because there are more languages than English spoken, such as, Chinese, Greek, Italian, and Thai, in the respective classrooms due to the large number of international students. Although international students' first languages can be considered as 'small' languages in British higher education, they play a significant role in classroom interactions because these bi- and multilingual students use them for different functions, such as, asking friends to clarify business terminology or making jokes, which can reveal how 'status' and 'intimacy', terms which are discussed in the next section, between students and teachers impact on classroom communication.

Haugen (1972, p.329) notes that there are two independent factors, namely, *status* and *intimacy* within any social environment. *Status*, it is claimed, is associated with power and influence in the social group and is categorised into plus and minus status varieties. Haugen (1972) explains this further by stating that a plus status variety is formally imposed by authoritative bodies, such as, governments and schools whereas a minus status variety is particularly used in informal, interactive situations. According to Haugen (1972), an individual can shift from a minus status to plus status variety by switching from a 'local' dialect used at home to a 'standard' dialect spoken in classrooms in order to comply with the particular school system. *Intimacy* is explained as follows: it refers to the sense of association, solidarity, shared values, friendship, and love, which are commonly established in family and group life. High intimacy can be seen in certain behaviours accepted between interlocutors, which may be misunderstood and rejected by strangers who have low intimacy (Haugen, 1972, p. 329). This leads Haugen (1972) to claim that language varieties can be segmented along this continuum of high and low intimacies as well as plus and minus status varieties. Status and intimacy can also be overlapping because status differences can exist among intimates and vice versa (Haugen, 1972).

Speakers should, therefore, be versatile to ensure they employ appropriate linguistic codes in any situated, interactional contexts in order to be accepted within particular social groupings due to the impact of status and intimacy on language use. Communication in classrooms can be a good example of how status and intimacy are exploited in practice and these factors are relevant in this study of how Thai students

relate to their situated environments. Thai students, for example, speak formally to tutors who hold plus status variety but have low intimacy, and make jokes with their Thai classmates who have minus status variety but high intimacy. Classroom interactions portray shifting and dynamic interrelationships between teachers and Thai students since there are power relations involved. Thai students can, however, be seen as less powerful since they need to comply with teachers who are considered authority figures in the classrooms.

Haugen (1972, p.334) also points out the importance of knowing how bilingual speakers use particular languages and under what circumstances because it illustrates the dominance and sub-ordinance of linguistic contact between speech communities. According to Hymes (1986), 'speech community' is defined as 'a community sharing rules for the conduct and interpretation of speech, and rules for the interpretation of at least one linguistic variety' (p.54), which put simply means a group of people who recognise their language use as different from other language users. Gumperz (1986, p.16), however, argues that although members of the same speech community neither need to speak the same language nor use the same linguistic forms on similar occasions, there must be at least one common language and its shared rules governing communicative strategies so that members can decode the social meanings. Haugen (1972) states that each speech community, which is exemplified as speech community A and speech community B in his work, can be relational and changeable from monolingual A to bilingual Ab, which can be further classified into three types, namely, *supplementary* Ab (A dominant and B subordinate), *complementary* AB (A and B are equal), or *replacive* aB (A subordinate and B dominant) depending on varying purposes of communication and interlocutors. As a result, code mixing and code switching can potentially emerge. According to Sridha (1996), code mixing, on the one hand, is the switching of languages within sentences, which involves several issues related to grammar regarding the types of morphemes, words, or phrases that can be mixed. Code switching, on the other hand, happens when speakers frequently switch from one language to another, and this is classified as *situational* or *metaphorical*. The former happens when a speaker responds to a change in different situations, such as, a new person enters the scene, or there is a change in topic of conversation or setting; whereas the latter takes place when a speaker wants to signal a quotation, mark emphasis, make a joke, or change in tone (Sridha, 1996, p.56).

According to bilingual and multilingual perspectives, Martin *et al.* (2006) note that code switching and code mixing are normal aspects of interaction and considered important for expressing ‘different’ or hybrid identities (p.20).

Code switching and code mixing are reflected in the use of Thai and English in the multilingual classrooms investigated in this study. Situational code switching takes place among Thai students who speak English with Chinese and Greek group members when discussing a business case study, while metaphorical code switching happens when they make jokes with other Thai friends. Some Thai students may experience code mixing when trying to get the message across by having a ‘slip of the tongue’ and incorporating some Thai words in their English conversations or using English marketing terms when expressing their business ideas in Thai. These phenomena suggest the dynamic and active nature of the multilingual classrooms that requires Thai students to be responsive and sensitive to the way they speak with regard to different interlocutors, topics of conversation, and settings. Without recognising these issues, Thai students not only risk ineffective communication but may also unintentionally marginalise or isolate their classmates.

Haugen (1972) suggests that the analysis of language ecology, therefore, considers not only how one describes the social and psychological situations of each language, but also the impact of these situations on the language itself (p.334). Haugen (1972, p.335) claims that languages should be viewed as more sophisticated models than rigid and monolithic linguistic structures. Sridha (1996) notes that it is rather uncommon to gain native-like command of all the languages in multilingual contexts because there are differences in competence in the various languages, such as, lexical items, formulaic expressions, registers and styles. It is, therefore, advisable for Thai students to pay more attention to achieving communicative understanding rather than to aim to achieve native-like competence.

Haugen (1972, p.336-337) provides a list of ten questions related to linguistic ecology that can guide researchers to analyse the relationship between language users and languages in a particular society:

- 1) What is its classification in relation to other languages?
- 2) Who are its users?

- 3) What are its domains of use?
- 4) What concurrent languages are employed by its users?
- 5) What internal varieties does the language show?
- 6) What is the nature of its written traditions?
- 7) To what degree has its written form been standardised?
- 8) What kind of institutional support has it won?
- 9) What are the attitudes of its users towards the language?
- 10) What is the status of a particular language in relation to other languages which exist in the world?

These questions offer a useful guide which can be applied in this study. For example, the question, '*what is the status of a particular language in relation to other languages which exist in the world?*' is relevant as the status of English has become dominant, particularly in higher education (Phillipson, 2006). English has recently been used as a medium of instruction in European higher education, which shows its growing dominance as an international language (Coleman, 2006). Probyn (2008) claims that the adoption of English as the language of education suggests 'the very real power of English as a language of access to the centres of power, economically, politically and socially' (p.218). It is, therefore, hardly surprising that the Thai students in this study who expect to improve their English skills on entry to the course, believe this will provide them with more options for high profile careers in international business organisations with the possibility of upward mobility due to their language skills and degree from a UK university. Blackledge (2008) comments that linguistic minority speakers are likely to accept rather than challenge the majority language in the hegemonic situation because they can gain access to social mobility.

Haugen's (1972) linguistic ecological approach has been influential and has been employed in a number of studies related to language change, language contact, the promotion of linguistic diversity, language maintenance and survival, language policy and planning. Hornberger (2003), for example, finds the metaphor of linguistic ecology useful because it views languages as follows, 'firstly, to live and evolve in an eco-system along with other languages (*language evolution*); secondly, to interact with their socio-political, economic, and cultural environments (*language environment*); and thirdly, to become endangered if there is an inadequate

environmental support for them vis-à-vis other languages in the eco-system (*language endangerment*)’ (p.323). Hornberger (2003) claims that educational policy and practice ignores the existence of linguistic and cultural diversity and learners’ identities in classrooms, and urges multilingual educational policies to ‘open up a space where minority, vernacular, contextualised contents and identities can be introduced and a range of media – including dissimilar, divergent, non-standard varieties as well as visual and other communicative modes – can be employed simultaneously in instruction’ (p.330).

Creese and Martin (2003) employ Haugen’s (1972) linguistic ecological approach to scrutinise inter-relationships and interactions in multilingual settings between individuals and their languages, and across individuals, underpinned by situated and ideological, cultural and political histories (p.1). This concept of ‘multilingual classroom ecologies’ is useful in this study because it helps to examine particular classroom environments where linguistic diversity exists, and how that can affect relationships and interactions between these Thai students and other language users in British university classrooms. Therefore, in the following section, I discuss this concept in more detail.

Creese and Martin (2003) state that the linguistic ecological approach not only investigates relationships of languages, their speakers and society in which these speakers of given languages exist, but also acknowledges particular geographical, socio-cultural and economic circumstances, and the wider linguistic environment (p.1). By linking language use and practices in multilingual classroom environments to wider socio-political issues, Creese and Martin (2003) note that it is important to acknowledge ideology as a concern of language ecology. Woolard (1998) defines ideologies as ideas, beliefs, values, or practices leading to the struggle to acquire or maintain power, which is always the tool, property, or practice of dominant social groups. Consequently, the powerful ‘others’ have the control to oppress those with less power and access, and thus language reflects the ‘truth’ of the more dominant group and hides the ‘truth’ of the less dominant group, which could be done through political power in the forms of laws, speeches, and debates (Wareing, 1999). Ideologies can include political, economic, and linguistic concerns, but it seems crucial for this study to focus on ‘linguistic ideology’, which is defined by Blackledge

(2008), as the values, practices and beliefs of speakers about language use (p.29). Godley *et al.* (2007) argue that linguistic ideologies are not explicitly expressed by teachers or students, but rather implicitly demonstrated through patterns of classroom participation, specific word choices, or teachers' reactions to particular students (p.104). Creese and Martin's (2003) approach is, therefore, relevant for this study as it not only investigates the relationships between speakers of different languages, but also uncovers ideologies that underpin a particular language which is commonly used and considered more 'legitimate' than other languages existing in a certain multilingual classroom (p.4).

According to Martin-Jones and Heller (1996), a 'legitimate' language is viewed as the social construction of language values and practices, which occur in the institutional and interactional contexts, and particularly in multilingual educational settings. Heller and Martin-Jones (2001) further explain that the concept of 'legitimate' language concerns 'what ways of using language, what kinds of language practices, are valued and considered good, normal, appropriate, or correct in the framework of ideological orientations connected to social, economic, and political interests' (p.2). To problematise the legitimacy of English in classroom contexts in this study, it is important to consider the impact of language ideology. The way English and its varieties are perceived as 'legitimate' by Thai students in multilingual classroom settings must be carefully evaluated since the value attached to English may be influenced by the ideologies of certain powerful groups, such as the Language Unit, postgraduate departments, the University policy makers or the British government. Blackledge (2008) notes that 'linguistic ideologies' are influenced by changes at institutional, national, and global levels (p.30). Edwards (1985) claims that schools in Canada have implicitly been supporters of 'proper' language through eradicating 'sub-standard' forms and promoting 'standard' dialects spoken and accepted by the dominant mainstream (p.132). Harris *et al.* (2002) also comment that if English education policy on 'standard' English continues to treat vernacular Englishes spoken by immigrant students in Britain as phenomena to be eradicated and avoided, it is likely to cause students to feel intimidated and to engender resistance (p.45). 'Standard' English in Britain is associated with spoken 'correct English', which is also known as 'Queen's English' or 'BBC English', reflecting its prestige and high status (Jones, 1999, p.119).

Harris *et al.*'s (2002) example demonstrates the point made earlier by Heller and Martin-Jones (2001) that 'linguistic practices are central to struggles over controlling the production and distribution of resources and over the legitimation of relations of power, which are, in the end, what such control amounts to' (p.2). Thornborrow (1999) argues that adhering to the linguistic norms of an institution can potentially establish a boundary among students between an 'ingroup' and an 'outgroup' regarding institutional membership among students, which impacts on the construction of social identities (p.143). As a result, Thai students in this study may face challenges when speaking English in classrooms because they may think they have not acquired 'standard' English varieties and, therefore, consider themselves as members of the 'outgroup', and speakers of 'standard' English as members of the 'ingroup'. This problem is magnified in the MSc Marketing programme because the large class size affects Thai students' confidence regarding their language use; thus the size of the 'multilingual classroom ecologies' does impact upon their participation in postgraduate classroom settings which is illustrated in Chapter 5, section 5.4. It is evident that education is a key site in the production and reproduction of social identities and unequal relations of power play an important role in discursive practices and ideologies in institutions (Martin-Jones and Heller, 1996). Communicative practices in multilingual educational settings can thus be perceived as complex and illuminating, because they not only inform relationships between interaction, institutions, and community, but also differences and inequalities between interlocutors (Heller and Martin-Jones, 2001, p.5).

Creese and Martin (2008), however, recognise that learners' classroom experiences are also influenced by their experiences outside the classroom (p.263), and this suggests the complexity between school's classroom cultures and the wider environment which can be captured by an ecology metaphor (p.265). This issue can be exemplified with regard to Creese and Martin's (2006) study on complementary schools. Complementary schools, often called 'community' or 'supplementary' schools are voluntary schools which provide classes in the mother-tongues of learners in order to serve particular linguistic, or religious, and cultural communities, such as local ethnic minority communities (Creese and Martin, 2006, p.1). Complementary schools are set up alongside mainstream educational schools as a result of complex social factors in predominantly multilingual parts of England (Creese and Martin,

2006, p.1). This is illustrated in Creese *et al.*'s (2006) study regarding learners' identity positions (multicultural, heritage, and learner in Gujarati complementary schools in Leicester) by examining their beliefs and attitudes towards their languages, literacies and culture. The schools help to develop learners' heritage/community identities and learning identities while allowing multicultural identities to be flexibly constructed by learners themselves (Creese *et al.*, 2006). These schools are also significant sites for learners to construct and negotiate their identities by providing a context for them to use their languages and linguistic repertoires whilst taking into account their nationality, culture, ethnicity, bilingualism, and learning, and integrating their different life experiences which mainstream schools may not be able to offer (Creese *et al.*, 2006, p.40).

This thesis also acknowledges the role of social contexts which these Thai students experience outside the classroom when they travel to other cities, go shopping, meet people, and make new friends. This is because these opportunities appear to promote fluency and confidence in their spoken English in both academic and social settings during the pre-sessional EAP course. The importance of social contexts in language learning is also addressed in Norton's (2000) study examining immigrant women in Canada who recognise the importance of using English outside the classroom by meeting Canadians socially and gaining access to other Anglophone social networks, such as work places, in order to improve their speaking fluency and settle in Canada (p.135). Pellegrino (2005) points out that learners abroad are encouraged to create friendships with 'native' speakers by meeting and communicating with them in order to extend their social boundaries outside their study groups, and thus social interactions enable them to use the target language spontaneously (p.28). This study, however, demonstrates that gaining access to social interactions can include, but is not limited to, 'native' speakers, and thus Thai students not only develop speaking competence but also awareness of varieties of spoken English. This is illustrated in Chapter 4, section 4.4.

Linguistic ecology has been employed as a metaphor in a number of studies examining interactions and interrelationships between learners and teachers in multilingual classroom settings. Peter Martin (2003), for example, investigates a rural primary school in Brunei, focusing upon discussions around a science text which

position learners and teachers in particular ways through the use of English as the language of the textbook and Malay as the official language of the country. Drawing upon transcripts of classroom interaction, P.Martin (2003) comments that with this text teachers control and direct students' talk around the particular text, and thus students are positioned as 'recipients of teacher-mediated text' while the teacher is positioned as 'custodian and principal interpreter' of the text (p.37-38). He also notes that students in the study speak indigenous languages, such as Iban, Penan, and Dusun, and do not have access to English and Malay. This consequently creates inequality issues because the school asserts the legitimacy of Malay and English, influenced by the dominant groups, and this clearly illustrates the impact of competing ideological, political, socio-economic, and historical factors, rather than purely educational ones (P.Martin, 2003, p.39). P.Martin's (2003) study suggests that students' struggles to deal with classroom practices are related to the wider linguistic ecology both at the local community level and within the larger, linguistic environment in Brunei (p.40).

These students in a rural Brunei primary school are obliged to accept these powerful discourses without attempting to challenge or contest them because they are constrained by a lack of access to legitimate language resources, namely, English and Malay. They are also under pressure not only from local classroom teaching practices but also from the dominant groups' claim to linguistic legitimacy, and that discourages them from exerting their agency and taking up 'active' subject positions. In contrast, Deirdre Martin (2003) shows Panjabi students overcoming power structures in an English school, and being able to take up agentive subject positions, which enables them to challenge and contest the legitimacy of English use in their school. Based on focus group interviews, D.Martin (2003) finds that the Panjabi students use Panjabi to create an 'in-group' sense of solidarity with regard to helping each other with problem-solving in class, sharing secrets, and gossiping, and thus they establish privacy, intimacy, and friendship with their Panjabi peers without feeling 'ashamed' of speaking in Panjabi in front of their 'out-group' English peers (p.88). These Panjabi students also exert their agency by using Panjabi, a 'non-legitimate' language in the school, as a source of power to contest the 'legitimacy' of English, as well as to undermine dominant power structures created by teachers and bullying peers (p.90).

The resistance of linguistic minority students in educational contexts can also be aggravated by teaching and administrative staff as Creese's (2003) study which investigates Turkish/Kurdish students' demonstrations against perceived racism and unfairness within a London secondary school, where the largest linguistic minority students are Turkish speakers, suggests. These Turkish/Kurdish students feel that they are being treated differently and unfairly by their teachers due to their ethnic background, and thus perceive these teachers as racist and divisive (Creese, 2003, p.67). Creese's (2003) study shows that other Turkish-speaking students in the school react to the demonstration differently because of differing ethnic and linguistic affiliations including Turkish mainlanders, Turkish/Cypriot islanders and Turkish/Kurdish refugees (p.74). The study suggests that the school does not have much understanding of different cultural and historical backgrounds within and between the Turkish-speaking students, and thus teachers and administrators treat them as a collective group (Creese, 2003, p.74). It is argued that to treat students from differing ethnic and linguistic backgrounds equally may require that they are not treated similarly (though fairly), in order to create inclusive education for all students (Creese, 2003, p.75).

The studies discussed above primarily focus on linguistic minority students in schools. This is because, as May (2001) acknowledges, they are likely to encounter unfavourable social circumstances and educational disadvantages compared to their majority counterparts, and thus appropriate educational policies are required to mitigate and address these issues (p.168). Creese and Martin's (2003) multilingual classroom ecological approach has never, to my knowledge, been used to examine classroom environments in British higher education, and thus international students, who often represent linguistic minority groups, have been under explored, despite their growing numbers and wide range of ethnic and linguistic backgrounds (see Chapter 1). With reference to multilingual classroom settings in this study, Creese and Martin's (2003) approach is, therefore, a useful theoretical framework, as it uncovers the significant impact of power relations, linguistic ideologies and linguistic legitimacy on interactions and inter-relationships between Thai students and speakers of different languages in these particular academic environments.

To gain a more comprehensive understanding of Thai students' positioning in multilingual classrooms, it is important to explore how and the extent to which they view themselves and others, and vice versa, in terms of their use of languages and language varieties in multilingual classroom contexts and practices. Pavlenko and Blackledge (2004) state that in multilingual contexts, speakers' identities and linguistic ideologies are likely to be in conflict with each other in terms of which languages or their varieties should be spoken by particular speakers and in what context (p.1). Blackledge (2008) also argues that 'debates about language are, therefore, not about language alone, but are socially situated and tied to questions of identity and power in societies' (p.30). This study, therefore, not only examines the underlying issues of power relations, linguistic ideologies and linguistic legitimacy in multilingual classroom settings, but also scrutinises the impact of particular classroom environments on Thai students' identity construction and negotiation. As a result, this study can be better understood when complemented with a discussion of Pavlenko and Blackledge's (2004) *identities in multilingual contexts* with regard to characteristics of identities and typologies of identity options, revealing underlying factors impacting on individuals' construction and negotiation of identities in multilingual contexts. This will be discussed in the following sections.

2.2 Identities in multilingual contexts

This section discusses Pavlenko and Blackledge's (2004) work regarding individual language users' construction and negotiation of identities in multilingual settings and shows how speakers' language choices and attitudes are inevitably linked to socio-political contexts, linguistic ideologies, power relations, and interlocutors' perceptions of their own and others' identities (Pavlenko and Blackledge, 2004, p.1). The connection between language and identity thus becomes pertinent and complex in educational contexts where cultural and linguistic diversity exists, and that results in the shifts and fluctuations due to conflicts and tensions in linguistic ideologies and a wide range of identity options available to individuals (Pavlenko and Blackledge, 2004, p.2).

Language is a key factor in understanding Thai students' identity construction and negotiation, which is socially and historically dependent upon Thai students and their

interactive others. Thai students' views of themselves and others can be changing, contradictory, and multiple in accordance with their relationships and the situations in which they interact. They can construct a variety of 'identities' through their interactions at specific points in time and space, and thus particular identity options are specifically produced as a result of certain relationships, such as, with their teachers or classmates; and in specific social situations, such as whole class or small groups; or during different topics of conversation, such as, business case studies, group projects, or assignments. It is, therefore, advisable to view 'identities' constructed and negotiated by Thai students as fluid and shifting in relation to contextual factors.

Pavlenko and Blackledge's (2004) work mainly concerns 'identity negotiation', which results from the inequality between language ideologies and identity options as they believe that, in multilingual societies, some identity options are more valuable than others, and thus some linguistic minority speakers 'may appeal to or resist particular languages, language varieties, or linguistic forms in the struggle to claim their rights to particular identities and resist others that are imposed on them' (p.3). They argue that the complex relationship between language and identity in multilingual settings requires a framework which can 'capture the complexity of identities in post-modern societies, where languages may not only be 'markers' of identities' but also sites of resistance, empowerment, solidarity or discrimination' (Pavlenko and Blackledge, 2004, p.4). Pavlenko and Blackledge's framework draws upon social constructionist and poststructuralist perspectives as it focuses on the discursive construction of identities and takes into account the role of power relations (p.13), in establishing characteristics of identities and typologies of identity options in multilingual contexts. These are discussed in sections 2.2.1 and 2.2.2 respectively.

2.2.1 Characteristics of identities in multilingual contexts

This section examines Pavlenko and Blackledge's (2004) five characteristics of identities in multilingual contexts: firstly, identities are located within particular discourses and linguistic ideologies; secondly, identities are embedded within relations of power at local and global levels; thirdly, identities are multiple, fragmented, and hybridised; fourthly, 'new' identities can be created through the

imagination; and fifthly, identities are located within particular narratives (p.14). These identity characteristics are useful for this study because they provide insights into examining how and under what conditions Thai students construct and negotiate their identities in multilingual classroom settings where linguistic ideologies and unequal power relations are embedded within institutional, local, and sociocultural and political contexts. The following sections will elaborate upon these five identity characteristics in greater detail.

A) Identities are located within particular discourses and linguistic ideologies

Drawing upon a social constructionist perspective, Pavlenko and Blackledge (2004) state that identity options are constructed, validated, and offered through discourses available to individuals at a specific point in time and space, and thus the relationship between language and identity in multilingual contexts are reciprocally constitutive in two ways. Firstly, languages, or rather particular discourses within them, supply the terms and other linguistic means which individuals use to construct and negotiate their identities; and secondly, language ideologies and identities enable individuals to use linguistic resources to index their identities and assess others' use of linguistic resources (Pavlenko and Blackledge, 2004, p.14).

With reference to social constructionists' views of 'identity', Sabat and Harré (1992) differentiate identities into two categories: 'personal identity' and 'social identity', which can be 'manifested in various discursive practices such as telling autographical stories, taking responsibility for one's actions, expressing doubt, decrying the lack of fairness in a situation (p.445). 'Personal identity' is a formal unity that takes place in an individual's 'psychological space'; 'social identity' is a cluster of acceptable and recognisable behaviours in the appropriate social context or so called 'social space' (Sabat and Harré, 1992, p.445). 'Personal identity' thus involves the continuity of an individual's world views that do not require the cooperation of others whereas 'social identity' is discursively constructed by ensuring that one's public performances correspond to the requirements of the person-types that are recognised and accepted by people in one's community (Sabat and Harré, 1992, p.446). Hence, in the context of this study, Thai students' personal identities play a role in their 'deliberate self-positioning', and this is discussed further later in this chapter. Thai students' 'social

identities' are co-constructed as a result of psychological and sociological factors, which mutually contribute to the way they behave and interact with others in classrooms and society.

According to social constructionism, Burr (1995) notes that there are two broad definitions of 'discourse': firstly, a set of meanings, images, metaphors, stories, and representations that construct a particular event; and secondly, the actual spoken interchanges between people (p.184). Thomas and Wareing (1999) differentiate between the use of the term 'discourse' in two disciplines: in linguistics, 'discourse' can refer to any piece of connected language which contains more than one sentence, which can be in the form of conversations; in sociology, 'discourse' can be used to refer to the way belief systems and values are talked about as in the 'discourse of capitalism' (p.191). The term 'discourse', however, can be related to power as Palmer (1997), drawing upon poststructuralist perspectives, refers to it as communication that always has 'its links with desire and power' (p.89). Howarth (2000) views 'discourse' as an ideological system of meaning that naturalises uneven distribution of power and resources. Similarly, Singh (1999) claims that 'discourse is the result of, and promotes, an ideology' (p.28). In this study, the plural term 'discourses' can thus be viewed not only as actual spoken or written words, but also as the beliefs and values of powerful and dominant groups or institutions embedded within the actual words, and that also entails ideological underpinnings. In fact, 'discourses' are inevitably reciprocal in terms of forming individuals' identities, as people construct their identities through their language use in interactions with one another although they may or may not be aware that their meanings can convey certain power relations or ideologies towards their interlocutors. This idea is explored further in the following section.

B) Identities are embedded within relations of power

In the previous section, it is noted that social constructionism views identity as an interactional accomplishment, constructed in discourses, but that it under-emphasises the role of power relations in the process of identity categorisation (Pavlenko and Blackledge, 2004). This section focuses on how particular identities are 'legitimised' or 'devalued' in global and local power relations as individuals' language use and

choices in multilingual contexts are linked to wider social, political, economic, and cultural systems according to poststructuralism (Pavlenko and Blackledge, 2004, p.10). Pavlenko and Blackledge's (2004) view of poststructuralism is underpinned by Bourdieu's notion of 'symbolic domination' which stems from the dominant group or the dominant institution valuing and legitimising a particular language or its variety, and, as a result, both the dominant and the subordinate groups 'misrecognise' the 'official' language or 'standard' variety as a superior language of hegemonic institutions (p.11). Language, therefore, carries a symbolic power that is linked to the ability to gain access to and exercise power, and thus understanding language practices requires an examination of how conventions of language choice and use are created, maintained, and changed; how language ideologies legitimise and validate particular practices; and the extent to which these language practices impact on individuals' identities (Pavlenko and Blackledge, 2004, p.12). Consequently, in line with the notion of 'symbolic domination', individuals who do not speak the 'official' languages or 'standard' varieties may not be regarded as 'legitimate' speakers or as having as great a moral and intellectual worth as speakers of 'official' languages or 'standard' varieties (Pavlenko and Blackledge, 2004, p.15).

C) Identities are multiple, fragmented, and hybridised

Pavlenko and Blackledge's (2004) framework emphasises the multiplicity of identities in line with poststructuralism which views identity construction as associated with multiple and interrelated variables including age, race, class, ethnicity, gender, generation, sexual orientation, geographical locale, institutional affiliation, and social status (p.16). It is thus best to scrutinise individuals' identities by considering these influential variables rather than a single aspect or subject position, and thus identities can be viewed as modifiable and changeable according to the way individuals identify and position themselves in particular contexts (Pavlenko and Blackledge, 2004, p.16). Due to transnational migration, identities can become fragmented and hybridised as individuals develop new and alternative identity options while other identity options fade away (Pavlenko and Blackledge, 2004, p.14).

These characteristics of identity seem relevant to Thai students who cross borders for UK study not only experience new academic and social environments in the UK, but

also to meet people from all walks of life. Consequently, Thai students' interactions with others can be considered at the intersection of various variables, i.e. age, gender, cultures, ethnicity, social status, and thus they have to learn to adjust themselves to different situations by recognising their interlocutors, topics of conversation, spatial-temporal circumstances in order to engage in effective communication. For instance, when Thai students discuss business topics with their team members who are more experienced and mature, they are likely to construct their identities as 'knowledgeable', 'well-read', or 'conversant'; whereas when they meet up with them at a party, they can take up 'less serious' subject positions. It should, however, be noted that it takes both parties to be sensitive to particular communicative events and develop appropriate identities to establish successful interactions, and thus individuals have to make choices about language use, about who to interact with and regarding who they have access to.

D) 'New' identities can be created and linked to imagination

Pavlenko and Blackledge (2004) claim that the construction of 'new' identities involves a process of imagination deriving from recent socio-political and socio-economic trends and changes, including, globalisation, consumerism, expansion of media, migration, and regional coalition. In this study, the notion of 'imagination' is relevant for Thai students who wish to construct desirable identities according to their differing expectations regarding their tutors, classmates, classrooms, accommodation, and society, and that helps them to shape 'who they wish to become' at various stages of their lives while living and studying in the UK. For instance, during the pre-session course, they can become active and participative in class and group discussions if they believe that postgraduate tutors expect them to engage in different communicative activities, and thus develop 'active' and 'participative' identities which can be useful for their future postgraduate study. This study also reveals that Thai students' imagination is also related to their Thai socio-cultural background, including parental expectations and career goals, and thus they are highly likely to construct 'good' student identities in order to make themselves and their parents proud, and this is illustrated in Chapter 5, section 5.3.

E) Identities are located within particular narratives

Pavlenko and Blackledge (2004) state that individuals and groups who experience transnational migration and diasporas are likely to encounter tensions between their fragmented, decentred, and shifting identities and their desire for meaning and coherence, and thus identity narratives are essential for them to relieve these tensions, reconstruct the connection between past, present, and future, and create coherence (p.18). Identities are, therefore, not only embedded within particular discourses and ideologies but also within narratives, and this reveals a diachronic and dynamic perspective to identities because individuals continuously construct their identities, position others, and revise their identity narratives in order to accommodate new forms of selves and belonging as a result of transnational movement (Pavlenko and Blackledge, 2004, p.19).

Cortazzi (1993) notes narratives are oral accounts of personal experience, which can inform the tellers' representation. Clandinin *et al.* (2006) state that a person's stories are strongly influenced by the lived and told narratives in which he or she is embedded, and that implies languages can shape social, cultural, and institutional narratives, which in turn, can shape an individual person. Kearney (2003) views narrative as a way of reconstructing and reinscribing the identities of those who are second generation immigrants, economic immigrants, or asylum seekers, and thus their narratives can reveal a complex process by which individuals cope with diverse social and linguistic influences to produce a critical, dynamic, and yet coherent sense of self. Clough (2002) claims that narrative reveals a deeper view of life in familiar contexts, which means 'it can make the familiar strange, and the strange familiar' (p.8). Phillion *et al.* (2005) thus suggest that personal narratives should be read and understood in terms of the historical, geographical, socio-political, cultural contexts of investigation, and thus readers should 'look beyond stereotypes, the familiar, and what they take for granted in order to recognise the complexity of multicultural lives' (p.2).

'Narratives' can, therefore, be considered as part of 'discourses' in terms of individuals' actual spoken words, which can be interpreted and understood as a way of unlocking individuals' identities. Identity narratives can also be viewed as a

common thread which connects the identity characteristics mentioned in the previous sections, because individuals' narratives can explicitly reveal their identities in multilingual settings in ways which might not be brought to our attention through other non-linguistic means, such as, gestures, signs, or symbols. In this study, Thai students' narratives are manifested in semi-structured interviews as this research tool effectively offers them opportunities to talk about their life experience. It is thus possible to hear and understand their 'voices' and make 'visible' their past, present, and future circumstances and difficulties which is important if we are to promote academic and social integration for international students in UK higher education.

Pavlenko and Blackledge's (2004) five characteristics of identities in multilingual contexts offer a critical framework to interpret the positioning of Thai students in terms of their classroom participation in this study which not only entails discursively constructed identities but also involves power relations and linguistic ideologies embedded at institutional, local, and global levels. The following section will discuss another aspect of Pavlenko and Blackledge's (2004) framework regarding three typologies of identity options.

2.2.2 Typologies of identity options in multilingual contexts

Pavlenko and Blackledge (2004) employ '*positioning theory*' (Davies and Harré, 1990; Harré and van Langenhove, 1999) as an analytical tool to explore how identities are shaped, produced, and negotiated in multilingual settings (p.20). Drawing upon Davies and Harré's (1990) *positioning theory*, Pavlenko and Blackledge (2004) state that there are 'interactive positioning' and 'reflective positioning'; the former takes place when a person positions the other and the latter happens when a person positions himself/herself (p.20). Claiming that Davies and Harré (1990) mainly focus on conversational phenomenon, Pavlenko and Blackledge (2004) extend the meaning of 'positioning' by including all discursive practices which allow individuals to position themselves and be positioned by others (p.20). As a result, Pavlenko and Blackledge (2004) provide a framework that differentiates identity options into three types, which are *imposed identities*, *assumed identities*, and *negotiable identities* (p.21), and we will examine each one in turn.

Imposed identities: individuals cannot negotiate, resist, or contest imposing persons or institutions at any particular point in time because they are obliged by rules or laws of powerful others, such as government or local authorities (Pavlenko and Blackledge, 2004, p.21). In the case of this study, university regulations impose certain conditions upon Thai learners with regard to enrolling on a pre-sessional EAP course to improve their English language proficiency and paying higher tuition fees than UK/EU students because they are categorised as international students who wish to be accepted for postgraduate study. *Assumed identities*: individuals are not interested in contesting or challenging imposing persons or institutions and feel comfortable with these types of identities which are most valued and legitimised by the imposing persons or institutions (Pavlenko and Blackledge, 2004, p.21). Once Thai students pass the pre-sessional course, they are entitled to enrol on the MSc Marketing programme at the university and become postgraduate students, and thus ‘being MSc Marketing students’ can be considered as their *assumed identities* which they are willing to accept due to their UK study objective. *Negotiable identities* are constructed when individuals feel imposed upon, or devalued, or misunderstood by particular persons or institutions, and, as a result, they contest and resist the imposing persons, groups, or institutions (Pavlenko and Blackledge, 2004, p.21). These three identity options are, however, taken up by individuals within a specific point in time and space, and thus a particular identity option that is acceptable by some groups in a particular circumstance may no longer be acceptable by other groups or even the same groups at different times and in different circumstances (Pavlenko and Blackledge, 2004, p.21). ‘*Negotiable identities*’ are, however, particularly related to human agency that enables individuals to change and transform themselves to take up desirable positions (Pavlenko and Blackledge, 2004). This is explained further below.

The concept of human agency is relevant in this study because it enables Thai students to position themselves favourably. Davies (1990, p.360) describes the nature of human agency as follows: first of all, individuals can actively make sense of, rather than passively receive; secondly, individuals are responsible for making relevant choices and accountable for their actions according to their resources and personal skills; and finally, during interactions within appropriate discourses and contexts, individuals are ‘legitimately’ positioned and recognised by interactive others as agents. Agency is, therefore, a matter of positions and choices depending on the way

in which individuals discursively construct themselves as responsible beings, their degree of commitment to that construction, and personal history (Davies, 1990). The concept of agency is also significantly related to the discussion of ‘deliberate self-positioning’ (van Langenhove and Harré, 1999), which is examined in detail in section 2.3.2.2.

Kettle (2005) employs Davies’ (1990) notion of agency which focuses on the possibility of choice for an individual to position himself/herself as an agent, and means that an individual can choose a particular action and make decisions for a positive change in life. Kettle (2005), who investigates a Thai postgraduate student in an Australian university context, finds that the student constructs his desirable identities from ‘nobody’ to ‘somebody’ by actively engaging in class, and thus he not only becomes a ‘legitimate’ class member, but also represents the image of Thai students abroad in a positive light (p.55). The Thai postgraduate student in Kettle’s (2005) study exerts his agency and becomes an agent of change while studying in Australia, and, in many respects, Thai students in this study follow a similar path (see Chapter 4, section 4.3 and Chapter 5, section 5.3).

In sum, Pavlenko and Blackledge’s (2004) use of ‘positioning theory’ as an analytical tool offers an important framework of identity typologies that enables us to recognise how and the extent to which individuals take up particular positions as a result of their obligation, acceptance, resistance, or negotiation with regard to other people or groups within a certain time and space in multilingual contexts. In line with Pavlenko and Blackledge’s (2004) analytical perspectives, this study employs ‘positioning theory’ as an analytical framework because it can reveal various variables that contribute to a wide range of positions (co-)constructed by both Thai students and interactive others in multilingual classroom settings. ‘Positioning theory’ as the analytical framework in this study is discussed in greater detail in the following sections.

2.3 Positioning theory as an analytical framework

In this section, ‘positioning theory’ which provides the analytical framework of the study, is reviewed because it can unlock different subject positions which Thai students take up in relation to interactive others and can capture the complexity of

relationships between Thai students, their peers and their teachers. The initial concept of ‘positioning theory’ was proposed by Davies and Harré (1990) and then extended by Harré and van Langenhove (1999) who additionally consider modes of positioning and situations of intentional positioning. In the next sections, I firstly discuss Davies and Harré’s (1990) original concept of ‘positioning’, which will be followed by Harré and van Langenhove’s contribution (1999). I then explain how positioning theory can be applied in educational contexts to offer a sound tool of analysis.

2.3.1 ‘Positioning theory’ (Davies and Harré, 1990)

According to Davies and Harré (1990), the notion of ‘position’ is created to address the dynamic aspect of human interactions and to replace static, formal and ritualistic aspects of ‘role’ (p.44). Davies and Harré (1990) state that individuals emerge from the processes of social interaction, which are constructed through the various discursive practices in which they participate, and their identities are shifting, depending upon the positions made available within their own and others’ discursive practices (p.46). The notion of ‘positioning’ can, therefore, be viewed as the constitution of speakers and hearers in particular ways as they engage in conversation through different discursive practices that are simultaneously resources through which both parties can negotiate new positions created in talk and through talk (Davies and Harré, 1990, p.62). Davies and Harré (1990) distinguish two aspects of positioning, which are *interactive* and *reflexive*: the former assumes that an individual positions others whereas the latter is the process of positioning oneself (p.48). In various communicative situations, an individual may attempt to position their interlocutors in a particular way (interactive positioning), and yet, the positioned other might not want to be positioned as such and not only rejects that position but also tries to position him/herself in a more desirable way (reflexive positioning) (Davies and Harré, 1990). When speakers position themselves and others in interactions, they are also influenced by political and moral commitments, their identities, attitudes towards their interlocutors, and cumulative experiences, which are all implicated in their utterances (Davies and Harré, 1990).

Davies and Harré (1990) provide useful notions of ‘position’ and ‘positioning’ that can be applicable to this study in terms of understanding how Thai students position

themselves by taking up particular positions in relation to others during classroom participation in EAP and postgraduate courses in a British university. ‘Positioning’ can enable Thai students to employ various discursive practices to perform various identities during classroom participation. Different discursive practices in this study can include Thai students’ interactions with their tutors and their peers, tutors’ teaching styles and methods, gestures, classmates’ personalities and classroom behaviours, Thai students’ rapport with their tutors and classmates, and these may all impact upon the different ways Thai students want to position themselves and others, and vice versa.

Regarding ‘reflexive positioning’, Thai students can position themselves in a more desirable way, such as, ‘knowledgeable’, ‘active’, ‘participative’ when they share their knowledge or experiences that might not be known by lecturers and classmates. Such desirable positions can also be challenged or rejected by their classmates, and thus ‘interactive positioning’ can occur when Thai students could be positioned as ‘boastful’, or ‘immodest’. It should, however, be noted that it might not necessarily be the case that Thai students always reflexively take up their ‘desirable’ positions in certain situations. For example, being influenced by linguistic ideologies, they could have certain beliefs regarding their legitimacy to speak English since they are not ‘native’ speakers of English, and thus they may position themselves as ‘illegitimate’ speakers in classrooms where varieties of English can be differently valued.

With reference to ‘interactive positioning’, the number of overseas students in the British university context makes Thai students’ classroom experience relatively different from that which they have experienced in Thailand due to various factors, such as, the linguistic, cultural, and academic background of the students, and this is likely to have an impact on Thai students’ positioning of themselves and others in classroom interaction. For instance, in terms of academic background, some Thai students may not have knowledge of the marketing field or work experience, and thus they might ‘position’ themselves as ‘inexperienced’ or ‘academically incompetent’ and position their peers who have extensive work experience as ‘knowledgeable’ and ‘well-rounded’. These different identity positions can demonstrate the more shifting, dynamic and multiple identities of Thai students in multilingual classrooms. We can see that the concepts of ‘position’ and ‘positioning’ are relational and reciprocal in the

sense that when one positions oneself, it also implies that one positions others, and vice versa. The extent to which these differences can impact on Thai students' positioning is one of the main concerns of this study, and the extent to which Thai students' agency can influence their positioning and allow them to take up desirable positions by making relevant choices and being responsible for their actions in classroom participation is also relevant to this study and is illustrated with reference to the interview data in Chapters 4 and 5. The concept of 'positioning' clearly illustrates the multiplicity and dynamic nature of Thai students' identities through various 'positionings' in relation to significant others in classroom participation. Although Davies and Harré (1990) provide a useful introduction to positioning theory regarding 'interactive' and 'reflexive' positionings, this study further draws upon the various modes of positioning and types of intentional positioning which are explored in more detail in Harré and van Langenhove's (1999) framework.

2.3.2 'Positioning theory' (Harré and van Langenhove, 1999)

Harré and van Langenhove (1999) state that 'positioning theory' aims to explore the dynamics of social episodes in order to understand how psychological phenomena are created in the sequential development of a structured sequence of actions. Harré and van Langenhove (1999, p.6) claim three basic features of interactions enable speakers to understand and explain much of what is going on and how sociological and psychological phenomena are constructed in interactions: firstly, the moral positions of the participants and the rights and duties they have to say certain things; secondly, the conversational history and the sequence of things that have been said; and thirdly, the actual utterances that shape particular aspects of the social world. To analyse the act of positioning to uncover human social life episodes, Harré and van Langenhove (1999) provide the triad of the position, social force of, and storyline illustrated below:

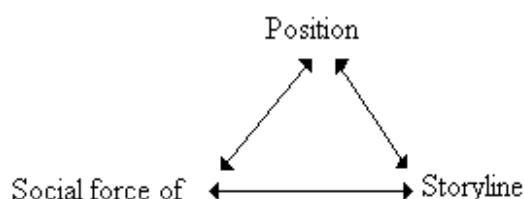


Figure 2.1: Mutually Determining Triad (van Langenhove and Harré, 1999, p. 18)

According to the tri-polar structure of conversations consisting of ‘positions’, ‘storylines’ and ‘social force of’ (see above), van Langenhove and Harré (1999) claim that the act of ‘positioning’ in conversations is the assignment of fluid ‘positions’ to speakers in the discursive construction of their stories. This, they believe, can reveal episodes of their social lives and enable their actions to become intelligible and relatively determinate as social acts, which are mutually determined by one another (van Langenhove and Harré, 1999, p.17). For instance, if a person positions himself/herself as dependent, his/her cry of pain can be interpreted as a plea for help; whereas, if the person positions himself/herself as dominant, a similar cry can be viewed as a protest or a reprimand (van Langenhove and Harré, 1999).

To understand Thai students’ positions with regard to others, it is important to examine their particular interactive situations because the position, social force of, and storyline triad are related to situated contexts and mutually determine one another. In this study, however, it was not possible to record actual classroom interactions due to the poor quality of recording equipment available and the large class size. As Harré and van Langenhove (1999) argue that all conversations, such as interviewing, involve some sorts of positioning, which can be understood in terms of the triad ‘position, speech-act, storyline’ (p.29), the use of interview as a research tool was employed. This made it possible to gain deeper insights into understanding Thai students’ positions with regard to their classroom participation and to explore the dynamic and shifting nature of ‘positions’ and ‘positioning’ that could take place in different storylines. The advantage of the interview will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 3, section 3.4.1.

There are two main types of storyline in this study: the interview storyline and the classroom storyline referred to in the interview. The interview storylines, on the one hand, are constructed between Thai students and me regarding their classroom experiences prompted by the interview schedule. The classroom storylines, on the other hand, are constructed between Thai students and their interactive others, namely, tutors and classmates, which are retold in the interview storylines. When Thai students express their thoughts in an interview, they attempt to make claims about positioning in relation to others regarding their classroom participation. Their views are considered as intentional since they consciously take up certain ‘positions’

in relation to their interlocutors. Intentional positioning can be categorised into four distinctive situations according to the matrix of positioning modes, which are discussed in the next section.

2.3.2.1 Positioning modes

Positioning modes, namely, ‘performative/accountive’ and ‘self/other’, can provide the possible situations that Thai students can discursively construct in terms of their positioning in relation to others.

A) Performative and accountive positioning

van Langenhove and Harré (1999) refer to ‘performative positioning’ as when a speaker positions himself/herself and another interlocutor within the same on-going and lived storyline without disagreement or challenge, and, as a result, both speakers perform particular actions according to what has been said and agreed in such conversations (p.21). ‘Accountive positioning’, on the contrary, can take place on two occasions: firstly, when both speakers disagree or challenge one another’s positions within the same on-going and lived storyline, and thus they do not agree to perform any actions due to the unsuccessful discussion; secondly, following the first occasion, the initial storyline can be retold or reiterated by one of the speakers to the third party in another storyline, and thus the acts of positioning will be created by the speaker from the initial storyline with a third party (van Langenhove and Harré, 1999, p.21). Because the definitions of these two terms can be confusing and overlapping, they are exemplified and categorised carefully below to provide better understanding for the discussion in this study.

‘Performative positioning’ can take place in storylines produced between Thai students and me during interviews, which include questions, such as, ‘*What are your general impressions about this term?*’, ‘*What did you enjoy about the course?*’, ‘*What difficulties did you have?*’ and ‘*How did you deal with the difficulties?*’ which aim to gain their overall reflections regarding their performance and experience in the class. The storylines deriving from these questions can entail any other parties, such as, tutors and students. Accountive positioning, on the other hand, particularly focuses

on storylines constructed between Thai students and other parties, which are then retold in interviews which include questions, such as, ‘*What do you think about your classmates’ participation?*’, ‘*What do you think about your tutors’ teaching?*’, ‘*Why didn’t you answer your tutors’ questions?*’, ‘*How was your group discussion with students from other business programmes?*’. The ‘performative’ and ‘accountive’ positionings are helpful to understand the intentional situations of positioning that are discussed in section 2.3.2.2.

B) Self and other positioning

van Langenhove and Harré (1999) note that within a conversation, each speaker always positions the other speaker and simultaneously positions himself/herself, which is reciprocal and resourceful because it allows speakers involved in the conversation to negotiate new positions (p.22). A self/other positioning mode seems to suggest the significance of the interrelationship between speakers who simultaneously take up positions in relation to one another. This mode of positioning is similar to Davies and Harré’s (1990) *interactive* and *reflexive positioning*, of which the former is when a speaker positions the other interlocutor and the latter is when the speaker simultaneously positions himself/herself in relation to the particular interlocutor. For example, if Thai students and their tutors have good rapport, Thai students can position themselves as ‘colleagues’ or ‘active learners’ and simultaneously position their tutors as ‘critical friends’ or ‘knowledgeable’ when discussing certain business topics. If the relationship between them is not so amicable, when Thai students are asked to answer, they can ‘position’ themselves as ‘subordinate’ and the tutors as ‘authoritative’. These examples suggest that positive relationships can enable each speaker to take up more desirable and balanced positions whereas negative ones can lead to different power relations which may create ‘the dominant’ and ‘the dominated’. These examples also illustrate that positions are highly relational and multiple depending on the relationship between both speakers which contributes to their attitudes towards one another.

These two modes of positioning: ‘performative/accountive’ and ‘self/other’ are helpful to establish the matrix of intentional positioning situations that Thai students are involved in. Intentional positioning of identities is categorised in terms of four

types of situations (Harré and van Langenhove, 1999), which are examined in the next section.

2.3.2.2 Types of intentional positioning

Harré and van Langenhove (1999) classify four distinct forms of intentional positioning: *deliberate self-positioning*, *forced self-positioning*, *deliberate positioning of others*, and *forced positioning of others*, which can be identified relative to the discursive practices in which they occur. These four types of intentional positioning involve the integration of the ‘performative/accountive’ and ‘self/other’ positioning matrix which are discussed below.

Table 2.1: Situations of Intentional Positioning (van Langenhove and Harré, 1999, p.24)

Modes of positioning	<i>Performative positioning</i>	<i>Accountive positioning</i>
<i>Self-positioning</i>	<i>Deliberate self-positioning</i>	<i>Forced self- positioning</i>
<i>Other-positioning</i>	<i>Deliberate positioning of others</i>	<i>Forced positioning of others</i>

A) *Deliberate self-positioning*

van Langenhove and Harré (1999) claim that ‘deliberate self-positioning’ takes place when a person wants to express his/her ‘personal identity’, which could be manifested in different ways, such as, by exerting his/her agency, referring to his/her unique viewpoint, referring to events in his/her biography (p.24). Individuals who are engaged in ‘deliberate self-positioning’ not only attempt to achieve their specific goals but also express their self-reflections (van Langenhove and Harré, 1999, p.25), and this is similar to Davies and Harré’s (1990) ‘reflexive positioning’. This type of positioning is evident when a Thai student purposefully and explicitly takes up a position himself or herself as ‘somebody’ who can make relevant choices among available alternatives and exercises his/her rights to accomplish his/her goals. This situation is exemplified when Thai students reflect upon their academic desires and personal objectives as well as acknowledge their abilities to overcome obstacles in

order to achieve their academic goals during their UK study. ‘Deliberate self-positioning’ will be illustrated with regard to the effects of Thai students’ personal identities and agency in pre-sessional EAP and MSc Marketing classes in sections 4.3 (Chapter 4) and 5.3 (Chapter 5) respectively. Their deliberate views about themselves, however, can be questioned or challenged during interviews, which can lead to ‘forced self-positioning’ which is explained in the following section.

B) Forced self-positioning

van Langenhove and Harré (1999) claim that ‘forced self-positioning’ is slightly different from ‘deliberate self-positioning’ in that the initiative has been shifted to someone else rather than the person involved (p.26). In this study, I initiate questions during an interview to challenge, stimulate, and activate Thai students’ views about their classroom participation, which can be considered as ‘accountive positioning’. They are expected to recall the way they see themselves behave in certain interactive situations. For example, the interview question ‘*why didn’t you answer your tutors’ questions?*’ can ‘force’ them to reflect on the way they see themselves and their disengaging classroom behaviour, and thus they can reveal possible position options as someone who is ‘lazy’, ‘reticent’, or ‘ignorant’. Similarly, the interview question ‘*how did you feel when discussing in a group with students from other business programmes?*’ can ‘force’ them to reflect on their positions which may include ‘immature’ or ‘inexperienced’, because they might think that they do not have as much work experience as other business students do. This situation can potentially place them in the ‘hot seat’ and force them to ‘think on their feet’ since they may not have thought about the way they perceive their classroom engagement before, and this can reveal particular ‘positions’.

C) Deliberate positioning of others

Deliberate positioning of others can be done in either the presence or absence of the person being positioned, which means in the absence of the positioned others, a speaker taking a stance regarding the other persons’ behaviour that might not necessarily represent their actual behaviour; whereas in the presence of positioned others, the speaker’s storyline may or may not be taken up by the positioned person

(van Langenhove and Harré, 1999, p.27). This situation is similar to Davies and Harré's (1990) 'interactive positioning' because a speaker positions another interlocutor in conversation. 'Deliberate positioning of others' in the presence of the positioned others can occur in class when Thai students exchange ideas with others. This type of data is not available in this study, however, due to the constraints mentioned previously (the lack of high quality recording device and the unexpectedly large class size). In the case of the absence of positioned others, however, the data derived from interview transcripts can help to reveal how Thai students view others in class. When Thai students talk about themselves as discussed in 'deliberate self-positioning', they can simultaneously position others, such as, tutors and classmates, by deliberately expressing views about them with reference to particular interactions. Although they express their thoughts about those particular tutors and classmates who are not present during the interview, I can become the 'witness' defending those positioned others if Thai students' views do not match with what I have observed in class. For instance, some Thai students might say that they do not like a particular classmate who is talkative and loud, which demonstrates that they are deliberately 'positioning' that particular student as 'talkative', 'annoying', or 'disrespectful' (deliberate other-positioning). I can then question them about whether it is within his/her rights to ask and answer questions in the class (accountive positioning), which will 'force' Thai students to revisit their initial thoughts, and that can lead to the forced positioning of others discussed below.

D) Forced positioning of others

Similar to the 'deliberate positioning of others', 'forced positioning of others' can occur either in the presence or absence of the person being intentionally positioned, but it can be relatively complex when a person is being asked to position another third party (van Langenhove and Harré, 1999, p.27). This study does not include data regarding the presence of the positioned others, for reasons discussed in the previous section. The forced positioning of absent others can be derived from 'forced self-positioning' because Thai students are asked to revisit the classroom behaviour of their tutors and classmates. For example, the question '*do you think that the student has the rights to ask or answer whenever he/she wants to?*' can 'force' Thai students to express their views on that particular student who may have influenced their

classroom participation. They can reposition a particular student as 'brave', or 'knowledgeable', which can depend on the different attitudes which each Thai student has towards that particular student. Yet again, their different views towards the student can be questioned and challenged as I can ask them their reasons for such thoughts, which can enable the storylines between Thai students and me to evolve around this topic.

To conclude, van Langenhove and Harré's (1999) 'positioning theory' with regard to the four situations of intentional positioning provides a valuable analytical lens to examine Thai students' 'positions' during their classroom participation. Although they have been categorised into four distinctive situations, they can be reciprocal since 'deliberate self-positioning' can imply 'deliberate other-positioning' and so can 'forced self-positioning'. It should be noted that 'deliberate self/other-positioning' can be shifted to 'forced self/other-positioning' once Thai students have been challenged and questioned, and thus they are required to reflect and revisit their thoughts to provide a rationale for particular positions they have initially and deliberately taken up.

'Positioning theory' has been employed in a number of studies regarding classroom interactions. Ritchie (2002) employs 'positioning theory' to analyse group work interactions among Year 6 students during science activities by particularly examining the role of gender, status, and power relations within a mixed-gender group and a same-gender group. Based on classroom interaction transcripts, Ritchie (2002) suggests that students are likely to contest the positioning of their peers, and vice versa, no matter which gender groups they belong to because none of them want to be under the control of their peers, and thus students who reflexively position themselves as 'boss' are contested and have to reposition themselves in order to fit into the group (p.50). This study also notes that students who encounter more diverse social interactions can potentially take up various desirable positions, such as, 'powerful', 'expert', and 'cooperative', in conversations because they can draw upon previous experience in social settings, which may imply that students come to school with different skills in negotiation (Ritchie, 2002, p.52). Teachers' intervention during students' group work creates another positioning storyline between teachers and students, and thus teachers can potentially help students who experience conflict or

unproductive group work by negotiating and developing more positive outcomes (Ritchie, 2002, p.52). Ritchie's (2002) study illustrates the dynamic and shifting nature of group work that can become a site for students to construct and negotiate their identities in relation to their peers and teachers in particular group discussion storylines, and once again demonstrates the fluidity and multiplicity of students' identities.

Barnes (2004) also examines student participation and classroom processes in collaborative learning activities in Year 11 mathematics classrooms in Australia by purposively selecting three classes based on co-educational classrooms and teachers' experience in using collaborative methods. Drawing upon videotapes of students' group work behaviours, Barnes (2004, p.6) identifies fourteen different positions with respective descriptions. For example, 'manager' is defined as follows: initiates work, invites ideas, interprets instructions; 'expert' is defined as: makes authoritative mathematical statements, and decides what is correct; 'in-need-of-help' is defined as: either claims not to understand and explicitly or implicitly asks for help, or accepts an offer of help from another; and 'outsider' is defined as: either tries to join the discussion, but is interrupted or ignored; or says nothing for long periods, and gives no sign of seeking to participate. Based on interviews, Barnes (2005, p.11) claims that an 'outsider' is influenced by group members who behave as though they do not hear what the 'outsider' is saying, or do not believe that it is of value, and thus an 'outsider' finds it difficult to be involved in a group discussion despite trying to contest this position because he/she does not have sufficient power to change it. This leads to physical and mental withdrawal from the group. This study suggests that explicit classroom 'norms' can prevent students from being positioned as 'outsiders' by focusing on the importance of every student's contribution and allowing individuals to be given a hearing by the group (Barnes, 2005, p.17).

Ritchie's (2002) and Barnes's (2004) studies suggest the significant role of teachers in solving conflicts among students in group work and classroom settings, which are relatively homogeneous in terms of the linguistic, cultural, and ethnic backgrounds of both students and teachers. Brock *et al.*'s (2006) study, however, investigates six in-service American teachers sent to Costa Rica to study 'Literacy Across Languages and Cultures' and learn how to teach students from diverse cultural and linguistic

backgrounds by examining the impact of social contexts on their construction of teachers' social identities as teachers and by reflecting on their own cultural identities while living in Costa Rica (p.38). The results obtained from teachers' written reflections and group interviews suggest that in order to deliver effective instruction in literacy to students from a diverse background, it firstly involves knowledge of instructional frameworks, strategies, methods, and materials; secondly, knowledge of students' lives and experiences; and thirdly, knowledge of one's own perspectives and beliefs (Brock *et al.*, 2006, p.58). The study also points out that teachers' identities are not fixed but fluid, dynamic, and multiple because they are influenced by the contexts in which they live, act, and interact, and thus they can develop appropriate pedagogies which can help support students' learning experience in linguistically and culturally diverse classroom contexts (Brock *et al.*, 2006).

These studies illuminate the advantages of 'positioning theory' as an analytical tool which can help to disentangle the complexities of classroom interactions and inter-relationships between teachers and students, which might otherwise have remained invisible, overlooked, and under-examined. Positioning theory can, therefore, provide a systematic way to understand more about how Thai students in this study reflexively and interactively take up their positions in relation to others in linguistically diverse classroom settings.

2.4 Chapter summary

This chapter presents the theoretical and analytical frameworks of this study. The theoretical framework draws upon two interrelated concepts, which are, *multilingual classroom ecologies* (Creese and Martin, 2003) and *identities in multilingual contexts* (Pavlenko and Blackledge, 2004). Creese and Martin's (2003) concept is helpful in this study because it helps to recognise the significance of multilingual classroom environments that include not only the psychological aspect concerning perceptions and attitudes of Thai students towards their own language use with teachers and classmates when engaging in discussions, but also the sociological aspect within multilingual classrooms where speakers of different languages use English as a medium of instruction and communication. Communication in multilingual classroom settings in this study can be influenced by the impact of language

ideologies and power relations embedded within local classroom practices, as well as, wider socio-political institutions, and that can result in the way Thai students regard 'standard' English as a 'legitimate' language and consider speakers of other 'non-standard' varieties as 'non-legitimate', including Thai students themselves. The issue of language legitimacy needs to be carefully dealt with because it is related to unequal power relations embedded within multilingual education practices which can lead to inequality (Heller and Martin-Jones, 2001; Martin-Jones and Heller, 1996). Pavlenko and Blackledge (2004) claim that linguistic minority speakers in multilingual contexts are likely to encounter a conflict between their identities, linguistic ideologies, and power relations, and that leads to struggle to claim their rights of linguistic legitimacy imposed by particular individuals or groups in certain spatial-temporal circumstances. 'Positioning theory' (Davies and Harré, 1990; Harré and van Langenhove, 1999) as the analytical framework offers critical insights into understanding the complexity of power relations, linguistic ideologies, linguistic legitimacy, positions of Thai students and the interactive others. The theoretical and analytical frameworks in this study can unravel and alleviate the issues of inequality and disintegration of communicative practices caused by existing unequal power relations and language ideologies in multilingual classrooms. This study is important because it can not only enhance appropriate pedagogies and learning environments for international students who can be considered as linguistic minority students, but also can promote better social inclusion and fairness for them in British university settings.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter discusses methodological issues, firstly addressing the interpretive/qualitative research paradigm. Following the discussion of the rationale for adopting case study as the research approach, details about the research sites are also explained. The research tools, which include semi-structured interviews, English speaking logs, and classroom observations, are then discussed and the approach to data analysis is presented. Issues related to the validity and reliability of the thesis are addressed in terms of transcription procedures, the interpretation of the data, and generalisability of the findings. Seven research participants are introduced and their respective biographies, educational backgrounds, goals and expectations about studying in a British university are presented. Finally, the relationship between the participants and myself, the researcher, is examined in a discussion of research ethics.

3.1 Interpretive/Qualitative research paradigm

This thesis adopts a group of seven Thai students as a case of investigation and explores their behaviours and views with regard to pre-sessional EAP (English for Academic Purposes) and MSc Marketing classroom contexts. Holliday (1999) suggests an interpretive- and process-oriented research paradigm may be useful to interpret emergent behaviour within any social grouping. The interpretive paradigm could be viewed as personal and subjective, especially as case study as a research method produces ‘soft’ data based on qualitative and interpretive methods rather than quantitative data and statistical procedures (Denscombe, 2003). The interpretive paradigm, however, enabled me as a lone researcher to focus in depth on a particular group of Thai students rather than gather questionnaires from a large number of Thai students studying in the UK without learning what they actually experienced in classrooms. Though survey methods allow for the collection of large amounts of data about people relatively quickly, this approach may lack informed interpretation about what the findings signify (Lankshear and Knobel, 2004). A quantitative approach through the use of surveys is not suitable for this study because whilst it can yield results for the wider population, it does not allow an in-depth understanding of the views of the Thai participants in their situated classroom contexts. The interpretive research paradigm builds gradual pictures through substantiated interpretations that represent the much more complex reality of social life (Holliday, 2002). This thesis

not only explores the complexity of factors influencing Thai learners' classroom participation, but also examines changes in their classroom behaviours. Because of the gradual process of such research, Saldaña (2003) claims that human actions and participant perspectives may change during the course of a study to reveal temporal-based themes and patterns of human development or social processes, which illustrates that time and change are contextual. The interpretive/qualitative paradigm demonstrates the dynamic and interactive nature of the research that required me as a researcher to be involved with the Thai participants in their natural classroom contexts in order to understand their situated classroom practices. The researcher employs his/her skills as a social being to explore others' perceptions of the reality constructed by mutual negotiation, which is specific to the situation being investigated (O'Donoghue, 2007). Adopting the interpretive/ qualitative approach was, therefore, an appropriate research paradigm for this thesis because I could gain insights about the students in their natural classroom settings and see changes in their personal development and other transformations as time progressed. As the thesis relies upon qualitative/interpretivist paradigm, it is important to discuss in detail what this paradigm entails by considering three fundamental questions: ontological, epistemological and methodological (Lincoln and Guba, 1985).

(1) Ontological

This question concerns 'what is the nature of reality?' Morrison (2002, p.18) mentions that reality is not 'out there', but rather is interpreted as people understand it in different ways because people discuss their experiences and construct their own 'reality'. This study investigates 'reality' by examining the factors affecting Thai students' positioning in multilingual classroom contexts in a British university. The concern is with understanding people's socially negotiated subjective meanings, which are not imprinted on individuals, but rather are established through interaction with others (Creswell, 2003). An ontological perspective emphasises interactions, actions and behaviours and the way people interpret their actions (Mason, 2002). To understand the 'nature' of Thai students' classroom behaviours and interactions, classroom observation was employed. The approach to classroom observation adopted in this study is called 'naturalistic observation', which McDonough and McDonough (1997, p.114) refer to as 'a concern with the understanding of natural

settings and the representation of the meanings of the actors with that setting'. I witnessed and made notes on Thai participants' classroom behaviours in their 'natural' classroom settings without interfering in classroom teaching and learning. By telling their life stories through a series of interviews, these students also expressed their perspectives, attitudes, and beliefs about their classroom interaction, which could reveal how they regarded themselves in relation to their teachers and classmates. They also recorded their daily interactions in English speaking logs, which reflect their respective individual experiences. In sum, the position adopted in this thesis is that there cannot be an objective reality, which exists without the meanings people bring to it (Morrison, 2002).

(2) Epistemological

This question aims to find out 'what is the nature of knowledge?' According to the interpretive/qualitative research paradigm, knowledge is linked to interpretation, meaning and illumination rather than generalisation, prediction and control, which require researchers to understand and make sense of participants' construction of meanings in their social world (Usher, 1996). The Thai students' positioning in the classroom has to be understood and interpreted in relation to their personal beliefs and values regarding their language use and that of others in the classroom. It must also take into account their encounters outside the classroom which enable them to gain more confidence to participate in discussions. A semi-structured interview was the primary research tool that enabled me to find out their views regarding classroom participation, and thus revealed the way they perceived themselves and others whilst they were in the classroom. I also used complementary research tools, which were classroom observation and English speaking log.

The use of classroom observation in this study, for example, can reflect an epistemological question. As Mason (2002) notes, knowledge of the social world can be generated by observing 'natural' interactive situations and settings (p.85). The use of classroom observations alone, however, would not allow a representative understanding of the 'social world' of Thai students while studying and living in the UK, and thus the aim of the logs is to fill the missing gaps, such as, their views regarding interaction with people in British communities, which may help to improve

their classroom participation. These research tools were effective in terms of understanding and interpreting factors that stemmed from interactions both inside and outside the classroom, and this will be discussed in detail in Section 3.4.

(3) Methodological

‘How should the inquirer go about finding out knowledge?’ is the main question in this respect. Researchers working in an interpretive paradigm strive to understand individuals and their definitions of situations through various research methods and tools. Denscombe (2003) encourages researchers to draw upon a variety of sources, types of data, and appropriate research tools as part of the investigation of the relationships and processes. In this instance, case study was employed because it enabled me to focus on a particular group of Thai students, employ suitable research tools, acquire relevant data, and look for informed interpretations. Mason (2002) claims that qualitative researchers have to demonstrate that they have understood and engaged with their study in a reflexive sense as well as tried their best to read the data from alternative interpretive perspectives in order to show that the methods and methodology employed in their study are explained and justified. Marshall and Rossman (2006, p.13) list the following topics which they claim contribute to a clear and logical rationale of qualitative methods: the assumptions behind a qualitative approach; the logic behind selecting sites and participants; the choice of overall design and data collection methods; ethical issues and the trustworthiness of the overall design. In the next section, following an explanation of the interpretive/qualitative research paradigm, methodological issues of relevance such as the use of case study as a research method, the research sites, data collection tools, data analysis procedures, the validity and reliability of the thesis, ethical issues, and the research participants are discussed in more detail.

3.2 Case study as a research method

Case study is an appropriate research method for this study because it enables me to identify factors both inside and outside the classroom, which contribute to Thai students’ oral participation in the respective multilingual classrooms. Although the term ‘case study’ is familiar to most people, there is little agreement on what

constitutes case study research. Stake (1995) describes case study as the study of the particularity and complexity of a single case such as a student, or a classroom in order to understand its activity in context. Cohen *et al.* (2000) define a case study as an observation of characteristics of an individual unit, which can be a person, a class, or a community. Yin (1993) views case study as an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context.

Pole and Morrison (2003) state that case study is often considered as ‘ethnography’ because it employs a number of qualitative research tools (p.3). In fact, ethnography includes the full range of quantitative and qualitative research methods to investigate social behaviour within a discrete location, which can provide detailed description leading to the identification of concepts and theories (Pole and Morrison, 2003, p.3). Stake (1994) states that ‘case studies are defined by the interest in individual cases, not by methods of enquiry’ (p.236). Although this study employed some ethnographic tools, such as classroom observations and interviews, it is not necessarily an ethnography since the research method and methodology of this study did not initially intend to follow such an approach. With regard to this thesis, case study can thus be defined as an investigation of a particular unit, i.e. a group of Thai students, which strives for depth of understanding regarding what it means for them to be in particular classroom settings, what their lives are like, what is going on in their lives, and what matters to them.

There are a number of benefits regarding the use of case study as a research method. Firstly, it can deal with the complexities of a particular educational setting as a whole, and thus offers an opportunity for researchers to uncover how different factors affect one another (Denscombe, 2002). Case study gave me an opportunity to examine interrelated educational factors, such as tutors’ teaching styles and methods which resulted in more active involvement of the Thai students, and created an inductive and supportive classroom environment in which other students could also take part. Secondly, case study is an appropriate method for educational research because it is process-oriented, flexible, and adaptable to changes in evolving educational circumstances (Hammersley, 2004). A unique feature of this study is that it documents the participants’ ongoing perspectives and feelings about classroom practices and participation over an extended period of time from a pre-sessional EAP

course to an MSc Marketing programme, and is thus able to gradually reveal various struggles and personal transformations, which are elaborated upon by certain participants.

Despite the inherent benefits of conducting case study, there are some limitations of which subsequent researchers should be aware. Burns (2000) points out that it is easy for case study researchers to allow personal views to influence the interpretation of the findings and conclusions. Having verbatim accounts of what participants say rather than researchers' reconstructions of the general sense of what the participants say could alleviate this potential problem regarding researchers' personal perspectives influencing the reporting (Silverman, 2001). Although the participants' verbatim interview transcripts were cross-checked and validated by the participants, the interpretation of their classroom experience was undeniably value-laden based on my knowledge and experience of studying in the UK. This experience, however, did help me to understand their perspectives better. Mason (2002) suggests that it is important for researchers to ensure they interpret the data in meaningful and sensitive ways, rather than imposing their own interpretation inappropriately or without justification. Discussions regarding the validity and reliability of this study are considered in greater depth in Section 3.6.

To conclude, case study enables me to focus on a particular unit of investigation, and to attain valuable and unique insights about that instance in depth. It is advisable for case study researchers to have clear aims and objectives for the undertaken study and to understand the rationale underlying case study before employing this method so that they can produce balanced and sufficiently rigorous results.

3.3 Research sites

This study was undertaken at a British university in the Language Unit and the Management Centre located on the main campus. It is important for case study researchers to gain access to research sites by seeking the approval of 'gatekeepers'. Denscombe (2002) defines 'gatekeepers' as the persons who can grant permission and allow access to the research site because they exercise institutional authority to permit or deny access. The directors of the pre-sessional EAP course and MSc Marketing

programme were the key gatekeepers who allowed me to gain access to the participants and classroom observations because they realised that my study could be potentially beneficial for academic staff who taught international students in their courses. The pre-session course director was very helpful and supportive in providing some information about the incoming Thai students taking the course and suggested tutors who I could contact. I was interested in meeting the tutors who taught speaking and listening classes, which aimed to promote students' speaking and listening skills for postgraduate study because the students would be expected to engage in listening and speaking tasks. I contacted five tutors and explained my study to them. They agreed to allow me to sit in the class and take notes as they taught. I also informed the other overseas students to gain their permission to observe the classes. I was, however, aware of the 'observer's paradox' that might impact on their natural classroom behaviours. I attempted to be as quiet and unobtrusive as possible by sitting in the corner. As time passed, some students told me that they had barely noticed that I was there, so my presence in the classrooms did not appear to affect natural classroom behaviours.

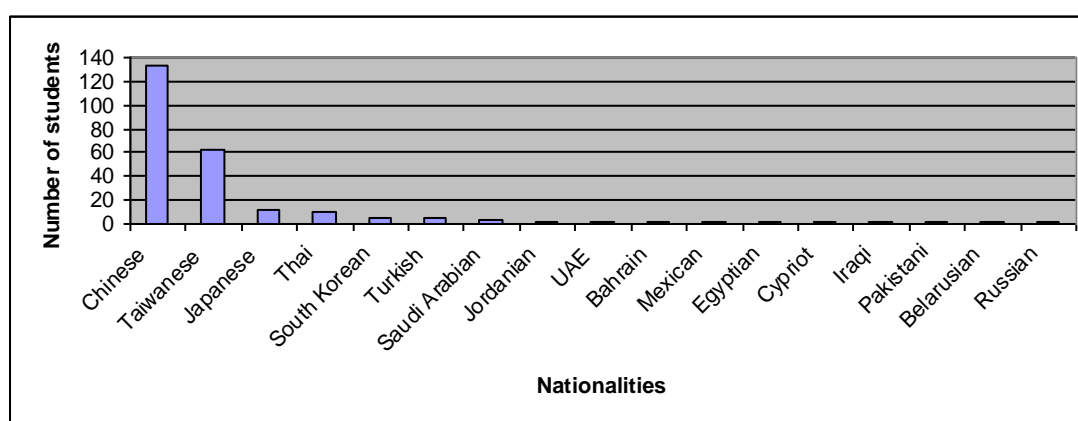
The process of contacting the director in the MSc Marketing programme was done in a similar manner and it was agreed that I could conduct my research once written informed consent had been obtained from my research participants. Following the submission of the consent forms, the director introduced me to course tutors who also agreed to support the study. Thus, before classes began I went to inform lecturers and postgraduate students in classes that I was a research student and wanted to observe the Thai students in the class. They agreed and again I sat in the back corner of the lecture theatre taking notes. Some students sometimes asked me about my presence, but once I had explained the situation they allowed me to continue taking notes and appeared to pay little attention to me.

3.3.1 The Language Unit

The Language Unit offers language courses to overseas students throughout the year. My research focuses on listening and speaking classes in the EAP course, which the Thai students enrolled on for 10 weeks between July and September 2005. Overseas students are required to have International English Language Testing System (IELTS) 5.5 in order to take the course. This course prepares overseas students for academic

degree programmes at the university. They are taught the language and study skills needed for taking part in seminars, lectures, group projects, research and essay writing. There are classes on listening to lectures and note-taking, presentation skills, discussion skills, library skills, grammar, vocabulary, style in academic writing, reading academic texts and using these combined skills to write a research assignment. There are two types of assessment. For new students, there is a test at the beginning of the course, so that suitable materials can be provided to students to help them find their individual strengths and weaknesses.

The participants were grouped into five separate classes according to their English proficiency with different language tutors. Each class focused mainly on speaking and listening skills because it primarily aimed to enable students to practice the skills required for oral participation. Each class consisted of approximately fifteen students, whose backgrounds and goals for taking a master's programme were different. However, the majority of the class were Mainland Chinese students. The bar graph below illustrates the overall number of students by nationality:



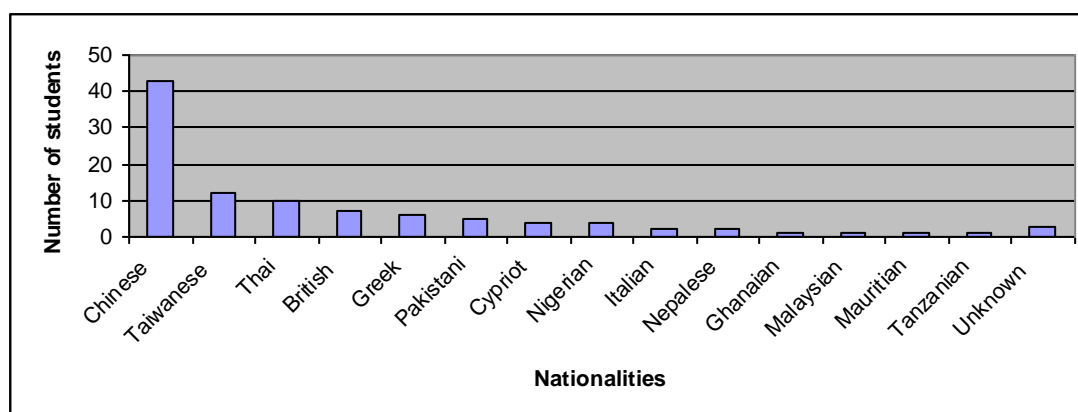
(Source: The Language Unit Student Database, 2007)

Figure 3.1: Number of pre-session EAP students (July-September 2005) by nationality

3.3.2 The Management Centre

Having successfully completed the pre-session EAP course, all the Thai students in the study were eligible to enrol on the MSc in Marketing at the Management Centre. There were a number of postgraduate students who were not required to take the pre-session EAP course because their IELTS score was higher than 6.5, which was the

minimum requirement for entry to the programme. It should, however, be noted that the Thai students who enrolled on the postgraduate programme but did not take the pre-session EAP course were not included in the data sample of this study. Students on the Marketing programme were not required to have a relevant academic background and professional experience. Lectures were usually held in a lecture theatre that could house approximately 150 students, which was ten times larger than the pre-session classes. There was an induction programme during the first week, which aimed to outline key themes of the programme and give initial guidance about various academic skills such as reading and writing for effective study. The core modules for the first semester that they had to take were: Foundations of Knowledge and Professional Skills, Principles and Practices of Marketing, Marketing Theory, Consumer Behaviour, and Market Research. There was a tutorial group led by the programme leader during the Foundations of Knowledge and Professional Skills module in order to enable students to work together, to develop their interpersonal skills, to share experiences and to support each other's learning. During the second semester, they took core modules, which were Product Policy and Innovation, Branding and Communication, and Research Methods, and two elective courses, such as, Human Resource Management, International Marketing, and Consumption and Culture. After completing these modules, they wrote their dissertation on topics of interest. The dissertation study is not investigated in this study because the research participants did not have to attend any classes for this section of the course and some had to return to Thailand to collect data. There were approximately 93 students, whose average age was twenty-four from the 15 nationality groups shown in the bar graph below:



(Source: Marketing and Admissions Office, Management Centre, 2007)

Figure 3.2: Number MSc Marketing students in 2005/06 by nationality

3.4 Data Collection

Data were collected in two different time frames: first, during the summer from July – September 2005 for the prerequisite EAP course and second, during the postgraduate academic year from October 2005 - April 2006. The main research tool was a semi-structured interview which will be discussed below.

3.4.1 Semi-structured interview

A semi-structured interview is best suited to a case study because the researcher can adapt the main questions to suit people's complementary roles, and can explore their different perspectives in depth (Drever, 1995). Keats (2000) defines an interview as a controlled situation in which one person, the interviewer, asks a series of questions to another person, the respondent. Cohen *et al.* (2000) view interview as a two-person conversation initiated by the interviewer for the specific purpose of gaining research-relevant information based on research objectives of systematic description, prediction, or explanation. It is also a technique for gaining insight into the thoughts, emotions, plans, motives, and expectations which contribute to the uniqueness of each individual (Krizmanic, 1990). Arksey and Knight (1999) claim that whilst a semi-structured interview uses a specific set of questions it also allows the researcher to deviate from the interview schedule and ask additional more probing questions to follow-up particular responses. Since a semi-structured interview is less structured, it allows an interviewer and interviewees to pursue topics of interest which may not have been foreseen when the questions were originally drawn up (Cohen *et al.*, 2000).

A series of semi-structured interviews were conducted between July 2005 and April 2006. Each Thai participant was interviewed six times. During the pre-sessional EAP course, I interviewed the participants three times in July 2005; August 2005 and September 2005. Regarding the MSc Marketing programme, I interviewed the participants at the beginning of the academic year (October 2005), at the end of the autumn term (December 2005), and at the end of spring term (April 2006).

The semi-structured interview schedule was underpinned by the theoretical and analytical frameworks which aimed to understand Thai participants' perceptions of

their spoken English and that of their tutors and classmates, and how these perceptions impacted upon their positioning in whole-class and group discussions. Samples of interview questions included ‘What do you think about your English abilities?’, ‘What opportunities do you have to use English?’, ‘What did you think about your classmates’ participation?’, ‘What did you think about your tutors’ instruction?’ The complete interview schedule is included in Appendix 1. Additional questions were derived from classroom observation field notes and English speaking logs which are discussed in detail in sections 3.4.2 and 3.4.3.

During the EAP course the main purposes of the first set of interviews were: to find out about the participants’ educational, professional, and other relevant background and; to understand their attitudes towards speaking English with regard to classroom participation and social interaction. Arksey and Knight (1999) state that interviews can explore people’s perceptions of cultures, which could provide personal, private, and special understandings of the individuals. In the second and third set of interviews, the participants were asked to reflect on their studies and lives in general, discuss their experiences on their course and also comment on several topics related to classroom participation, academic needs, and their English language development. Seale *et al.* (2004) mention that interviews can penetrate and produce current cultural experiences and knowledge about an interviewee. Before the master’s programme, the initial interview was conducted to gain information on their experiences in their speaking examination, vacations, and expectations of the master’s programme, tutors, and other students whom they were going to work with for the whole academic year. The latter two sets of interviews investigated their perceptions regarding their engagement in classroom and group discussions during their postgraduate study. The interviews were conducted and tape-recorded in locations chosen by the participants such as bedrooms or kitchens and lasted about an hour. They were conducted in Thai or English or both depending on the preferences of the participants. All the interviews were transcribed and translated by me and the transcripts were sent back to the participants for validation and returned for analysis. A sample transcript is included in Appendix 2.

A semi-structured interview allowed me to have a specific agenda to follow and to select relevant topics and themes to pursue in advance. Keats (2000) points out that

additional information can be obtained by probing the initial responses which gives richness to the data in order to reveal more about the interviewees' opinions and reasoning. I was able to improvise follow-up questions and to explore meanings and areas of interest as they arose. An example of this is illustrated in the extract below, where Julie explains her views on participation in group discussions:

Julie's interview transcripts (original in English, 03/04/06):

Stage 1: Initial interview question

30 K: What did you learn from group discussions?

31 J: From group discussion?

32 K: Yeah when you had a group discussion.

33 J: We can share opinion and we can practice English language. It's good.

34 I think so. This one is very good for a group discussion. But just some

35 some options are not. I think only two options we got group discussion.

36 Yeah, it's useful for me.

Stage 2: Questions following up the initial response

37 K: So it's useful in terms of you share opinions?

38 J: You share opinion and you can practice English language. Maybe it's

39 useful for you in career in the future. You have to discuss always

40 about the topic or about maybe the business. It's very good.

41 K: You said you share knowledge, you share opinion.

42 J: Yeah.

Stage 3: Additional questions to gain further information

43 K: So in the discussion, if there are different opinions, how did you
44 deal with it?

45 J: For me, my habit always argue with somebody. Yep. I mean we will
46 discuss this one is my opinion, why you think that, why me think that
47 and share opinion together.

Stage 4: Finishing off question for confirmation

48 K: When you share opinion, if you don't agree with someone, how did
49 you deal with it?

50 J: *I'll tell something about my opinion with them. Why I think that and*
51 *have reasons to support my idea.*

The extracts above show how a semi-structured interview allows interviewees to express their views on a wide range of issues (Walford, 2001).

3.4.1.1 Role of interviewer

In this section, I would like to explore my role as an interviewer since I alone was involved in the data collection and analysis for this study. Though I was responsive to the situation during interviews and attempted to produce a valid and reliable transcript and findings, I could unintentionally make mistakes by allowing my bias to affect the study. Janesick (2000) suggests that bias in qualitative research is inevitable because the researcher is the primary instrument of the research so the data he or she gathers will be biased regardless of the research method employed. I experienced pressures from a semi-structured interview as an interviewer because I had to 'think on my feet' since the interview was conducted in real time. I also had to be aware of some ambiguities in the participants' responses and ask for confirmation. Bell (1993) points out that a semi-structured interview is a highly subjective technique and therefore there is always the danger of bias because the interviewer's manner may have an effect on the respondents. Keats (2000) mentions that the response of an interviewee may be influenced by the emotional impact or the perceived purpose of an interviewer. My values could unwittingly have impinged upon the interview and the participants might not realise the extent to which I was dominating or controlling their opinions. The interviewee can thus either tell the interviewer what she thinks the interviewer wants to know, or consider issues in terms of what he or she truly thinks (Walker, 1993). The extract below could illustrate how I might impose opinions in the questions that could affect Julie's responses:

Julie's interview transcripts (original in English, 03/04/06):

Stage 1: Initial question

310 K: *What observations do you have about your classmate's*
311 *participation?*

312 J: *My classmate?*

This initial question presupposed that Julie knew what was meant by ‘classmate’ or who should be considered as her classmate because there were a lot of students on her course and she did not share classes with all of them. Thus, I clarified what I meant in the following stage.

Stage 2: Clarification for Julie’s unsure with the question

313 K: Yeah. You know some students discussing in class. What do you
314 think about that?

315 J: You mean all of my MSc Marketing or only my group or...

Although I thought the clarification I made would be sufficient for her to understand, she made a further distinction between those students who were in her class and those in her group. I then had to make a decision based on my first intention to find out her perceptions of students’ participation in the class, which is demonstrated in the next stage:

Stage 3: Further clarification for Julie’s unsure with the question

316 K: Well, the ones in your marketing class. What do you think?

317 J: Some people have strong idea. You know what does I mean. And
318 sometimes difficult to explain something.

It should be noted that Julie and I share the same native language, the Thai language, but in this interview, Julie preferred to answer in English. Keats (2000) suggests that the research interview should be conducted in the respondent’s preferred language. Line 317 ‘You know what does I mean’ demonstrates that she was unsure with her response and subsequently developed a strategy to confirm my understanding, and thus it was important for me not to take her responses for granted and to ensure that I understood what she tried to say in order to avoid confusion and misunderstanding in the interview.

3.4.2 English speaking log

The concept of the English speaking log is similar to a diary study, which is considered to be an important introspective tool as it represents first-person

observations of learning experiences recorded over a period of time (Burgess, 1984). However, Nunan (1992) notes that diarists need to make careful records of the situations in which they are involved because these records will be used to explore and explain the social world of schools, classrooms, teachers and pupils. Another advantage of the log is that the participants can write them wherever and whenever they wish. Corti (1993) suggests that the period over which a diary is to be kept needs to be long enough to capture the behaviour or events of interest without interfering with its successful completion. However, the log was a modification of a diary, comprised of tables rather than plain paper sheets so that the participants would find it easier to complete. Each log sheet was designed as a weekly record with seven blank grids with given dates and guidance regarding situations when they encountered conversations with people in their social contexts. The sheet was provided to each participant at the beginning of each month from 18th July 2005 – 2nd April 2006. An example is included in Appendix 3. Thus, each participant received thirty-four log sheets in total. The aim of this ‘English Speaking Log’ was to allow the participants to record their class participation when I was unable to observe them, as well as, their speaking opportunities in social contexts such as when meeting people in the city centre, asking for directions, and discussing daily activities with housemates. It should be noted that the ‘English Speaking Log’ used during the pre-sessional EAP course was later modified when used during the MSc Marketing programme (Appendix 4) because I recognised that the participants needed more space to write about their daily lives. These logs were used to prompt interview questions in order to gain more information on different speaking opportunities. All the logs were collected at the end of each month and carefully read through to find out what types of situations and conversations Thai participants encountered in their social contexts. These situations could include discussing in small groups, participating in classrooms, chatting with flatmates, asking for directions when travelling, and conversing with shop assistants. These situations illustrate the extent to which Thai participants had opportunities to socialise within different contexts and communities which might enable them to recognise various opportunities for language use and different varieties of language. It should be noted that each participant recorded different aspects of their social lives, and thus some could record a number of issues whereas others might not have anything at all to report.

The following is an example taken from Julie's transcripts demonstrating how the English speaking log was used to prompt interview questions. On 20th October 2005, Julie wrote in her log that:

*I discuss about methodology assignment in my group at the university.
I asked my friend 'Can you explain the question 2 for us?' 'Why do
you think that?'*

After reading her log, I prepared an interview question regarding the discussion in her group as follows:

Julie's interview transcripts (English translation, 04/01/06):

104 K: *How about a group discussion?*

105 J: *We talked as usual. There was not any Thai student in a group. There*
106 *were Cypriot, Taiwanese, and Chinese, which automatically provided*
107 *me a chance to speak English. I had meetings with them and had*
108 *problems. Sometimes I couldn't understand them because the content*
109 *of the subject was quite difficult. I had marketing background. I tried*
110 *to explain to them but I found it difficult to do so because my English*
111 *was not good. I told them that if they were Thai people, I'd be able to*
112 *explain it better in Thai. But I explained it in English, I had to divide*
113 *my explanation into sentences and explain them step by step.*

This illustrates how the English speaking log helped me to become aware of certain activities in her class so that I could gain more insights from Julie in the semi-structured interviews. Although thirty-four log sheets were provided for each participant, some of them were not fully completed or left blank because the participants found it difficult to keep up with them and felt that they had nothing write. It should be noted that there were times, such as reading weeks and exam periods, and Christmas and Easter breaks when most Thai students went back to Thailand or travelled to other cities or countries, and as a result, they did not record anything. The average rate of completed logs was approximately 48%, and thus the percentage of completed English speaking logs for each participant is presented on page 66.

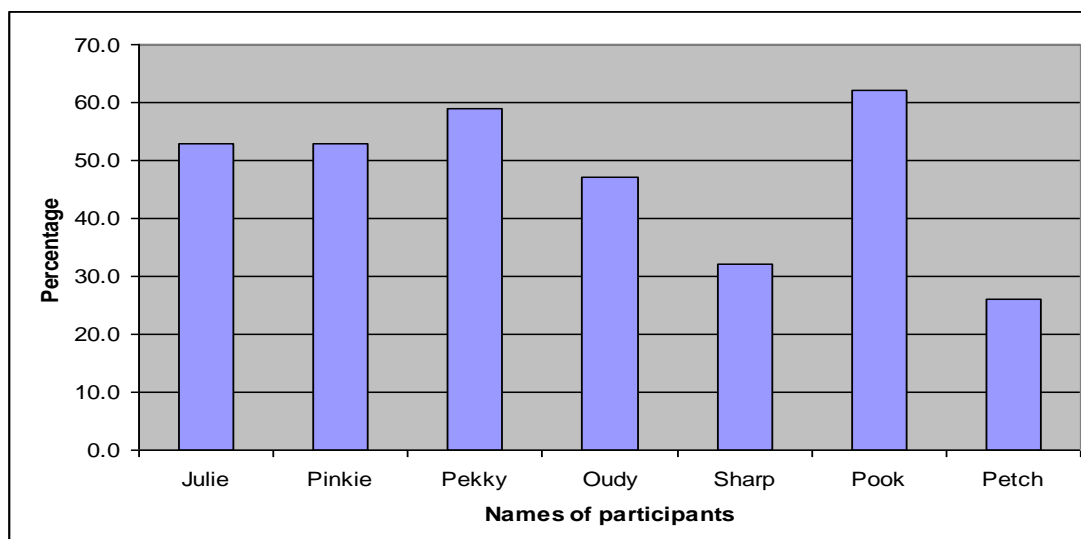


Figure 3.3: Percentage of completed English speaking logs per participant

It is evident that although the use of the logs enabled me to obtain information on the participants' experiences that I could not observe, it was sometimes rather ineffective because they found it demanding and time-consuming to sustain recording their day-to-day classroom engagement and social encounters. The limitation of English speaking logs is discussed in section 7.3.2, Chapter 7. However, classroom observation could counterbalance the drawbacks of the logs, which will be discussed next.

3.4.3 Classroom observation

Classroom observation was useful in this study because, as Marshall and Rossman (2006) note, this method of research entails researchers documenting and describing actions and interactions by noting and recording the behaviour of participants in a given classroom setting. During the EAP course, I observed classes based on Thai students' groupings (i.e. Petch and Julie, Pinkie and Oudy, Pekky, Sharp, and Pook) once a week (through arrangements with their respective tutors). I allocated my classroom observation schedule from Mondays to Fridays, and thus each tutor was observed five times during the 10-week period from July-September 2005. It should be noted that there were two weeks I could not observe because this coincided with examination period. The table of a classroom observation schedule with respect to Thai participants' groupings in the pre-sessional EAP course is presented on page 67.

**Table 3.1: Classroom observation schedule in the pre-sessional EAP course
(July – September 2005)**

Thai participants' groupings	Dates and time of observation
Petch and Julie	15/08/05, 11:15 am. – 12: 45 pm. 16/08/05, 09:15 am. – 10:45 am. 25/08/05, 09:15 am. – 10:45 am. 09/09/05, 11:15 am. – 12:45 pm. 13/09/05, 09:15 am. – 10:45 am.
Oudy and Pinkie	22/08/05, 09:15 am. – 10:45 am. 26/08/05, 09:15 am. – 10:45 am. 02/09/05, 09:15 am. – 10:45 am. 08/09/05, 11:15 am. – 12:45 pm. 13/09/05, 11:15 am. – 12:45 pm.
Pekky	22/08/05, 11:15 am. – 12:45 pm. 02/09/05, 11:15 am. – 12:45 pm. 08/09/05, 09:15 am. – 10:45 am. 15/09/05, 11:15 am. – 12:45 am. 16/09/05, 11:15 am. – 12:45 pm.
Sharp	23/08/05, 09:15 am. – 10:45 am. 26/08/05, 11:15 am. – 12:45 pm. 01/09/05, 09:15 am. – 10:45 am. 06/09/05, 09:15 am. – 10:45 am. 12/09/05, 11:15 am. – 12:45 pm.
Pook	19/08/05, 09:15 am. – 10:45 am. 23/08/05, 11:15 am. – 12:45 pm. 31/08/05, 09:15 am. – 10:45 am. 01/09/05, 11:15 am. – 12:45 pm. 05/09/05, 09:15 am. – 10:45 am.

During the MSc Marketing programme from October 2005 – March 2006, logistically it was easier than the EAP course because the participants were more likely to enrol on the same compulsory and optional modules. The summary of classroom observation schedule is presented on pages 68-69.

**Table 3.2: Classroom observation schedule in the MSc Marketing programme
(October 2005 – March 2006)**

Terms	Modules	Dates and time of observation
Term 1	Foundation of Knowledge (compulsory)	04/10/05, 14:00 pm. – 16:30 pm. 05/10/05, 10:30 am. – 13.00 pm. 07/10/05, 13:30 pm. – 17.30 pm. 12/10/05, 16.00 pm. – 18.00 pm. 14/10/05, 13:30 pm. – 16.30 pm. 21/10/05, 13:30 pm. – 15:00 pm.
	Principles & Practice of Marketing (compulsory)	20/10/05, 13:30 pm. – 15:00 pm. 27/10/05, 13:30 pm. – 15:00 pm. 03/11/05, 13:30 pm. – 15.00 pm. 04/11/05, 13:30 pm. – 15:00 pm. 10/11/05, 13:30 pm. – 15:00 pm. 24/11/05, 13:30 pm. – 15:00 pm.
Term 2	Product Policy and Innovation (compulsory)	24/01/06, 13:30 pm. – 15:00 pm. 31/01/06, 13:30 pm. – 15:00 pm. 03/02/06, 09:30 pm. – 11:00 am. 03/02/06, 13:30 pm. – 15:00 pm. 07/02/06, 13:30 pm. – 15:00 pm. 10/02/06, 13:30 pm. – 15:00 pm.
	Branding and Communication (compulsory)	07/02/06, 09:30 am. – 11:00 am. 10/02/06, 09:30 am. – 11:00 am. 17/02/06, 09:30 am. – 11:00 am. 21/02/06, 09:30 am. – 11:00 am. 27/02/06, 09:30 am. – 11:00 am. 06/03/06, 09:30 am. – 13:00 pm.
	Human Resource Management (optional)	02/03/06, 13:30 pm. – 17:00 pm. 07/03/06, 13:30 pm. – 17:00 pm. 09/03/06, 13:30 pm. – 17:00 pm.

		21/03/06, 13:30 pm. – 17:00 pm. 23/03/06, 13:30 pm. – 17:00 pm.
	International Marketing (optional)	03/03/06, 13:30 pm. – 17:00 pm. 10/03/06, 13:30 pm. – 17:00 pm. 13/03/06, 13:30 pm. – 17:00 pm. 24/03/06, 13:30 pm. – 17:00 pm.
	Consumption and Culture (optional)	28/02/06, 09:30 am. – 13:00 pm. 07/03/06, 09:30 am. – 13:00 pm. 14/03/06, 09:30 am. – 13:00 pm. 20/03/06, 13:30 pm. – 17:00 pm. 27/03/06, 13:30 pm. – 17:00 pm. 29/03/06, 13:30 pm. – 17:00 pm.

Classroom observations allowed me to make notes regarding the participants' classroom engagement and oral participation, in addition to the information provided about this in the English speaking logs. According to 'naturalistic enquiry', a 'fly-on-the-wall' classroom observation technique enables researchers to 'see what happens' and not influence normally occurring patterns of instruction and interaction (McDonough and Shaw, 2003, p.229). I tried not to intervene or participate in any classroom activities with the Thai students in order to avoid affecting their classroom behaviours. I normally sat quietly in the back corner of the EAP class or lecture theatre and took notes. I used my observation field notes (see Appendix 5) to develop interview questions and gain their reflections in the interviews. The field notes were carefully read several times to find out salient classroom behaviours of each participant, and those of their tutors and their classmates in a particular session, which included the moments when they participated and did not participate in group and whole-class discussions, their sitting arrangements whether within the same or different groups from other Thai students, tutors' instruction and gestures, and classmates' participation. Although classroom observation was time-consuming, I was able to observe and explore the kinds of interpersonal relationships Thai students had with their tutors and peers, how these developed over time, and how such interpersonal relationships might affect participation.

The following example illustrates how I integrated my classroom observation field notes into an interview question:

On March 21st, 2006, I wrote in my observation field notes that:

Human Resource Management lesson took place in the Education Library Hall. The lecturer separated students into three groups, of which Julie was in a human resource manager group which would make policies regarding their expatriate employees.

I noticed that Julie seemed to enjoy the activity. Thus, I wanted to know more about what she thought about it, which I then asked her in the interview. This is detailed below:

Julie's interview transcripts (original in English, 03/04/06):

- 211 K: In one class of HRM, you were supposed to be a human resource
212 manager deciding policies for the expat, remember?
- 213 J: In the library hall?
- 214 K: In the library hall. How did you feel about that activity?
- 215 J: Very good. This activity is really good. Some people told me that it's
216 useless. But I think it's very good because we can learn. Yeah. If
217 you want to run the business, you have to encourage employees to do
218 it. How you can attract employees to stay with you. And you have to
219 give something for employees and employees give something to
220 employers as well. It's very useful.

The objective of using speaking logs and classroom observation was to feed into the interview schedule, which could allow me to explore my participants' views on classroom engagement and life experiences in the UK. The classroom observation and the interviews were effective because I could gain a greater understanding of their behaviour in the classroom from their reflections about their learning experiences in the interview.

3.4.4 Methodological Triangulation

This study not only employed a semi-structured interview, but also an English speaking log and classroom observation in order to illustrate to what extent methodological triangulation could potentially strengthen both the validity and reliability of the study, and also to confirm the emerging findings. Methodological triangulation is defined as the use of two or more methods of data collection in the study of some aspect of human behaviour (Cohen *et al.*, 2000). It can strengthen both validity and reliability by using multiple investigators, multiple sources of data, or multiple methods to confirm emerging findings (Silverman, 2001). Methodological triangulation, however, is not just about using as many different methods or sources of data collection as possible. The individual strengths and weaknesses of various methods must, first, be understood and secondly, the methods must be applied in such a way that these weaknesses are counterbalanced (Arksey and Knight, 1999). The interview questions were, therefore, mainly derived from the theoretical categories established in the literature review and also partially based upon what participants wrote in their English speaking logs and what I observed in their classrooms. It is important to try to blend and integrate the use of the three research tools by not simply designing a study that comprises distinct, mutually exclusive approaches, but by addressing issues from the participants' speaking logs and classroom observation, which needed further clarification during the semi-structured interviews.

3.5 Data analytical procedures

In this section, I will explain the data analytical procedures that enabled me to reduce a mass of interview transcripts to manageable amounts for data interpretation. Following Marshall and Rossman (2006), I undertook seven analytical stages: 1) organising the data; 2) immersing in the data; 3) generating categories and themes; 4) coding the data; 5) offering interpretations; 6) searching for alternative understandings; and 7) writing the findings. The process of data analysis is non-linear, time-consuming, and complex, and the approach adopted in each stage is explained further below.

First of all, the interview data were transcribed verbatim for each participant so they could be read and revisited when needed. In this way, I familiarised myself with the data and was so 'close' to the data that I was constantly reminded about people and events that impacted on the Thai students. As a result, it was possible to identify salient and recurring themes for each student. I then began to colour code and make notes on certain bits of transcripts that were relevant to the themes, such as the role of the teachers and classmates. I read through the transcripts several times to examine key issues affecting each Thai student's classroom participation in both the EAP and MSc Marketing classrooms. Then I compared them across the seven students to summarise the common themes and reflected on these. During this process, other relevant issues, such as, the role of social interactions and class size, emerged from the data. The common factors affecting Thai students' participation in EAP classrooms were: teaching styles and methods, and tutors' perceived expectations of student participation; the roles of classmates in terms of peer relationships and linguistic diversity; Thai students' identities and agency; and the role of social interactions, which were interrelated within the multilingual classroom contexts. In addition, in the Marketing classroom, the large size of the class influenced decisions regarding classroom participation.

3.6 Validity and reliability of the thesis

Validity and reliability are of great importance to the quality of case study research (Yin, 2003). Validity is viewed as the extent to which an account accurately represents the social phenomena to which it refers; reliability is the degree of consistency with which instances are assigned to the same category by different observers or by the same observer on different occasions (Silverman, 2001). A case study approach, however, may be accused of lacking in rigour as it produces 'soft' qualitative data and employs interpretive methods rather than quantitative, statistical procedures (Denscombe, 2003). Yin (2003) claims that case study research may lack quantification, objectivity, and rigour because it relies on the personal interpretation of data and inferences. This section will discuss the validity and reliability issues regarding the trustworthiness of the interview transcripts, the interpretation of the findings, and the generalisability of the study and its findings.

Firstly, establishing the trustworthiness of the transcripts would appear to be a fundamental component of rigorous qualitative research (Poland, 1995). Transcripts provide a permanent record of research data that can be searched, re-interpreted, collected, and shared with other researchers in order to improve validity and reliability (Grundy *et al.*, 2003). Lapadat and Lindsay (1998) suggest that the process of transcription promotes familiarity with the data. It has become standard practice to return transcripts to participants for participant review (Silverman, 2001). The transcripts in this thesis were read and validated by the participants several times during the process of transcribing and translating, and that helped to ensure that these transcripts truly represented their perspectives. Selectivity of data transcription could be critical because the researcher's choice regarding the way to select and arrange transcribed data could reflect certain *a priori* assumptions (Seale, 1999). Mason (2002) reminds researchers not to assume that transcription provides an objective record of interviews and encourages them to make a record of their own observations, interpretations and experiences of the interview. My knowledge of the Thai language and experience of translating Thai texts into English were also beneficial in this process of translating and transcribing the interview data because they could enhance and demonstrate the soundness of the study.

Secondly, the meanings represented in the data had to be interpreted in a reliable manner. The verbatim transcripts were very useful because I could capture each point the participants tried to make during the interview, which could be relevant for the findings. Hitchcock and Hughes (1995) point out that data only speak through the interpreter. The interpretation, however, will be different according to the researcher's own experience. Mason (2002) suggests that it is important for researchers to ensure that they interpret data in meaningful and sensitive ways, rather than imposing their own interpretation inappropriately or without justification. As has been noted previously, the interpretation of the interview data in this study was value-laden, based on my knowledge and experience of studying in the UK, but this in turn helped me better to understand the perspectives of the Thai students. Hughes (2003) mentions that the validity of findings can be maintained by ensuring that researchers do not over-generalise; recognise the limitations of the research; and openly declare the material factors which impact upon the addressed research topic.

The final issue regarding the validity and reliability in this thesis is the extent to which its findings can be generalised. Due to the intrinsic and naturalistic features of case study, it fails to meet the quantitative research criteria of generalisability (McDonough and McDonough, 1997). As has been noted, case study researchers should aim to expand theories but not aim for statistical generalisation (Burns, 2000; Yin, 1993). They also need to be careful to alleviate the doubts of their readers and other researchers and to demonstrate the extent to which the case in question is similar to, or contrasts with, others of its type (Denscombe, 2003). Although the purposive selection of the participants in this thesis decreased the generalisability of the findings, Dawson (2002) claims that purposive sampling is used when description rather than generalisation is the goal of the research. This thesis explicitly states that the findings might not be generalisable because different Thai students have different perceptions of their classroom participation in British university contexts. Similar studies are encouraged, however, because they could extend our understanding about Thai students' experiences in the UK. Drever (1995) mentions that case study can aim at quite detailed understanding of the factors at work in a particular case without assuming that any other cases will be the same. Lincoln and Guba (1985), however, suggest that to enhance these concepts of generalisability, the researcher has to provide a detailed description of the study's context, which must specify everything that a reader may need to know in order to understand the findings. As a result, case study researchers should provide readers with interpretations and descriptions of their case, which could allow readers to make their own generalisations (Stake, 1995). Though case study is very often not representative and hence the findings may apply only to the instance studied, it can be a useful starting point for further research.

3.7 Ethical issues

As a researcher, I was aware of potential ethical issues that could appear at every stage of the research process. I had an obligation to respect the rights, needs, values, and desires of the participants. The use of interview as the data collection method in this study raised a number of general ethical issues. The interview is a penetrating device, which significantly requires protection for the participant (Walker, 1993). In this study, informed consent was given in written form (see Appendix 6). Sturman (1999) mentions the negotiation between the researchers and the researched may take

the form of an official contract or may involve discussions concerning the content of written reports. Mason (2002) also notes that some ethical issues, such as an informed consent, anonymity and confidentiality, can be anticipated in advance; however, some issues such as transcript validation require the researchers to make intellectual and practical decisions on the spot. It is, therefore, important to be prepared for the range of possible ethical issues that might arise and to consider possible responses to participants. The next section will provide information regarding each Thai participant's biography, educational backgrounds, goals, and expectations about studying in a British university.

3.8 Research participants

This section will introduce the seven Thai participants in this study. It was important to find a sufficient number of students for the study in case some of them decided to drop out during the lengthy research process which lasted from July 2005 until April 2006. Stake (1995) states that case study researchers select cases that they can learn the most from; they may also select cases which are most accessible, and ones they can spend time with. I had initial contact with Pekky, one of the participants, via e-mails (I obtained her address from existing Thai students in the University), and she introduced me to the others. In mid-July 2005, I met all participants (five females and two males) when they first arrived at the university. Initially, they were rather apprehensive about taking part in the study because they had never participated in any research before and did not know what to expect. Once they had been assured of their rights and given details of the study, they agreed to participate because they realised the importance of the study, which could potentially contribute to new knowledge regarding the perceptions of Thai students studying in a British university. Bell (1993) suggests that people will agree to participate in research only if they know exactly what they will be asked to do, how much time they will be expected to give and what use will be made of the information they provide.

The following information on my participants is based on the initial semi-structured interviews which took place during the first week of their pre-sessional EAP course in mid-July 2005. The perceptions of each one regarding their biography, educational background, work experiences, English language competence, reasons to study in the

UK, expectations of a pre-sessional EAP course and a postgraduate programme are presented. Pseudonyms are used for all names of participants.

3.8.1 Julie

Julie was born and raised in Chachoengsao, a city in Eastern Thailand. After earning a Bachelor's degree in Marketing, she moved to London for six months to take a language course in order to improve her English, and then returned to Thailand. She found taking the language course in London useful because she had to use English at all times. Upon her return to Thailand, she planned to study for a postgraduate degree in San Francisco in the USA. However, her parents insisted she study in the UK since her elder sister had received a postgraduate degree from a British university. They also believed that the UK was safe and the programme lasted only a year. The university also had a good ranking for Marketing. As there were not many Thai students studying in this location, it also meant that she could speak English more than Thai so she felt she would be able to improve her English more effectively. However, she was particularly concerned about her English pronunciation. She expected to pass the pre-sessional EAP course to allow her to enroll on her postgraduate degree programme and also believed that if she could pass the language course, she could pass the postgraduate degree as well. She noticed that there were a lot of overseas students at the university, which meant that she would have more chances to speak English with non-native speakers of English rather than native ones. However, she thought that speaking English to overseas students could also improve her English. She was open to all opportunities to practice her English both in classrooms and social contexts.

3.8.2 Pinkie

Pinkie was born in Bangkok. Having recently been awarded her bachelor's degree in Social Work from a Thai university, she had no work experience prior to her arrival in the UK. She chose to study in this particular British university because of its ranking and because it provided a pre-sessional language course. Even though her educational background was a BA in Social Work, she wished to complete a postgraduate degree in Marketing. It was her dream to study abroad because she could become more

independent from her family. Because she was the youngest in the family, she wanted to prove to her parents that she could take care of herself while living in the UK, and also believed that living in Britain would allow her to have opportunities to speak English in her daily life. Although she spoke English with Taiwanese and Chinese students more than British ones, she believed that she could improve her fluency by speaking English. She expected her writing to improve in the EAP course. She wanted to participate in group discussions to share ideas as well as listen to others' ideas and suggestions from discussion.

3.8.3 Pekky

Pekky had successfully completed a degree in Mass Communication, had a year's work experience in a design company and three years as a marketing manager at a sports centre in Bangkok where she was born and raised. In this job she dealt with English-speaking company partners as part of customer services; however, she did not have to speak English every day. After leaving the job, she took a language course in Australia for 6 months because she initially planned to do her postgraduate degree there but later decided against this because the programme duration was longer than the one in the UK. While living and studying in the UK, she aimed to make new friends, meet other people, and be independent. She nevertheless claimed that she had a few speaking problems, such as a limited vocabulary, lack of fluency, and an accent as she described as 'not good'. As a result, she felt uncomfortable speaking English with British people or people who did not try hard to understand her, and that made her lose confidence and discouraged her from speaking. She expected that the pre-session course would improve her academic skills, such as presentation skills, report writing and project work, listening, and everyday conversation.

3.8.4 Oudy

Oudy was born in Nakhon Sri Thammarat, a city in Southern Thailand, but now she lives in Bangkok. Like Pekky, Oudy took an EAP course in Melbourne, Australia and planned to study for her postgraduate degree in that country. Although the cost of living in Australia was relatively inexpensive, she decided to study in the UK because Australian institutions required a few years of work experience but she only had one year of experience as a marketing officer in a commercial bank. She found it beneficial for her to take a pre-session course prior to taking an MSc course because

she did not have to retake IELTS. Without having been to the UK, it was important for her to have a community of Thai friends who could provide help and support when she had problems with her study and daily life. She had two major concerns: writing a dissertation; and living in student accommodation. However, she wanted to participate in extra-curricular activities, such as travelling and working part-time. If she knew someone well, she wanted to speak to them in English. She would, however, feel uncomfortable talking with strangers because she was worried about her grammar.

3.8.5 Sharp

Working for nine months as a marketer in a Japanese-owned company in Thailand, Sharp was responsible for creating marketing strategies and sales promotions. He chose to study in this British university because his girlfriend studied in a nearby city. He was worried that his English language skills might be a constraint on his academic study. He soon realised, however, that he could overcome the problem and complete the degree. He expected to gain more experience in marketing and everyday life. He perceived his spoken English to be fair because he had been able to communicate with his previous Japanese boss in the language. He felt uncomfortable speaking English to native speakers because it was hard for him to understand what they said due to their pronunciation. He realised that he would have more chances to speak English with overseas students. He had to speak English with ‘locals’ when travelling to visit his girlfriend and thought that it was easy for him to have short conversations. He hoped that the EAP course would help him improve his English language skills.

3.8.6 Pook

Born in Nakhon Pathom, a province in Central Thailand, Pook had a year of work experience as a customer services officer in a freight forwarder company in Bangkok, which gave her the opportunity to speak English with her Taiwanese boss, though his English was very hard to understand. She chose to study in the UK because her brother previously did his Master’s degree in the UK and she had visited him during this time. She chose this university because of its ranking. She thought the city was too quiet and would like to study in a bigger city where she could go shopping. She

had experienced ‘culture shock’ and had had a negative experience at the airport when an officer had treated her badly by shouting at her loudly. She thought that her spoken English was poor because she could not completely express her feelings in English. Sometimes she wanted to talk a lot about different topics but could not do so as she had to think in Thai first. However, she expected that the EAP course would help her to improve her English skills, and would enable her to make new friends. She wanted to participate in classroom discussion as she could offer ideas. Although during the first few weeks of her stay, she felt homesick and was unsure whether she should continue her studies, she had managed to overcome her personal problems, such as homesickness and anxiety, because of the positive encouragement she had received from her mother.

3.8.7 Petch

Despite having a degree in Political Science, Petch worked as a television producer for three years, and as an account co-ordinator in an advertising company for a year and a half. He decided to study in the UK because he was informed by his girlfriend and sister about the course. Not having too many expectations or fears about studying in England, he was more interested in getting to know British people and understand their cultures, and thus he enjoyed going out and working part-time in a Thai restaurant because he could have more chances to speak English. However, he believed that he would speak English with non-native speakers more than British native ones as it would be difficult for him to socialise with British people since Thai people had different lifestyles. Although his writing and speaking skills were weak, his listening and reading skills were not problematic for him. He was enthusiastic about participating in classroom discussions as he recognised that he had come here to improve his English.

A summary of the Thai participants is provided in Table 3.3 on page 80. The section after this discusses the significance of me building relationships with these research participants to help achieve the aims of this study.

Table 3.3: Summary of the Thai Participants

	Julie	Pinkie	Pekky	Oudy	Sharp	Pook	Petch
Age	23	22	26	25	23	25	26
Gender	Female	Female	Female	Female	Male	Female	Male
First language	Thai	Thai	Thai	Thai	Thai	Thai	Thai
Degree	BA (Marketing)	BA (Social Work)	BA (Mass communication)	BA (Economics)	BA (Anthropology and Sociology)	BA (Arts, major in English)	BA (Political Sciences)
Professional experience	None	None	Advertising Marketing manager at Sports Complex	Marketing officer at a bank	Marketing officer at a Japanese company	Customer service at an international freight company	Advertising/ TV producer
IELTS overall, Speaking Listening	5.5 6 4.5	5.5 5 6	6 6 6	6 6 6	5.5 5 6	5.5 5 6	6 6 7
Reasons for studying in the UK	1 year master's programme	1 year master's programme	1 year master's programme	1 year master's programme	1 year master's programme	1 year master's programme	1 year master's programme
Reasons for studying in this University	Good ranking; Few Thai students	Good ranking; Pre-requisite EAP course	Pre-requisite; EAP course	Cost of living; Pre-requisite EAP course; Few Thai students	Good ranking	Good ranking; but prefers to study in bigger cities	Pre-requisite EAP course
Perceptions of one's speaking performance	Not good	Quite good	Not very good	Good	Average	Poor	Average

In sum, there are similarities and differences among the Thai students in terms of their backgrounds, views and expectations of studying in the UK. They had different academic, language learning, and working backgrounds, which could impact on their perceptions of their spoken English. Although some had studied English in Western institutions, and others had been exposed to English while working in foreign companies, they all felt that there was room to improve their English language skills. They expected that a pre-sessional EAP course would equip them with relevant language skills for their postgraduate study. However, they were aware that they would be likely to have more chances to speak English with non-native speakers, such as Chinese and Taiwanese students due to the large number of these groups of students in their classroom contexts. Despite the differences, they were all determined to gain more knowledge in marketing and improving their English because they expected they would work in well-known international companies in Thailand which offered high salaries and benefits. Therefore, they would seek every possible channel of communication both inside and outside the classroom to improve their speaking proficiency.

3.9 My relationship with the participants

At the outset of this study, I attempted to build a close relationship with the participants to enable them to feel comfortable enough to share and discuss their classroom experiences, problems, issues, concerns, and difficulties. My position as a Thai student who had experienced living and studying in the university potentially helped to establish such a relationship: I was able to welcome them when they first arrived, introduce them to current students, and give them advice on their studies and living conditions. In many ways, I was an ‘insider’ since we shared the same language, lived in the same accommodation (except for one of the female participants who lived in a private house with her boyfriend), and usually gathered for frequent occasions such as friends’ birthdays and parties. At the same time, I was also an ‘outsider’ because I did not attend the courses as a regular student, and I was senior to them in terms of age (the significance of which I will explain next).

In this study, I was older than my participants, who would address me in terms of kinship in Thai as '*pee*', translated as 'senior' and 'elder brother', whereas I would address them as '*nong*', translated as 'junior' or 'younger brother or sister' or by their nicknames. This *pee/nong* relationship was informal, friendly, and did not represent rigid or hierarchical power structures. This could potentially benefit the study in many ways. Firstly, they could feel at ease when they wanted to share some problems about their studies or life with me and considered me as a friend rather than a superior with higher status. Secondly, we had developed a reciprocal relationship by seeking advice, information, and support, which I could provide and they in return were generous in terms of their availability for the interviews, log keeping, and transcript validation. Although they could have felt reluctant to give direct feedback to me during the interviews in particular because they wanted to be polite (which Holmes and Tangtongtavy (1995, as reported in Adamson, 2002) refer to as '*krengjai*', which could be translated as '*considerate*' or '*thoughtful*'), I reminded them not to feel hesitant and to say what they wanted to say because their openness could contribute to the findings of the study. In sum, my participants and I shared similar linguistic and cultural backgrounds, which promoted the relatively close, supportive, and reciprocal *pee/nong* relationships through our regular and frequent communications, and helped to contribute to the collaboration and completion of the research project.

3.10 Chapter summary

This chapter discusses the methodological issues involved in the study. The study is based on an interpretive/qualitative approach to achieve an in-depth understanding of Thai students' participation in multilingual classroom contexts and practices in a British university. The interpretive/qualitative approach not only enabled me to uncover more complex issues affecting Thai students' classroom participation but also gradually revealed changes in their personal developments and transformations as time progressed so I could arrive at informed interpretations based on their views. I employed case study as the research approach because I could focus on a particular group of seven Thai students in their natural classroom settings and this allowed me to develop a gradual understanding of the complex relationships and interactions they had with teachers and classmates in situated classroom contexts and practices. A

quantitative paradigm would not necessarily provide such ‘rich’ data. Seven Thai students were chosen on the basis of their intention to enrol on a pre-sessional EAP course in the Language Unit and MSc Marketing programmes in the Management Centre, which were the main research sites. They gave informed consent following appropriate research and ethical practices. The close ‘*pee/nong*’ relationships with my participants gradually developed, and enhanced the research process and data collection as the participants became more confident to express their views and feelings concerning their classroom practices and life experiences in the UK. The thesis employed a series of semi-structured interviews as a main research tool supplemented by English speaking logs and classroom observations, conducted from July 2005 to April 2006. The interviews were tape-recorded, transcribed, and translated from Thai to English when necessary. The transcripts were returned to participants for verification to enhance the validity and reliability of the study. The findings of this thesis, however, do not aim to be generalisable but rather offer a starting point for further research. The next two chapters consecutively present the findings with regard to participants’ participations in the EAP and MSc Marketing classroom contexts.

CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS FROM A PRE-SESSIONAL EAP COURSE

This chapter presents the main findings regarding Thai students' positioning during the pre-sessional EAP course drawing upon *multilingual classroom ecologies* (Creese and Martin, 2003), *identities in multilingual contexts* (Pavlenko and Blackledge, 2004) and *positioning theory* (Davies and Harré, 1990; Harré and van Langenhove, 1999). Based on the interview transcripts derived from the semi-structured interviews conducted in August and September 2005, four key factors are identified which impact upon the classroom participation of the Thai learners. The findings firstly suggest that EAP tutors offer students opportunities to practice speaking and listening skills with both tutors and classmates by avoiding teaching styles which may demoralise and suppress students' involvement and by creating supportive and encouraging classroom environments. Secondly, the influence of peer relationships and classmates' linguistic diversity is important as Thai students' classroom participation is contingent upon their perceptions of others' linguistic 'status' and familiarity with classmates. Thirdly, Thai students' personal identities and agency promote their participation and, by becoming more active, they feel able to accomplish their educational goals. Finally, there is an interdependence between the role of social interactions outside and inside the classroom which tutors could exploit in the classroom. These four main findings are interrelated and context-specific, and reveal a dynamic and complex classroom ecology during this pre-sessional EAP course.

This chapter is divided into four sections. The first section examines the impact of EAP tutors in terms of their teaching styles and methods, and their perceived expectations of student participation. In section two, the influence of peer relationships and classmates' linguistic diversity on Thai students' classroom participation is discussed. Section three reveals the effect of Thai students' personal identities and agency on their involvement in class and group discussions. Finally, the role of social interactions outside EAP classroom settings that enhances Thai students' confidence in classroom participation and raises their awareness towards different varieties of English is explored.

4.1 Impact of EAP Tutors

This section discusses the relationship between Thai students and their EAP tutors during their classroom interactions. This section firstly discusses EAP tutors' teaching styles and methods and then examines tutors' perceived expectations of student participation.

4.1.1 Tutors' Teaching Styles and Methods

How Thai students positively and negatively perceive the teaching styles and methods of EAP tutors are significant factors that influence whether they want to participate in classroom discussions, and that affects the ways Thai students position themselves and their tutors differently. The first tutor, Ann, teaches speaking and listening skills to Pinkie and Oudy and her classmates. Pinkie expresses eagerness to answer in class so it is important for Ann to notice this and provide them with equal opportunities to take part in discussions.

Extract 1

65 **K:** *Do you like when the tutor calls your name?*

66 **P:** *Yeah I like it because sometimes I want to speak but maybe someone*
67 *else wants to speak too. Ann will look at everyone and will know if*
68 *Oudy wants to say, Pinkie wants to say. She will ask 'What about you,*
69 *Pinkie?' 'What about you, Oudy?' She wants us to show our ideas.*
70 *That's okay. It's good.*

(Pinkie, Original in English, 11/09/05)

This extract represents how 'forced self/other-positioning' (Harré and van Langenhove, 1999, p.26) functions in the interview and classroom teaching storylines. The interview storyline is created during my interview with Pinkie. The interview question 'Do you like when the tutor calls your name?' 'forces' Pinkie to revisit her tutor's teaching style and express how she views her tutor. Ann is positively positioned as an 'understanding' tutor as her teaching style demonstrates her sensitivity to students' desire to participate in class. Pinkie also positions herself as a 'willing' learner and 'sensitive' peer with regard to classmates' participation. The classroom teaching storyline is created when Ann nominates Pinkie 'What about you,

Pinkie?’ (Lines 68-69), and illustrates a situation ‘forced self-positioning’ because Ann asks Pinkie to answer so Pinkie has to respond and take up the position as ‘knowledgeable’. The interaction is situated within the classroom moral order that Ann and Pinkie tacitly agree to perform their rights and duties in that particular classroom setting.

Ann also uses games as one of her teaching methods when she wants to focus on word stress. Through this, Pinkie realises that she cannot always place stress on English words correctly and this impacts on her intelligibility.

Extract 2

48 **K:** *Now you realise that that game makes you realise that speaking*
49 *English with a proper stress is important?*

50 **P:** *Yeah, for me. Because you stress at the wrong place, maybe*
51 *when I ask Ann some question and I stress at the wrong place, she*
52 *cannot understand.*

(Pinkie, Original in English, 11/09/05)

Ann also notes that it is a common problem for Thai people to mispronounce other sounds like /l/ and /r/.

Extract 3

95 **P:** *Yeah. Ann said Thai people have problems with /l/ and /r/.*

(Pinkie, Original in English, 12/08/05)

Ann’s perception and comment regarding Thai learners’ mispronunciation of /l/ and /r/ could have two effects on Pinkie’s identity options: ‘imposed’ and ‘assumed’ according to Pavlenko and Blackledge (2004). The ‘imposed’ identity option is available when she feels imposed upon as she may not be able to improve these two sounds which are considered difficult for Thai learners in general. The ‘assumed’ identity option can be taken up when Pinkie accepts that her English pronunciation is similar to the majority of Thai learners who are unable to pronounce these two sounds. This situation leads Pinkie to believe that to be a ‘legitimate’ speaker of English, she has to master ‘standard’ English pronunciation, and that is expected of postgraduate students.

Tutors' pedagogy focusing on students' pronunciation can, however, be positively perceived. Pekky comments that she likes her tutor's teaching style, in particular, the way she corrects her pronunciation mistakes because it shows that her tutor is paying attention to her during group discussions.

Extract 4

151 K: *When you have discussion with your friend, and she walks around.*
152 *Do you like that?*

153 P: *Because she tries to listen to your pronunciation. Some words you*
154 *pronounce not correct. She will correct for you. I think it's good.*

(Pekky, Original in English, 21/08/05)

Pekky positions her tutor as 'attentive'. Pekky's satisfaction regarding her tutor's explicit correction of her pronunciation suggests she has particular views concerning the 'standard' pronunciation of English. One of Haugen's (1972) ecological questions 'What are the attitudes of its users towards the language?' seems relevant here as Pekky's attitudes towards 'standard' English pronunciation, means she perceives her tutor's teaching style positively. When the tutor walks around the class, Pekky believes that her tutor particularly wants to correct her pronunciation rather than supervise the discussion. Extracts 2, 3, and 4 also suggest how EAP tutors' pedagogy can potentially impose linguistic ideologies on Thai learners who are likely to believe that speaking 'standard' English can lead to academic success in a British university.

Different teaching methods, such as, group work, pair work, are adopted to encourage student participation. Oudy enjoys studying in Ann's class and appreciates her classroom management because it allows her to develop her speaking and listening skills and discover her classmates' ideas.

Extract 5

61 O: *...One of the most significant point for me I think*
62 *now I can improve my English language because everyday when I*
63 *study in speaking and listening class with Ann. She usually gave me*
64 *to discuss in group. I mean in small group. So I can learn about how*
65 *to discuss in small group, how can we share the ideas together. So*
66 *maybe I can get ideas from other students.*

(Oudy, Original in English, 11/09/05)

Oudy can also develop positive interactive positioning with other group members as she views them as ‘knowledgeable’.

As well as dividing students into groups, Sharp’s tutor uses pair work to enable EAP learners to participate in discussions. Pair work leads Sharp to sit with the same group of Taiwanese and Japanese students whom he chats with on a regular basis.

Extract 6

18 S: *My tutor usually asks us to discuss with my partners. So I usually sit*
19 *with my same partners, whom I now feel very close with. They are*
20 *from Taiwan and Japan. The one on my left hand is called Betty. The*
21 *other one is called Makiko. We usually chat. For example, on Friday,*
22 *I will ask what they will do on the weekends and on Monday I will ask*
23 *how their weekends were. I also told them what I did, like when I*
24 *went shopping in Bicester.*

(Sharp, English translation, 11/08/05)

Sharp’s tutor allows students to pair freely with anyone, which enables him to interact with Taiwanese and Japanese peers not only about academic topics but also lifestyles. Communication in Sharp’s discussion group can be considered as reciprocal and mutual as each one has a chance to talk about their life experience, and this suggests they interactively position one another equally because they feel familiar with and comfortable discussing things with each other.

Tom, a tutor for Petch and Julie, also employs pair work to provide speaking opportunities. Petch believes that pair work is important because it involves co-operation with his partner in speaking and listening tasks and this is quite different from his learning experience in Thailand.

Extract 7

75 P: *This class is different from the one in Thailand because whatever*
76 *exercise we did, tutors never checked it. Just checked with our friends.*
77 *I think it’s good. In Thailand, it seemed silly to discuss answers with*
78 *friends. But here, I need to evaluate myself and I can’t guess the*
79 *answer. It’s necessary to participate with my friends. I paired with*
80 *Coco and she didn’t participate in the discussion with me. Tom*
81 *blamed her for not taking notes and discussing with me. He usually*
82 *monitors students. She thought he didn’t know. She made me*

This extract suggests Julie does not perceive her limited English as an obstacle to classroom participation as long as there is a supportive and encouraging classroom atmosphere.

Whilst Tom's teaching style is upheld as a positive example of how teachers can encourage classroom participation, there are also examples of the negative impact of teaching style upon classroom participation -- the case of Pook, for example, who encounters intimidating and demoralising classroom experiences due to her tutor's criticisms. Her tutor, Bill, is perceived as highly critical of students' answers, which makes Pook and her classmates afraid to respond.

Extract 10

44 *P: I think most students don't dare to answer his questions. If we answer*
45 *a question wrongly, he always says that it doesn't make sense and tell*
46 *us to go to practice in a self-access centre. He always kind of insults*
47 *as I told you before.*

(Pook, Original in English, 13/09/05)

Bill deliberately positions himself as 'authority', 'expert' and positions Pook and other students as 'incompetent' and 'helpless' because their ideas are not appreciated, and thus they become reluctant to say anything in class. This situation makes explicit the power relations between Bill and his students, which destroy the rapport between them. Without establishing positive rapport with his students, Bill finds it difficult to engage the class and they mentally and physically withdraw. Positively perceived teaching styles and methods contribute to close relationships between tutors and students, and encourages Thai students to speak and position themselves as 'active' learners and to position their tutors as 'facilitative', 'helpful', and 'understanding'. The negatively perceived ones, on the contrary, constrain and suppress students' intention to participate, as you would expect, and thus some Thai students position their tutors as 'authoritative figure' who in turn position their students as 'incompetent' and 'helpless'.

With reference to the impact of EAP pedagogy on pronunciation, it is important for EAP tutors to be aware that their beliefs regarding the importance of 'standard' English may potentially have a negative effect on some learners whilst others may

appreciate it. The classroom atmosphere is also a significant factor in Thai students' classroom participation. Group work and pair work are perceived as offering a supportive learning environment for learners to interact with one another. The Thai learners in this study interactively position themselves as 'participative' and their classmates as 'cooperative' during these interactive activities.

4.1.2 Tutors' Perceived Expectations about Student Participation

Another significant factor which impacts upon the Thai students' oral participation in these classrooms relates to their tutors' expectations of them. Although there is no explicit statement regarding the students' participation in the classrooms, these Thai students believe it is important for them to take part in discussions because this is what their tutors expect. Psychological aspects of language users in a particular environment are emphasised in Haugen's (1972) framework and this is the case, Thai students are not only sensitive to tutors' expectation but also recognise classroom moral orders, rights, and duties, and thus they attempt to comply with acceptable and desirable classroom behaviours.

Recognising his duty as an EAP learner, Sharp considers classroom participation not only as a way to show his knowledge but also his attention in the lesson.

Extract 11

2 S: *I answer my tutor because I know the answer. I feel that when I*
3 *participate in class, I will not get bored. If I just sit still, why should I*
4 *be in the class? At least, when I speak, my tutor will know that I*
5 *pay attention to him.*

(Sharp, English translation, 11/08/05)

This extract illustrates 'deliberate self-positioning' as Sharp reflects on his own learning goal by asking himself 'why should I be in the class?' (Lines 3-4), and that results in his classroom participation. This situation also implies that he exerts his agency in his learning and positions himself as an 'attentive' and 'knowledgeable' student. It is interesting to note that answering his tutor is entertaining and helps him to realise his goals in studying on the EAP course, that is, to practice his speaking and participate in the discussion as much as possible.

Similarly, Julie wants to answer Tom rather than evoke his displeasure by displaying limited participation and attention. She cannot sometimes answer him, however, as she finds a particular listening task difficult.

Extract 12

1 **K:** *Did you want to answer on that day?*

2 **J:** *I wanted to answer very much. But I didn't understand the listening. I*
3 *didn't know what to do. I knew Tom was furious.*

4 **K:** *Why furious?*

5 **J:** *He might not be furious but he wasn't happy. Because he was*
6 *interested in my group but everybody was quiet. If I were him, I*
7 *would not feel good. I would question myself why students didn't*
8 *answer. But sometimes some listening tasks are difficult. I can*
9 *catch the main ideas but cannot answer.*

(Julie, English translation, 11/09/05)

Julie is sympathetic to Tom's position as a teacher as shown in 'if I were him, I would not feel good' (Lines 6-7). She considers his emotions and feelings towards students' non-participative behaviours, as she states 'I would question myself why students didn't answer' (Lines 7-8), and thus she reflexively positions herself as 'underachieving' and 'disappointing'. Language proficiency in this case impedes Julie's participation, which suggests that teaching materials should be carefully selected and delivered according to learners' language level; otherwise this can restrict student participation and prove a disservice to learners.

Similarly, Petch perceives Tom's expectations through one particular student whose behaviour is seen as disruptive because that student inhibits other students from participating in the discussion.

Extract 13

73 **P:** *In my group, one guy, called Raul. He is very confident in himself*
74 *because he took another English course before. He thinks he is so good*
75 *that he laughs at others. I am sure that Tom doesn't like it. Tom*
76 *asked him why he laughed. I know Tom thinks that it's not good to*
77 *patronise other students by laughing at them because they try to*
78 *answer.*

(Petch, English translation, 11/08/05)

Petch deliberately positions Raul as ‘confident’ but ‘arrogant’ and ‘patronising’, which are dispreferred classroom behaviours by Tom. Observing Tom’s disapproval of Raul’s behaviour makes Petch try to participate in the discussions because Tom values this classroom behaviour and encourages students to participate. Petch deliberately positions himself as ‘active’ and ‘humble’, which he perceives to be more desirable and preferred by Tom.

Pekky also shares similar beliefs concerning her tutor’s expectations of students’ participation as she wishes to answer so Linda, her tutor, does not get angry.

Extract 14

69 P: *It’s okay because other not talk. I just wait for a bit but no one talk.*
70 *I just speak it out. Otherwise Linda would get angry.*
...
77 P: *Because Linda will try to ‘Please, please speak’ or ‘please speak in a*
78 *sentence’. When she gets upset, I can know the mood.*

(Pekky, Original in English, 13/09/05)

This extract suggests the student participation seems to depend on Linda’s encouragement because they are rather reluctant to take part if they are not strongly encouraged by her. Pekky is sensitive to Linda’s expectations about student participation because she notices her verbal cues, ‘Please, please speak’ (Line 77) which also reflects Linda’s attitudes towards the students. Although Pekky does not want to position herself as ‘reluctant’ and ‘non-participative’, she observes other students who might want to say something in class before deciding whether to answer Linda because she wants to make sure that other students have the opportunity to participate in class. This situation demonstrates her ‘deliberate self-positioning’ as one who is normally ‘active’ and ‘considerate’ towards other students too prior to her participation.

Although Pook’s disappointing learning experiences in Bill’s class are unfortunate, she does not want to be positioned as ‘non-participative’ and ‘helpless’ by Bill, and does not wish to annoy him.

Extract 15

142 P: *I want to participate because Bill will get mad if no one answers. I try*
143 *to please him by giving feedback on the presentation. If we are quiet,*
144 *he will begin to criticise us. I give feedback to show him that I have*
145 *knowledge.*

(Pook, English translation, 13/09/05)

This extract shows that Pook does not take his criticism personally but rather turns it into a stimulating factor which motivates her to take part in giving feedback so that she is viewed as ‘attentive’. She exerts her agency by taking up the position of ‘knowledgeable’ to prove to Bill that she had paid attention in the presentation and she is not the ‘helpless’ student he might think. This situation illustrates that Pook wants to narrow the gap between Bill’s expectations of his student participation and student ability to participate, to alleviate the tension between the two parties which may enable Bill to see positive potential from his students.

This aspect of taking the tutors’ expectations of student participation into account should be noted as the Thai students in this study wish to support and show respect to their tutors’ teaching by taking part in classroom discussions. They gradually learn classroom moral orders, rights, duties, and obligations through observing and noticing their tutors’ reaction to unfavourable classroom behaviours. Due to their tutors’ perceived expectations, they deliberately position themselves as ‘active’, ‘knowledgeable’, and ‘attentive’ by taking part in discussions, which clearly illustrates how their personal agency plays a significant role in their classroom participation. It seems advisable for tutors to explicitly state their expectations of students, establish the norms of classroom participation, and create positive attitudes towards student participation because this will help to allay Thai students’ implicit fears regarding participation. We can see that this classroom situation demonstrates the complex interrelationship between Haugen’s (1972) sociological and psychological aspects on Thai language users who are influenced by their tutors’ perceived expectations, classmates’ behaviours and the classroom moral order that values classroom participation. The next section discusses the role of classmates and shows how this impacts on Thai students’ participation in the EAP course.

4.2 Influence of Classmates

This section illustrates the influence of classmates on Thai students' positioning in classroom engagement, which reflects Creese and Martin's (2003) views about the interrelationship between language users in interaction within multilingual classroom ecologies. In this study, Thai students position themselves and their classmates in particular ways. Classmate influences are categorised according to two main criteria, namely, peer relationships and linguistic diversity. These two aspects provide interesting insights into Thai students' classroom participation, experiences and relationships with their classmates which either promote or constrain their willingness to take part in classroom discussions.

4.2.1 Peer Relationships

The impact of peer relationships on Thai students' participation in class and group discussions in speaking and listening EAP classes depends on the closeness, power relations and attitudes they share with other students. Pook's relationship with her peers gradually develops over time and allows her to establish close links within the class which enables her to participate more in group discussions.

Extract 16

115 P: *But at the beginning, everyone didn't dare to speak because we did not*
116 *know one another much to share our ideas. Someone who liked to*
117 *speak would speak a lot. Someone who did not like to speak would*
118 *not speak much because they were afraid of speaking the wrong*
119 *grammar, not being understood, or not having the same ideas with*
120 *others. Now, everyone get used to the group discussion because we*
121 *become close friends.*

(Pook, English translation, 10/08/05)

Following Haugen's (1972) view on 'intimacy', this extract illustrates that once the students gradually become close friends, they shift from 'low intimacy' to 'high intimacy' within the group, which increases student solidarity and leads to a positive attitude towards classroom discussions.

Similarly, Julie develops a closer relationship with her peers and thus she feels free to ask questions that she might not be able to do otherwise.

Extract 17

- 59 **K:** *When you are close to your classmates, does it help you in your*
60 *speaking?*
- 61 **J:** *Yes, it's one of the most important factors because the more I know*
62 *them, it seems to me that they are Thai. We share the same nationality.*
63 *I have confidence to talk with them. If I don't know them well, I will*
64 *just say, 'Hi, how are you?' If I know them well, I can ask them more*
65 *about personal issues. For example, we can talk about sensitive*
66 *issues like politics in Taiwan and China. This helps me communicate*
67 *more as well. If I don't know them well, I don't dare asking them this*
68 *kind of questions.*

(Julie, English translation, 25/08/05)

Julie feels so close and comfortable speaking to some of her classmates because she deliberately positions them as 'Thai people'. In contrast to her close friends, she positions other students as 'hi-bye classmates' because she does not want to risk asking sensitive questions or sharing ideas with them. This situation manifests how peer relationships can be associated with the degree of risk-taking Julie has to evaluate when deciding whether to initiate a particular topic for discussion because she wishes to avoid offending her classmates. Besides being able to gain more insights into her close classmates' opinions on sensitive issues, she develops strong friendships that enable her to improve her interactive skills.

Extract 18

- 135 **J:** *Communication allows me to make friends and friends allow me to*
136 *improve my communication. They are reciprocal.*

(Julie, English translation, 25/08/05)

It is important for her as an overseas student to make close friends whom she can talk to, share her ideas with, and simultaneously improve her spoken English.

For Petch, on the contrary, peer relationships are so negative that they nearly put him off answering his tutor. He believes that answering in class is like playing a game. If

he gets it right, he will feel satisfied. He, however, knows that his enjoyment gained from answering in class may not be appreciated by his peers.

Extract 19

96 P: *I enjoy it. It's like playing games. Sometimes I don't want to answer*
97 *even though I know the answer because I am aware that other students*
98 *will think why I answer a lot. Other students may think I am a nerd*
99 *because I answer a lot and it means that I must know a lot. Actually I*
100 *am not sure if my answer is right or not. But I just answer. I enjoy*
101 *answering because I understand the lesson. I want to know if my*
102 *understanding is right or wrong. It's not related to classmates. It's not*
103 *because I want to show off. I don't want them to dislike me.*

(Petch, English translation, 11/09/05)

Petch struggles to balance his 'position' in the classroom because, on the one hand, he wants to position himself as 'knowledgeable' by answering his tutor in order to ensure his understanding of the lesson; but, on the other hand, he is afraid of being positioned as a 'nerd' by his classmates who may think that he knows everything and wants to show off, particularly as he claims that he does not know all the answers. Petch's situation suggests that classroom participation is not just about being able to say something in class. It is, in fact, rather complex because negotiating his identities between who he wants to be and who he wants to be seen as is quite difficult as he is unable to estimate how others view him every time he responds. He also holds reservations towards some of his peers whom he avoids working with.

Extract 20

68 P: *...I don't want to pair with Coco, Raul, and Lydia. They*
69 *make me have a headache. Coco is lazy. I feel annoyed. Raul likes to*
70 *make simple things more difficult. Lydia seems too serious with*
71 *everything. Too tiring. I paired with her few times. It seems to me*
72 *that she wants to be the best student. The rest of classmates are okay*
73 *and easy to talk to.*

(Petch, English translation, 11/09/05)

This extract illustrates 'interactive positioning' (Davies and Harré, 1990) as Petch deliberately positions his 'non-preferred' classmates according to their classroom behaviours. This extract perhaps suggests it is important for tutors to monitor group and pair work closely to help enhance student interactions.

Julie also finds Raul patronising because he laughs at other students.

Extract 21

12 J: *I don't talk to Raul. I talk to everyone but him. I don't know why. He*
13 *doesn't talk with me either. I see him laugh. Maybe he studied in a*
14 *previous English course before.*

(Julie, English translation, 25/08/05)

Raul's laughter may be interpreted as him demonstrating his power over other students, and creating a division between him as an 'existing' student who knows how the language course runs and Julie as an 'inexperienced' student who must adjust to the system. Although Julie never works with him in class, she observes his patronising behaviour, and thus she develops a negative attitude towards him and does not attempt to build any sort of relationship with him. Although Petch and Julie do not like Raul's behaviours, they position him differently, which illustrates that 'deliberate positioning of others' depends on an individual's perceptions and their personal history with the positioned others.

Pekky too expresses her pessimism regarding some of her classmates' 'non-preferred' classroom behaviours.

Extract 22

115 P: *I don't want to sit next to him because when I sit beside him I cannot*
116 *understand what he is saying, sometimes about the accent as well as*
117 *his thinking. I don't like him. I just sit away from him. And actually*
118 *for another two Chinese, it's better than Muhammed but I still don't*
119 *want to sit beside them because it's very difficult to understand what*
120 *they are talking, some kind of too serious or something that should not*
121 *be serious about. You know what? We just discuss on some topics.*
122 *They are very serious. Like, one the topic 'Should we pay for a music*
123 *licence on an Internet?' We just give an opinion, should or should not,*
124 *or why. They were discussing legal and law in China, and ask how*
125 *about in Thailand, how about in Taiwan, why it's not the same. Too*
126 *serious. You don't have to do some project or something. You just 127*
have to talk, just speaking. That's it. I don't like this kind of person.
128 *I think it's ridiculous.*

(Pekky, Original in English, 21/08/05)

Pekky dislikes working with Muhammed, a student from the Middle East because she finds his accent incomprehensible. Her perceptions of Muhammed's 'non-standard' English are so negative that she avoids sitting with him. This situation illustrates Pavlenko and Blackledge's (2004) point regarding language ideologies and social identities which allow individuals to evaluate others' use of linguistic resources. Examples of Pekky's perception of 'standard' English underpinned by her 'language ideology' become more evident in Extracts 29 and 30.

Besides Muhammed, Pekky also wishes to avoid talking to other Chinese students because of their seriousness in the discussion. Her ideas about group discussion are not shared by the Chinese students who actually want to know more about a topic whilst Pekky feels the purpose of the discussion is for speaking practice. Different perceptions about the discussion position each party unequally and leads to disputes between them. Following Haugen's (1972) sociological and psychological aspects of language users in a particular environment, Pekky's deliberate positioning of others has both a psychological and sociological impact in that it makes her want to escape from this particular group. Petch, Julie, and Pekky, however, perhaps forget that they are studying in multilingual and multicultural contexts and that their peers may also have different expectations. Unlike Petch, Julie, and Pekky, Pinkie positively perceives her classmates' participation.

Extract 23

60 P: *I think when you participate in class is good because maybe someone*
61 *wants to answer but just thinking something like that. But I think if no*
62 *one speaks, it makes the class too serious because everyone is silent. If*
63 *you keep quiet, it's not good. When someone speaks, others can join*
64 *and support, something like that.*

(Pinkie, Original in English, 11/09/05)

Pinkie recognises that the classroom atmosphere is livelier when everyone tries to participate in discussions, which may suggest that students in her class are cooperative and supportive. In Pinkie's class, students not only establish strong relationships with one another but also appear to share the same values regarding classroom interactions, and interactively position one another as 'legitimate' speakers.

To conclude, peer relationships have positive and negative effects on the Thai learners in this study. Positive relationships promote the Thai students' willingness and confidence to participate in class discussions whereas negative ones are likely to discourage them from taking part. It is important to establish positive relationships via frequent classroom and out-of-classroom contacts. It should also be noted that peer relationships evolve gradually and everyone in the class has to build them over time. Each individual student, therefore, has to learn, accept, or even ignore the differences and similarities they have to achieve their educational goals. The sophisticated interrelationships between Thai students and their interlocutors interacting within classrooms are influenced by different factors, such as attitudes towards varieties of English, classroom behaviours and intimacy, which result in the way they position themselves and others. The next section focuses on the Thai students' perceptions of their classmates' English proficiency which requires an understanding of the similarities and differences between each individual overseas student.

4.2.2 Classmates' Linguistic Diversity

This section discusses Thai students' attitudes towards different varieties of English and towards the different languages spoken by the students. Taking a pre-sessional EAP course in the UK means the Thai students inevitably encounter a mixture of nationalities and languages that impact on their classroom participation. Each Thai student, however, perceives studying in the multilingual classrooms differently. Their views on classroom practices often depend on the extent to which their existing perceptions of 'standard' English, underpinned by a 'language ideology', are challenged in specific contexts. Julie initially finds it hard to work in a group with Chinese students who often talk in Chinese.

Extract 24

19 K: *How do you feel that there are only Chinese students in the class,*
20 *except you two?*

21 J: *It's not good for me sometimes. In my group, one girl always speaks*
22 *in Chinese and then she explains it to me. But I also want to know*
23 *what they talk about. I can't understand Chinese language.*

(Julie, English translation, 25/08/05)

Haugen's (1972) views regarding different speech communities in a bilingual context that can be changeable and relational are relevant here. In this study, although English is the language adopted by the main speech community in EAP classrooms, the majority of students are Chinese and unsurprisingly communicate in Chinese with their friends during group discussions. This illustrates a *supplementary Ab type* of speech community, where *A* is English and *b* is Chinese. Being the only native speaker of Thai in this group, Julie does not want to feel isolated and be positioned as an 'outsider' or 'out group'. Even though code switching is highly likely to take place in multilingual classroom ecologies depending on the purpose and domain of that language use (Martin *et al.*, 2006), it is important for students to be cautious about their choice of language, especially if they use their first language, because they may unintentionally exclude and discriminate against other students who do not speak it. Julie, however, does not view speaking English with Chinese friends as a limitation because she notices an improvement in her communication.

Extract 25

92 J: *I think because I practice speaking English a lot though I have a*
 93 *problem with my pronunciation. When I speak to my Chinese friends,*
 94 *I think it helps me practice with my train of thought, which sentence to*
 95 *ask and answer, which vocabulary to use. Chinese students know*
 96 *fewer English vocabulary than Thai students do. But maybe they are*
 97 *more confident to speak. They usually speak Chinese to each other*
 98 *because there are lots of Chinese students.*

(Julie, English translation, 11/09/05)

Through her interaction with her Chinese classmates, Julie compares and contrasts her level of English proficiency with theirs, and can also practice her thinking skills. She finds that Chinese students are eager to speak English with her because there are such a large number of Chinese students at the university which results in them speaking less English. This situation brings to mind Haugen's (1972) linguistic ecological questions, such as, 'Who are its users?', 'What are its domains of use?', and 'What concurrent languages are employed by its users?' Chinese is used both inside and outside classrooms due to the large number of Chinese students studying in the pre-sessional EAP course over the summer when the British students are on holiday. Julie could feel that she will have more chances to practice speaking English outside the classroom. As the course progresses, however, she develops more positive attitudes towards Chinese students and they become close friends.

Extract 26

80 J: ...my accent has turned into Chinese
81 because I speak a lot with my Chinese friends. Aurora wants to go to
82 Thailand when the course is over. I think my communication is good.

(Julie, English translation, 11/09/05)

This extract illustrates that Julie's communicative practices in class are not solely about acquiring an English accent but rather about building a friendship that can extend beyond classroom. Likewise, Pinkie also develops new perspectives on linguistic diversity while studying in the UK.

Extract 27

208 P: It's like a chance to speak in other language, not only English. Okay
209 we live in England. We have to speak English. But we have a chance
210 to learn other language because we have a friend in other nationality,
211 not only English. We have Chinese, Taiwanese, Korean.

(Pinkie, Original in English, 12/08/05)

Pinkie develops a positive attitude towards multilingualism in class and recognises that studying in England does not necessarily mean that she has to focus on the English language. This enables her to be more open-minded to other languages besides English in order to make friends with classmates. She perceives the linguistic diversity in her class as a resource for her to build friendships.

Oudy takes a step further by building friendships through speaking some Chinese words with her Chinese peers as she realises that this is a good way to break the ice.

Extract 28

212 O: We don't have to learn all Chinese language. We just memorise some
213 words, some meaning. It's okay. Just like when the tourist or the
214 foreigners come to visit our country. I mean come to visit Thailand.
215 If they can speak Thai a little, just like 'khob khun krab' or 'sawatdee
216 ka', or something like that, we will appreciate. We want to make
217 friends and talk with them.

(Oudy, Original in English, 12/08/05)

Oudy's 'tourist technique' creates an appreciation of multilingualism within her class and she is able to build a strong bond with her peers by introducing her classmates to

simple Thai greetings, such as, ‘*khob khun krab*’ (thank you) and ‘*sawatdee ka*’ (hi). Pinkie’ and Oudy’s perspectives clearly illustrate that multilingualism is viewed as a resource for them because they can develop their intercultural communication skills and friendships. It is evident that Julie’s, Pinkie’s, and Oudy’s existing perceptions of ‘standard’ English are not as strong as Pekky’s. They value and are open to ‘non-standard’ English which enables them to make more friends and establish stronger bonds, and this establishes more equal positioning with other classmates. Pekky, on the contrary, finds some of her classmates’ English ‘poor’, and avoids interacting with them.

Extract 29

144 P: *In my opinion, if I talk to someone who is better than me, it will be*
 145 *good. If I talk to someone who is worse than me, it’s not good because*
 146 *getting worse I will copy their accent or something and going down*
 147 *and I don’t want to talk. Even I talk to Chinese people, who very bad*
 148 *accent, I don’t want to talk because I can’t understand and I’ll copy*
 149 *some words from them.*

(Pekky, Original in English, 11/09/05)

Due to Pekky’s strong desire for ‘standard’ English, she aims to speak English with classmates whose English she perceives as being ‘good’ or ‘better’ than hers. She also worries that she might acquire an ‘undesirable’ accent by interacting frequently with Chinese students. This extract clearly illustrates that she does not position Chinese students as ‘legitimate speakers’, and thus she does not value her classmates’ varieties of English equally.

Extract 30

155 K: *What do you think about the majority of your classmates are from*
 156 *China and Taiwan? There’s one girl from...*

157 P: *Cyprus. She is good. She’s very good at English. But her accent,*
 158 *sometimes I cannot understand her accent as well. There are many*
 159 *Taiwanese and Chinese. When I came here the first time, I thought I*
 160 *was in Beijing. But I think it’s good because they cannot talk Thai. I*
 161 *can practice my English. I like to avoid Thai.*

(Pekky, Original in English, 21/08/05)

Pekky not only perceives Chinese students’ English accent as inferior to her Cyprus classmate’s English accent but also refrains from speaking Thai with her Thai friends.

Her strong desire for ‘standard’ English influences her language use in terms of whom she wants to talk to, which leads to her reluctance to speak Thai. Pekky’s situation relates to Haugen’s (1972) linguistic ecological questions: ‘What internal varieties does the language show?’ and ‘What are the attitudes of its users towards the language?’ because within Pekky’s class there are different English varieties such as Chinese, Taiwanese, Cypriot, and Thai, which she perceives and reacts to differently. This situation suggests that she views speaking English with Chinese and Thai accents as ‘illegitimate’, and thus she also positions herself as an ‘illegitimate’ speaker, which constrains her from interacting and building relationships with others. Pekky’s preference for ‘standard’ English creates serious problems for her in academic and social settings in this British university which are illustrated in Chapter 5.

In summary, these Thai students perceive classmates’ linguistic diversity differently and this determines whom they want to communicate with. The appreciation of linguistic diversity promotes frequent contact and helps established friendships, as noted in the case of Julie, Pinkie, and Oudy. Pekky, however, opts for communicating with the ones whose English is near ‘standard’ and avoids speaking English with Chinese students as she viewed their English as ‘non-standard’. Underpinned by personal perceptions of multilingualism and varieties of English, the positive and negative experiences the Thai students have during the EAP course leads to new insights and understanding of multilingualism and multiculturalism that are inevitable as they are studying in the UK. Rather than considering this a limitation, it can be argued that they should view this as an opportunity to learn different varieties of English and find out more about other students’ linguistic backgrounds.

4.3 Effects of Thai Students’ Personal Identities and Agency

This section examines the effects of Thai students’ personal identities and agency on taking up desirable positions in class. This is linked to van Langenhove and Harré’s (1999) ‘deliberate self-positioning’ where individuals exert their agency, express their unique viewpoints, and reiterate events according to their biography and experience. Regarding particularly human agency, Davies (1990) notes that individuals are active, responsible for making choices, and accountable for their actions.

Pekky's active learning styles and personality help her to volunteer in class.

Extract 31

31 P: *Most of the time I always answer my tutor. She doesn't usually call*
32 *me out because I always answer her. She always asks others to*
33 *answer. My friends told me I am talkative. They told me that I know*
34 *lots of vocabulary, but I don't think that.*

(Pekky, Original in English, 11/09/05)

Although Pekky is positively positioned by her classmates as 'talkative' and 'knowledgeable of vocabulary', she deliberately rejects these positions, preferring to position herself as an 'active' and 'responsible' language learner. Sharp, on the contrary, is rather silent and does not initially want to participate in discussions.

Extract 32

36 S: *There are two groups of students in class, the ones who frequently*
37 *speak and the others who occasionally speak. For me, it depends on*
38 *my mood but most of the time I belong to the group that doesn't*
39 *answer first because if there are lots of people, I don't want to speak*
40 *up first in the class. I'd rather be the later one to speak maybe*
41 *because of my own personality. It doesn't matter if I speak in Thai or*
42 *English.*

(Sharp, English translation, 11/08/05)

It is interesting to note that Sharp observes how students in his class are divided into the speakers and the silent ones, which he opts to belong to the latter. This may imply that he has observed the classroom dynamic and classmate interaction which has developed and divided over time. This situation demonstrates 'deliberate self-positioning' as he positions himself as 'reticent' when reflecting on his current and previous classroom practices, as he admits that his silent classroom behaviours are the same either in Thai or English classrooms. Although Sharp claims this is due to his shy personality, his reticence can also be considered as socially constructed since he mentions that 'if there are lots of people, I don't want to speak up first in the class' (Lines 39-40), which suggests that the large number of students have a significant impact on his reluctance to speak up. The issue of large class sizes is discussed further in Chapter 5.

Sharp's silence is problematic for him, however, during a group task to design a questionnaire.

Extract 33

58 S: *I used to do a questionnaire before. I know how to do it. But there*
59 *was no assessment for this questionnaire design task. I didn't want to*
60 *tell them to believe me. I didn't want to force them according to what I*
61 *wanted. Whatever it was, it was okay. But I was not satisfied with it*
62 *though. I knew that the questions were not related. I'm like this. If I*
63 *work with Thai people and don't know them well, I will not pay much*
64 *attention. I don't like to interrupt them. I feel considerate with people.*

(Sharp, English translation, 04/09/05)

Sharp's consideration for his group members and reluctance to interrupt them when discussing the questionnaire design leads to the production of an unsatisfying and irrelevant questionnaire. Sharp's 'non-interventionist' behaviour illustrates 'deliberate self-positioning' as he deliberately positions himself as 'non-intrusive' and 'considerate'. In this case, it seems important for him to exert his agency and take up 'active' and 'involved' positions to achieve more productive and effective group work. Sharp attempts to modify his classroom behaviour by initiating conversation with classmates which he claims he would never do in Thailand.

Extract 34

177 *...In Thailand, if I sit next to someone, I'd not speak*
178 *with him or her first. But here, I start talking with them first. I think*
179 *that I should gain experience as much as I can. Most of the time*
180 *people will talk with me first. I also talk with friends after class.*

(Sharp, English translation, 04/09/05)

Recognising the different learning contexts between Thailand and England, he becomes aware that relevant modifications have to be made to achieve his initial learning goals. The gradual change in his quiet personality is partly due to his intention to gain valuable experiences from studying in England. He exerts his agency to talk with classmates as he realises he cannot wait for others to talk to him and so he must make the first move or risk having fewer chances to speak.

In addition to Sharp, other Thai students shift attitudes towards their learning as the course progresses for a variety of reasons. Petch's attitudes to learning shift from

‘non-attentive’ to ‘attentive’ because he initially does not see the significance of a discussion.

Extract 35

1 K: What did you learn in your speaking class?

2 P: *We talked about how to use expressions and signposting in a group*
3 *discussion, what we thought, and guessed what it would happen next.*
4 *I thought it was useful but non-sense to me. I didn't find it interesting.*
5 *I didn't know why I had to discuss. I spoke two sentences and that's it.*
6 *I didn't try to put effort to lengthen the discussion. I talked about other*
7 *things instead. For example, when someone asked me 'how to*
8 *improve your English?' I said watching television and reading a*
9 *grammar book, the end. Then I asked him where he was from, his*
10 *name. It's a bit like small talks, which I found more interesting. I*
11 *didn't understand why others still kept talking. I always end the*
12 *discussion first.*

(Petch, English translation, 11/08/05)

During the first month of the EAP course, Petch fails to find the formal discussion topics of interest and relevance, which may arise because they seem far removed from his daily interactions. This extract reveals his personal agency as he deliberately takes up positions as someone who is ‘humble’, ‘easy-going’, and ‘sociable’ because he prefers to discuss more personal topics, and this impacts on who he prefers to work with (see Extract 20). A month later, however, Petch appears more optimistic because of his tutor’s classroom management and attentiveness. As a result, he wishes to pay attention in class even though he claims he has never done this before in Thailand.

Extract 36

44 K: What do you think about Tom?

45 P: *I think he really pays attention to his students. He manages the class*
46 *really well. It's good for students. Studying in a small class, every*
47 *one needs to pay attention. Asian students are used to studying in*
48 *big classes. They tend to talk with their friends in class and do not pay*
49 *attention. For me, this is the first time I really pay attention with the*
50 *tutor for the whole session. I have never been a good student in my*
51 *life.*

(Petch, English translation, 11/09/05)

This extract reflects how Petch’s tutor, Tom, influences his shifting positions from being ‘uninterested’ to ‘good’ learner. The question ‘What do you think about Tom?’

illustrates a ‘forced positioning of others’, which requires Petch to express his thoughts about Tom. Petch positions Tom as ‘attentive’ and ‘well-organised’. It is significant to mention that Petch’s agency to develop a new positive attitude in class is inspired by Tom’s attentive and stimulating teaching style. In contrast to Petch’s situation, Pook wishes to gain more attention from her tutor.

Extract 37

50 K: *How do you find your tutor then?*

51 P: *My tutor likes to pay attention with male students. He likes to call*
52 *out their names. But when female students answer, he doesn’t care.*

53 K: *Do you want him to pay attention to you as well?*

54 P: *Yes. I come here to study. I want my voice to be heard even though*
55 *it’s wrong. I want to participate in the class. I don’t want to learn like*
56 *Thai style by keeping quiet. I am not like that. In Thailand, I was*
57 *quiet because other students didn’t talk. I didn’t want to show off. But*
58 *here, I paid a lot of money. I want to change my learning styles and be*
59 *what I want to be.*

(Pook, English translation, 10/08/05)

This extract demonstrates Pook’s shifting personal identities from ‘*passive*’ to ‘*active*’ because she not only wants to resist her tutor’s favouritism but also to challenge herself as she mentions ‘I am not like that’ (Line 56). Pook exerts her agency to overcome her tutor’s perceived preferential treatment of male students, and claims she does not want to be quiet as she was in Thailand. Despite criticising her tutor, she wishes her voice to be heard, and this is a strong indicator that she is eager to put more effort into classroom participation. It is interesting to note that she wants to adopt a more participative position in class in England than she had adopted in Thailand. One reason for this change derives from her financial investment, which compels her to seek opportunities to practice speaking. Her determination to position herself as ‘participative’ in class is complex as a result of interrelated issues, such as her tutor’s influence, her learning history, and her financial investment.

In sum, Thai students’ personal identities and agency play significant roles in determining their participation with tutors and classmates. There are a number of factors, such as students’ personalities, teaching styles, financial investment, and

changing attitudes towards learning which inspire them to become more ‘active’ and determined to achieve their learning goals by accommodating to different teaching and learning contexts and practices in the UK. The next section discusses the impact of social interactions which Thai students encounter in their daily lives during their EAP course which also contribute to their classroom participation.

4.4 Role of Social Interactions

This section investigates the role social interactions outside the classrooms play in helping Thai students to familiarise themselves and adjust to living and learning in the UK. Norton (2000) notes the crucial impact of target language community that enhances second language learners’ communicative competence. According to Ritchie (2002), students have different degrees of negotiation depending on their exposure to diverse interactions and experiences in social settings. The importance of social interactions can be related to Haugen’s (1972) sociological aspect and is associated with language users’ psychological aspects regarding their language use in particular contexts.

In this study, social interactions allow Thai students to gain more confidence in speaking English through different media and with varied audiences, such as, ‘locals’ as well as classmates. There is an interrelationship between the social contexts and the formal classroom learning which enhances their learning experiences, and improves their spoken English, and helps them to take up desirable positions in relation to their classmates as well as people in local communities. Julie recognises the importance of social interactions which play a significant role in her learning when she travels to London.

Extract 38

126 K: *How does studying help you with the conversation outside the class?*

127 J: *Studying in the class, like grammar and discussion, allows me to gain*
128 *more confidence to speak with others outside the class and dare to ask*
129 *questions. If I get lost, I dare to ask people directions. When I go back*
130 *to the class, I tend to ask more questions as well. For example, when I*
131 *went to London, I asked lots of questions about changing trains. When*

132 *I got back here, I told my friends in class about it. I had lots of stories*
133 *to tell them.*

(Julie, English translation, 25/08/05)

This extract illustrates an interrelationship between classroom learning and discussions and social interactions, which boost Julie's confidence to participate in discussions with classmates. The formal classroom learning ensures Julie's English proficiency is sufficient to deal with social interactions and her social encounters enable her to gain experiences which can be shared with her classmates. It is evident that she not only deliberately positions herself as 'brave' while travelling but also 'confident' when sharing her experience with classmates. Social interactions offer her a sense of satisfaction and promote her self-esteem.

Extract 39

107 J: *...My English speaking circulates from classroom to outside and*
108 *back to classroom again. That helps me keep improving my spoken*
109 *English. If I lose one of them, my speaking will lose as well.*

(Julie, English translation, 11/09/05)

Julie's situation clearly shows how sociological aspects of language learning affect psychological aspects of language users in a linguistic ecology. It is important for her tutor to encourage language learners to venture outside classrooms and share their experience within the class, and as this can support the reciprocal relationship between language learning and contexts of use.

Underestimating his English prior to his stay in the UK, Petch initially positions himself as 'linguistically incompetent'. His gradual adjustment to his new living and learning conditions in the UK and the improvements in his English allow him to gain more confidence to communicate with other overseas students, especially Chinese students. He is then able to reposition himself as 'linguistically comparable with' or 'better' than his Chinese counterparts and this new 'position' allows him to increase his self-esteem and confidence. It is interesting to note that in Petch's case, the impact of social interactions in the UK counteracts his previously held negative perceptions about his English and encourages him to adopt a more positive perspective on his language learning and on living in the UK.

Extract 40

45 **P:** *Now I understand spoken English with a Chinese accent. I don't need*
46 *to ask them to repeat what they say. On my first day here, I couldn't*
47 *understand what they said. Now I realise that my English isn't as bad*
48 *as I have thought. I feel that I am not that bad. I can understand them.*
49 *In Thailand I had no chance to practice English. Coming here is a*
50 *sudden change for me. At first, I didn't know what to say. I wasn't*
51 *confident. Later, I can adjust myself, I feel much better.*

(Petch, English translation, 11/08/05)

Social interactions outside class also enable Sharp to recognise the gap between the English which is spoken outside the classroom and the English he learns in class.

Extract 41

115 **S:** *Like 'Could you tell me...?' 'Would you tell me...?' 'Do you*
116 *mind...?' He told me to use these expressions because they sound*
117 *more polite. But the course should focus more on these kinds of*
118 *expressions. At my girlfriend's university, they taught more of daily*
119 *expressions, slang, or how British people speak and how students*
120 *should speak. They should teach expressions that I could practically*
121 *use in my daily life. This is like teaching grammar.*

122 **K:** *You mean more daily expression?*

123 **S:** *I want to know how British people actually talk. Like 'can't' /ka:nt/ or*
124 *how Birmingham people speak. This is more interesting than practice*
125 *listening.*

(Sharp, English translation, 04/09/05)

The more Sharp travels, the more he notices that there are other English accents, and this is more interesting to learn about in his view. Sharp's situation suggests the need for EAP tutors to relate teaching materials with actual contexts of language use, to raise learners' awareness about different varieties of English. Unless tutors equip learners with this type of knowledge, learners may position themselves as 'linguistically inadequate' and 'illegitimate' speakers in wider communities.

Recognising the significance of the social interactions that Thai students experience in their daily lives offers valuable insights into understanding the interrelationship between the informal social contexts and the formal language learning contexts which enhance Thai students' confidence with regard to classroom participation. This

demonstrates how two *multilingual ecologies*, both inside and outside the EAP classrooms, interrelate and suggests it is advisable for EAP tutors to take aspects of social interaction into account when they develop teaching materials, and prepare speaking and listening activities so Thai students can become equipped with the relevant linguistic tools for social contact in order to comprehend overseas friends and local people in their daily lives.

4.5 Chapter summary

This chapter presents four key factors which impact upon the Thai students' positioning and their participation in the EAP classrooms included in this study. These include EAP tutors' teaching styles and methods; tutors' perceived expectations about student participation; the influence of classmates' relationships and linguistic diversity; the effects Thai students' personal identities and agency have; and social interactions. Drawing upon the theoretical framework *multilingual classroom ecologies* (Creese and Martin, 2003) and *identities in multilingual contexts* (Pavlenko and Blackledge, 2004), and the analytical framework *positioning theory* (Davies and Harré, 1990; and van Langenhove and Harré, 1999), the findings offer insights into the complex factors which affect interactions, relationships, and participation in a variety of situated classroom contexts and practices in the pre-sessional EAP course. The findings firstly suggest that EAP tutors offer students opportunities to practice speaking and listening with both tutors and classmates by avoiding threatening and insulting teaching styles that demoralise and suppress students' participation and by creating a supportive and encouraging classroom environment. Secondly, the influence of peer relationships and classmates' linguistic diversity must be negotiated by adopting more optimistic views towards similarities and differences in terms of linguistic and cultural backgrounds that can enhance Thai students' classroom experiences. Thirdly, Thai students' personal identities and agency promote their active involvement in classroom and group discussions with tutors and classmates. Finally, the role of social interactions outside the classroom improves Thai students' confidence and linguistic awareness that is beneficial for their classroom participation. The following chapter discusses Thai students' classroom participation during MSc Marketing course and reveals how successfully the EAP course prepared this group of students for their Master's programme.

CHAPTER 5: FINDINGS FROM MSc MARKETING PROGRAMME

This chapter presents the findings for the MSc Marketing course. Following the pre-sessional EAP course, all the Thai participants in this study were successfully admitted onto the postgraduate MSc Marketing programme at the Management Centre of the University. During the first term (October – December 2005), they had to register for the core modules, namely, *Foundation of Knowledge, Principles of Marketing, Consumer Behaviours*, and *Marketing Theory*. All classes took place in a lecture theatre that could house nearly 150 students. Each class lasted three hours with a fifteen-minute break. During the second term (January – March 2006), they had to enrol on two core modules, which were *Product Policy and Innovation* and *Brand and Communication*. They also had to enrol on two optional modules from a variety of subjects, such as, *Human Resource Management, Consumption and Culture*, or *International Marketing*. The option courses usually took place either in the lecture theatre or the library hall.

Thai students' identity positions become more apparent and complex because their transition from a pre-sessional EAP course to an MSc Marketing programme not only involves them coming to terms with differences in lecturers' teaching styles and methods and the greater linguistic diversity of their classmates, but also larger classroom space and a higher number of students. There were approximately 100 postgraduate marketing students in a lecture hall whilst there were only 15 students in each EAP class. As a result, the postgraduate classrooms in this study appear linguistically, socially, and culturally richer and far more complex than the EAP classes. Thai students experience classroom environments where more languages are used and a larger number of language users interacting with one another, and thus the impact of language ideologies becomes more pertinent for the Thai students.

The findings, once again, are organised around four key themes. The first theme examines the impact of lecturers' teaching styles and methods, and lecturers' linguistic diversity. Lecturers' active and encouraging teaching styles and methods are perceived as useful and positive, whereas the repetitive use of teaching materials and the lack of practical marketing relevance discourages Thai students from participating in classroom discussions. Lecturers' linguistic diversity is valued

differently with British and American lecturers being positioned as ‘superior’ to a Sri Lankan one whose spoken English is perceived as ‘non-standard’.

The second theme focuses on power relations, linguistic diversity and subject discipline differences between Thai students and their overseas classmates. Thai students value overseas classmates’ English varieties and proficiency differently, and position European students as more ‘legitimate’ speakers than Asian students. Positive attitudes towards other varieties of English and an appreciation of multilingual classrooms should, therefore, be fostered to create more effective communication. The Thai students enjoy learning new ideas from experienced MBA students who, however, tend to dominate classroom discussions.

The third theme concerns Thai students’ personal identities and agency, and how complex interrelationships with regard to their educational, personal, and career goals, linguistic competence, educational background and experiences, and parental expectations, significantly impact on their positioning and the achievement of their individual academic, learning goals in the postgraduate classroom.

The final theme relates to the large class size which discourages Thai students’ classroom participation. This suggests that postgraduate programmes should take appropriate action to create quality and equality rather than quantity in postgraduate teaching and learning in British university contexts. The findings are discussed critically below with reference to the transcript data.

This chapter is divided into four sections. Each section deals with the respective themes identified above. Section one discusses the impact of lecturers in terms of their teaching styles and methods, and their linguistic diversity. In section two, power relations between Thai students and overseas classmates are examined with regard to classmates’ linguistic diversity and the dominance of classmates from different subject disciplines. The effects of Thai students’ personal identities and agency are investigated in section three. The chapter ends by considering the large class size that influences Thai students’ classroom participation in the MSc Marketing programme.

5.1 Impact of Lecturers

The relationship between Thai students and their postgraduate lecturers is far more complex than in the EAP classrooms because Thai students are not only required to have sufficient language competence but also expected to discuss marketing-related matters effectively. These increasing academic demands are relatively daunting for some Thai students who do not have sufficient background knowledge or work experience in marketing to interact effectively with their lecturers.

5.1.1 Lecturers' Teaching Styles and Methods

As in the case of the EAP classroom, lecturers' teaching styles and methods crucially determine Thai students' classroom participation, and impact upon Thai students' positioning in relation to their lecturers. The following extract reveals how Julie interactively positions herself and her lecturers in different ways depending on their teaching styles and subject contents.

Extract 1

41 J: *Some subjects I understood, some I didn't. The ones I understood that*
42 *might be because I have background knowledge of those subjects and*
43 *tutors are interesting. Marketing theory was the one that I had no*
44 *idea because it concerned psychology and it was very boring. I never*
45 *understood the subject. I didn't know what it was about. The tutor*
46 *talked about psychology and theory a lot. I was so confused. Once I*
47 *didn't understand the subject, I didn't pay attention in class at all. But*
48 *Principles of Marketing was interesting. Nik was active and asked*
49 *students to engage with him. I paid more attention with him and*
50 *enjoyed it. I knew what to do. Some subjects I couldn't gain any*
51 *knowledge. Like Consumer Behaviour, there were only lectures, very*
52 *boring. I didn't know why I had to go to class.*

(Julie, English translation, 04/01/06)

Julie experiences two main types of teaching styles during her first term: interactive and non-interactive in different courses. With regard to Nik's interactive teaching styles in the *Principles of Marketing* class, she positions him as an 'active' and 'engaging' lecturer because he creates a more conducive and stimulating classroom environment for students to engage in. She simultaneously positions herself as a 'proactive' student who wants to be involved in classroom discussions, and this

enables her to understand the subject content. Lecturers' non-interactive teaching styles in the *Marketing Theory* and *Consumer Behaviour* classes, on the contrary, not only discourage her from engaging in discussions, but also confuse her and make her want to physically withdraw from the classes. The subject matter in these two disciplines may be far too complex for her to comprehend within such a short period of time because they are rather theoretical so learners may need time to read and internalise the concepts before the lecture. The way she questions herself 'I didn't know why I had to go to class' (Line 52) suggests that perhaps her learning goal has a more practical relevance rather than a theoretical orientation. It is, therefore, perhaps advisable for lecturers in these two theoretical-based subjects to be more sensitive to students' learning needs and to try to accommodate these by using a variety of teaching methods rather than simply lectures alone. Learners, on the other hand, must be more proactive by reading relevant subject materials in advance to understand the marketing terms lecturers refer to.

Pook prefers to have the lecturers' guidance and support to develop her written assignments because she has opportunities to discuss these with her lecturer and the groups.

Extract 2

41 K: *How about Jack's class?*

42 P: *I think it's good. Among the subjects I studied this term, Jack's class*
43 *was the best in terms of his teaching styles. We could share ideas with*
44 *others. I could gain new ideas from other friends in a group. It's*
45 *better than studying on my own because I wasn't sure if my*
46 *understanding was right or not. The assignment that we had to discuss*
47 *in a group was really good. It helped me to form the assignment*
48 *structure in a similar way with others. I could start forming my*
49 *assignment faster. I knew which direction to take.*

(Pook, English translation, 04/04/06)

Pook recognises the advantages of participating in class because it promotes her confidence about writing the assignment. As a result, she can deliberately position herself as a 'goal-directed' and 'focused' learner and establish the structure of her assignment. Jack's well-planned teaching is also appreciated by Sharp.

Extract 3

166 S: *Because of studying a four-hour long session, I think he knew how to*
167 *make students concentrate in his teaching. He knew that we couldn't*
168 *concentrate for four hours. He used lots of discussions, which didn't*
169 *bore us at all. I found it enjoyable. I found it easy to talk to him. He*
170 *seemed to listen to students.*

(Sharp, English translation, 06/04/06)

Jack's recognition of learners' concentration improves their classroom participation and Sharp deliberately positions him as an 'approachable' and 'understanding' lecturer. Pook's and Sharp's positive perceptions regarding Jack's teaching styles and methods demonstrate the significant role lecturers play in providing a supportive environment and setting meaningful learning goals for students.

Remembering students' names also indicates that Jack pays attention to students. Pinkie, is not, however, concerned when he cannot remember her name because it is common for Asian students' names not to be remembered.

Extract 4

279 P: *I don't think Jack could remember any Chinese students' names. So I*
280 *guess he could only remember European students' names maybe*
281 *because they were the ones who were intelligent, diligent and*
282 *answered him.*

(Pinkie, English translation, 05/04/06)

This extract illustrates 'deliberate positioning of others' as Pinkie positions the European students as 'intelligent', 'diligent', and 'engaged' due to their frequent classroom participation, and thus she distinguishes between Asian and European students in terms of their classroom participation. This extract also illustrates that Jack usually calls upon European students to answer while Asian students are somewhat overlooked. This results in Jack creating an imbalance in power relations with European students dominating and suppressing Asian students who find it stressful to participate. It is advisable for lecturers to be careful when nominating students as this could affect some students who are not regularly nominated, and could potentially and inevitably position these students as 'marginalised' and 'invisible'.

Pekky, who has work experience in advertising and expects Jeff, a lecturer in *Brand and Communication* course to be interesting and practical, finds the course rather theoretical, boring, and a waste of time.

Extract 5

48 *Like Jeff in Brand and Communication, I didn't find any useful. He*
49 *always taught very theory one even the subject, from the title, Brand*
50 *and Communication is the subject that I am familiar with because I*
51 *graduated from advertising. I cannot find it useful. He taught us*
52 *maybe three hundred years ago from the theories. He always shows*
53 *the pictures of the kitchen, the same kitchen, maybe more than four*
54 *times or four lectures. It's less attractive to pay attention on.*

(Pekky, Original in English, 03/04/06)

This extract demonstrates Pekky's high expectations regarding the course due to her advertising background, and allows her to criticise Jeff's teaching style and methods. This extract also reveals that although she finds the course irrelevant, she attends each class since she observes the repetitive use of the kitchen advertisement. Jeff's repetitive use of the kitchen advertisement and theoretical subject matter is, on the contrary, perceived as outdated, irrelevant, and unattractive, and that results in a rather undesirable interactive positioning, as she positions him as 'redundant' and herself as 'inattentive'.

There are positive and negative perceptions of lecturers' teaching styles and methods, which crucially determine Thai postgraduate students' classroom participation. Thai students find lecturers who initiate discussions with students, provide guidance for students' learning, and deliver practical relevance in marketing subjects, useful and encouraging. This enables them to deliberately and desirably position themselves as 'independent', 'mature', 'goal-directed', 'attentive', and 'enthusiastic'. In contrast, the negative perceptions stem from the lecturers' repetitive use of teaching materials and lack of practical marketing ideas, which make these Thai students less motivated to participate in classroom discussions, and thus they position themselves as 'inattentive'. Lecturers should provide opportunities for every student to participate in classroom discussions by avoiding frequently nominating certain students to answer because some non-nominated students could feel 'marginalised' and

187 K: *Lecturers this term are from different nationalities, what did you*
188 *think about them?*

203 P: At first when I went to the lecture because of the content. The lecturer
204 in International Marketing is not good at speaking. I mean the
205 pronunciation is not as good as the British. I want to go because the
206 content is good. He teaches quite good.

This extract suggests ‘forced positioning of others’ as she is asked to comment on her perceptions of her lecturers who come from different countries. She wants to avoid learning with lecturers from Sri Lanka or India because she believes that studying in the UK should provide her with a model of ‘standard’ English. Otherwise, she could have studied in ABAC which is a private Thai university where most of the teaching staff are from Sri Lanka, India, the Philippines, and Myanmar, and use English as a medium of instruction. This situation illustrates that Pekky is influenced by language ideologies which hold ‘standard’ varieties, such as, British or American, to be more valuable than other ‘non-standard’ varieties, such as Sri Lankan. She positions the Sri Lankan lecturer as ‘inferior’ to the British and American ones because of his accent, although she begins to note the importance of content, and recognises that the Sri Lankan lecturer is a good lecturer.

Extract 8

120

66 *there is a problem in my communication with British tutors who would*
67 *try to understand. But the Sri Lankan tutor would find it difficult to*
68 *understand me.*

(Pinkie, English translation, 06/01/06)

Pinkie, in contrast to Julie (see Extract 6), finds communicating with the Sri Lankan lecturer difficult. This extract accentuates the significance of Thai students' exposure to varieties of English to facilitate better communication. It is interesting to note that in multilingual classroom ecologies, both lecturers and students need to be aware of each other's linguistic backgrounds and spoken English varieties as this can potentially promote effective classroom teaching and learning.

In sum, the lecturers in the postgraduate programme in Marketing create both positive and negative learning experiences for the Thai students in this study. The positive impact is evident when lecturers recognise students' needs and provide practical perspectives on the field of marketing by providing business case studies for students to discuss in small groups within the huge class. The division into small groups seems helpful because students have chance to participate in discussions with lecturers and classmates. The negative impact results from a teacher-centred approach that essentially emphasises the lecture itself without giving students opportunities to discuss issues with their classmates. Most of the Thai students are put off by teaching styles which focus more on theoretical issues and prefer more group discussions in smaller classrooms. They usually compare these classes to the EAP classes that are more supportive and encouraging. It is also important to note Thai students' perceptions of 'standard' spoken British and American English which results in them valuing 'native speaking' lecturers over the 'non-native' ones initially rather than considering the effectiveness of the content delivery. To improve this attitude of native speakerism, Thai students need to embrace more broad-minded attitudes towards multilingualism and varieties of English in multilingual UK higher education contexts.

5.2 Power Relations between Thai Students and Overseas Classmates

This section focuses on the impact of power relations between Thai students and their classmates and is divided into two main categories: i) classmates' linguistic diversity and ii) dominance of classmates from other subject disciplines. Both aspects

determine inter-relationships between classmates and impact upon classroom participation.

5.2.1 Classmates' Linguistic Diversity

This section highlights the importance of classroom contexts and practices which play significant roles in constructing Thai students' attitudes towards their classmates' linguistic diversity. According to Martin-Jones and Heller (1996), linguistic 'legitimacy' should be viewed as socially constructed and situated within institutional and interactive contexts because it involves how language users in those settings value a certain language. Pavlenko and Blackledge's work (2004) is helpful in assessing how Thai students value particular classmates' varieties of spoken English, and how they position themselves and their peers as a result.

In the pre-sessional EAP course, students are mainly from East Asian countries, such as, China, Taiwan, and Thailand. Students in the postgraduate classroom, on the other hand, are far more diverse linguistically and culturally, and this creates a multilingual classroom ecology where speakers from China, Taiwan, Greece, Pakistan, Cyprus, Nigeria, Italy, Nepal, Ghana, Malaysia, Tanzania, Mauritius, and Thailand interact either in English and its varieties or in their own native languages, depending on different communicative purposes in the classrooms. As a result, the interactions can be asymmetric due to different individuals' English language proficiency and the use of their native linguistic resources.

Petch feels comfortable when communicating with Chinese interlocutors because he believes they share similar levels of competence in English.

Extract 9

77 *...it depends on the level of*
78 *interlocutors. I don't feel tensed talking to Chinese students. They*
79 *can't notice my errors.*

(Petch, English translation, 21/12/05)

This extract illustrates Davies and Harré's (1990) '*interactive positioning*' as Petch positions himself and his Chinese classmates as having an '*equal position*' because they do not seem to notice his linguistic errors. This extract reveals that he is relatively concerned about his linguistic errors when communicating with others, and thus this perceived '*equal*' position Petch has, of course, the opportunity to familiarise himself with the proficiency level of Chinese students during the pre-sessional course.

For Pekky, communication with Greek students is problematic in her group discussions.

Extract 10

161 P: ...But the thing is some of them are from
162 Greece. I found it difficult to understand and listen to them. I mean
163 accent and pronunciation of them. It's quite difficult to get some
164 words that I am not used to.

165 K: ***How did you deal with it?***

166 P: I try to listen carefully. If I don't get some words, I just asked them to
167 say it again. And also they find it difficult from us as well. From
168 Asian people who talk in English. They also sometimes cannot
169 understand.

(Pekky, Original in English, 03/04/06)

Pekky perceives her language competence and the Greek students' language competence as equal as both parties have to develop sensitivity and accommodate each other to accomplish successful communication.

Pinkie develops an interesting communicative strategy with the Chinese students in her group by unanimously using their first language to discuss with their respective Thai or Chinese friends first and then using English for a group discussion.

Extract 11

55 P: Sarah and Niki spoke in Chinese and I spoke in Thai with other Thai
56 friends and then we spoke in English to share our ideas. At one time,
57 we discussed about how 'Binary object' created knowledge exchange.
58 We used the example of our group that used English as a medium for a
59 discussion.

(Pinkie, English translation, 05/04/06)

It is very interesting to note that there are three speech communities in this context, e.g. Chinese, Thai and English, who participate in Pinkie's group discussion. She perceives discussing issues in one's first language and sharing ideas in English more productive for both parties because they feel more comfortable about expressing their ideas. This strategy not only values one's first language but also creates a 'multilingual space' where they find a middle ground to support a more effective and productive discussion. Pinkie's open-minded attitudes towards other languages were noted during her EAP course (see Extract 27, Chapter 4), and that illustrates the significance of taking learners' language learning background and history into account when considering their behaviours in mainstream classrooms.

Oudy's perceptions of her spoken English in contrast are rather negative because she believes that European students speak English more fluently than her.

Extract 12

116 O: *As I told you before, in my mind there is a conflict*
117 *about good and bad things. If I can answer, oh yes, I can. I'm not*
118 *sure if my answer is good or not. Maybe because my English is not*
119 *quite good to answer the question or maybe because other students,*
120 *most students come European countries or maybe they speak English*
121 *fluently. Or I think too much, maybe that's why I didn't answer the*
122 *questions.*

(Oudy, Original in English, 04/04/06)

Oudy struggles to negotiate her classroom participation because she positions herself as 'inferior' to European students because of her English proficiency. This situation illustrates the influence of language ideologies as she feels the Europeans are more 'legitimate' speakers in class and this discourages her from taking part in class discussions. This extract also shows the interrelationship between psychological and sociological aspects of Oudy's language use because although she wishes to answer lecturers, she is concerned whether other students, especially European students, will understand her spoken English. As a result, she chooses not to take part in discussions. Oudy's decision to engage in class discussion is not simply about being able to say things but also about being perceived by other students as a 'legitimate' speaker.

Julie has problems communicating with particular nationality groups and the large class size.

Extract 13

174 J: *European students speak a lot. Someone speaks incomprehensibly.*
175 *For example, black people, I have a problem with black people. Like*
176 *speaking inside a mouth. I do not understand what they are speaking.*
177 *I do not understand. Someone answers really well. The reason I do not*
178 *dare answering in a classroom is that I feel like sometimes why their*
179 *English is very good. Then why I cannot speak or I never try to speak.*
180 *I may never try. But when I am in a small group, I dare to speak. But*
181 *in a classroom, I don't dare.*

(Julie, English translation, 04/01/06)

Julie makes a connection between 'good English' and 'good answer' because the students whose English are perceived as being highly competent produce sound answers. She reflects on her ability to participate and wonders whether it is her English or her confidence which makes speaking in a huge class an issue. Lines 180 – 181 'But when I am in a small group, I dare to speak. But in a classroom, I don't dare' demonstrate that Julie is a reflective learner who not only questions her speaking ability, but also considers how different communicative settings are pivotal for her to participate. Her self-reflection on her and others' language use illustrates her awareness of differences and difficulties regarding their ethnic identities and intelligibility.

Julie believes that Chinese students will understand her but Europeans may not.

Extract 14

191 J: *...When a lecturer asks me, I want to give another*
192 *opinion. But I don't dare answer because I am not sure if the class*
193 *will understand me. Chinese students may understand, but*
194 *European students may not.*

(Julie, English translation, 04/01/06)

This extract reveals that Julie is a sensitive and considerate student as she is concerned that her response may confuse her fellow classmates, and thus she decides not to answer because she does not want to be positioned as a 'trouble maker' within the class. Having studied with Chinese students during the EAP course, Julie has a better understanding of these students and shares close relationships with them. She

believes that they share similar levels of proficiency in English and may feel ‘culturally closer’ to this group as they are from East Asian countries. In the case of the European students, she does not develop the same sense of ‘belonging’ since very few of them take the EAP course, which signifies that their English proficiency meets the requirement of the MSc Marketing programme. Extracts 13 and 14 suggest Julie’s construction of ‘otherness’ with regard to her classmates’ ethnicities. The ‘othering’ appears to be related to issues regarding English pronunciation: she claims to feel more ‘distanced’ from particular ethnic groups because she finds it ‘difficult’ to comprehend their speech; but feels ‘closer’ to Chinese students whom she was familiar with through the EAP course.

Pook also notices a big gap in English proficiency levels among postgraduate students, and a great difference compared to the situation in the EAP course.

Extract 15

101 P: ...I participated more in the EAP course because the class was small
102 and students had more or less English proficiency level as me. I
103 wasn’t shy to communicate with them. In MSc Marketing classes,
104 other students are very smart. My ideas or answers could be correct
105 as theirs. But the problem is my English, which they may not
106 understand so that I don’t want to answer in class.

(Pook, English translation, 04/04/06)

In the EAP classroom with a relatively small number of students, Pook positions herself equally with her peers because they share similar levels of language proficiency and she also knows everyone in the class. The power relations in interaction are minimised as they are all language learners. In the postgraduate classroom, a larger number of students, representing a wider range of different languages and nationalities, who have not taken the EAP course because they are more advanced linguistically, seem to highlight the differences between them and the respective students. Previously, by being a pre-sessional EAP student, Pook was positioned as ‘linguistically incompetent’ and ‘in-need-of-help’ by her tutor (see Extract 10, Chapter 4). As a result, she positions non-EAP students as ‘intelligent’ and ‘superior’ to her because she perceives that they do not have any problems with their English.

For Julie and Pook, in the postgraduate classrooms, there are students with high and low levels of English proficiency. The tension between different linguistic backgrounds and proficiency triggers their linguistic anxiety and discomfort as they may not be familiar with other students' spoken English. Recognising their language learning experiences in the EAP course allows better understanding of their non-participation. Without recognising their language history, it is likely that their disengagement could be interpreted as passive and ignorant.

At times when there is more than one Thai student in the same group, they unintentionally discuss things in Thai even though there is another overseas student in the group, as Sharp regrettably states.

Extract 16

405 S: *Sometimes I forgot. I didn't intend to speak Thai in front of him*
406 *because when I discussed about the topic, I discussed in Thai. If I*
407 *were him, I would feel bad though because I wouldn't understand what*
408 *they said. I think if there are overseas students in a group, I should*
409 *speak in English. Otherwise I feel that I alienate them.*

(Sharp, English translation, 06/04/06)

Sharp agrees that it is important to use English as a medium of communication to enable other overseas students to participate. His awareness of using English as a common language within a group avoids alienation, and thus he positions himself as an 'unbiased' and 'non-discriminatory' person who considers other overseas students equal.

This section has shown how linguistic ideologies crucially impact upon the perceived linguistic 'legitimacy' of speakers of English when Thai students evaluate their and classmates' spoken English, and this determines Thai students' positioning with their interlocutors differently within the classroom contexts discussed. Positioning oneself and others as 'legitimate' speakers of English is thus socially constructed within particular interactive settings as Thai students find themselves more comfortable speaking in English with their Chinese counterparts than with their European ones. The findings suggest that Thai students are keen to position themselves at the same level as their Chinese classmates due to their similar English language proficiency

levels and the familiarity and friendship they shared during the EAP course. Thai students, on the contrary, seem to position themselves as ‘linguistically inferior’ to their European counterparts, and this discourages them from participating in class and group discussions. There is a need for negotiation and accommodation from both parties to even out this disparity and create a more reciprocal relationship for effective communication. The following section addresses the dominance of classmates from other subject disciplines, such as, the MBA and MSc Management programmes, which also significantly impact upon Thai students’ classroom participation.

5.2.2 Dominance of Classmates from Different Subject Disciplines

During the second term, there are students in the MSc Marketing classes from different subject disciplines, such as, the MBA (Master of Business Administration) and MSc Management. MBA students, in particular, are recruited to the programme on the basis of their extensive business experience, and hence most of them are mature students. MSc Management students are similar to MSc Marketing students in terms of educational background and work experience. These groups of MBA and MSc Management students can enrol on marketing option courses, such as, *Consumption and Culture* and *International Marketing*. Although these students bring new ideas to the class discussions, they are perceived as dominating and intimidating by the Thai students, and this affects their classroom participation.

Pinkie feels that MBA students who take the marketing option courses are ‘the cream of the crop’.

Extract 17

270 P: *I think it’s good. They were really intelligent. MBA students shared*
271 *lots of ideas. There were the best students from each course. They*
272 *engaged in discussions a lot.*

(Pinkie, English translation, 05/04/06)

Pinkie deliberately positions MBA students as ‘intelligent’ and ‘engaged’ because of their frequent involvement in class discussions, and thus they create a more dynamic interaction in the classroom environment. Pinkie’s positive perception of MBA

students allows her to enjoy learning in interactive educational settings, and does not view MBA students' classroom participation as domination.

Oudy not only perceives the MBA students as mature and experienced but also comments on their kind personality.

Extract 18

225 O: *I'd prefer to study with MBA students because they have work*
226 *experience before. They are older than me. They are kind, nice, and*
227 *friendly, and want to share ideas with other students. I can know MBA*
228 *students more than MSc Management. I like learning styles of MBA*
229 *students.*

(Oudy, Original in English, 04/04/06)

Oudy appreciates learning with MBA students and deliberately positions them as 'mature', 'kind', 'nice', 'friendly', and 'sharing', which seems to suggest that she perceives MBA students as having higher status in terms of work experience and seniority compared with students on other business programmes. She, therefore, values them as role models for postgraduate students.

Similarly, Petch admires an American MBA student who can argue and discuss subject content with lecturers because this particular student prepares well before class.

Extract 19

210 *One American MBA*
211 *student knew and read a lot. I would say he's the real master's student.*

212 K: *What did you mean by a 'real master's student'?*

213 P: *He read handouts, interacted, and could argue with the lecturer.*

(Petch, English translation, 05/04/06)

Petch deliberately positions that student as the 'real master's student' because he reads, interacts, and argues with the lecturer, besides possessing the essential characteristics of being mature and having business experience. Petch's views reflect his independent learning styles, and that he should become more involved in class discussions in addition to his independent study, so he can position himself as a 'real master's student'.

Sharp observes the differences between the MBA and the MSc students in one of the option courses.

Extract 20

201 S: *I felt that there was a clear distinction between MBA and MSc*
202 *students. MBA students were mature and could share their past*
203 *business experiences. In marketing classes, only few students would*
204 *respond to tutors. MBA students seemed powerful and became*
205 *dominant in classroom discussions.*

(Sharp, English translation, 06/04/06)

MBA students' classroom engagement in the optional marketing courses alters the interactive communication of the marketing students as a result of unequal power relations which are linked to maturity and the business experiences of MBA students over the MSc marketing students. Sharp deliberately positions MBA students as 'dominant', 'powerful', and 'experienced'.

Pook also feels that her intellectual confidence is undermined by students from other subject disciplines.

Extract 21

90 K: *Did you want to discuss as well when you saw others did?*
91 P: *No. Because I am not as smart as them. I find them very clever*
92 *because their ideas are very good.*

(Pook, English translation, 04/04/06)

Pook wishes to withdraw from classroom discussions because she thinks that her ideas are not as good as theirs since she has no academic background and work experience in marketing. She thus interactively positions herself as 'not smart' and them as 'clever'. Oudy, on the other hand, who wishes to participate in small group discussions, feels ignored and isolated from her group.

Extract 22

199 *...I shared ideas with my friends*
200 *who study Master of Management. She was born in England and her*
201 *English is very fluent because she is native speaker. I think it's very*

202 *good for me and can help me to learn. But I think sometimes I don't*
 203 *know about how to discuss because at that time I don't know about*
 204 *how to answer the question. What is the exact answer? Sometimes I*
 205 *keep quiet. But some of my friends in a small group didn't persuade*
 206 *me to have a discussion in a small group. She just discussed together*
 207 *with her friends and I just sit behind her.*

(Oudy, Original in English, 04/04/06)

Oudy initially has a positive impression of one of her group members, a British student in MSc Management, because she expects to learn from her and wants to discuss issues with a native speaker. Oudy, however, feels she has no ideas to contribute to the discussion, and unfortunately, her group members ignore her because she cannot contribute any ideas to the group. She believes her group members should be more supportive but she realises that not every classmate is willing to support her because they have to give feedback to a lecturer. She also feels there is an issue of racial differences within the group which constrains her from participating.

Extract 23

214 *...I feel why she didn't care about my feeling and my friend's, Iris,*
 215 *because we are the Asian students. It's just like difference between us.*

(Oudy, Original in English, 04/04/06)

For Oudy, group discussion is a rather isolating experience because she either has to negotiate unequal power relations and make a decision to be part of it or otherwise feel completely ignored. Oudy and other Asian student are positioned as 'outsiders' by their team mates, and this may require an appropriate intervention from the lecturer to avoid social exclusion and racial discrimination in multilingual classroom practices.

The perceived unequal power relations, namely, linguistic, racial, age, and subject discipline differences Thai students encounter with their overseas classmates positively and negatively impact on their intention to participate in classroom discussions. The positive experiences arise from their appreciation of learning new ideas and past business experiences from some experienced MBA students. The negative experiences, however, are related to different English language competencies, particularly accents and pronunciation, which they find hard to comprehend. It is important for Thai students to develop positive attitudes towards

other varieties of English and to foster an appreciation of multilingualism in classrooms, which can contribute to more successful interaction. Appropriate intervention from the lecturer should be used to promote effective group discussions, and create social inclusion with equal opportunities for every learner to engage in classroom and group discussions. The following section examines the importance of individuals' personal identities and agency which contributes to their willingness to participate in class discussions.

5.3 Effects of Thai Students' Personal Identities and Agency

Similar to the findings in section 4.3 in Chapter 4 where the effects of Thai students' personal identities and agency in the pre-sessional EAP course was discussed drawing upon van Langenhove and Harré's (1999) 'deliberate self-positioning' which emphasises the exertion of personal agency, expresses individuals' unique viewpoints, and reflects on their experiences, this section reveals the results of these effects upon Thai students' participation in MSc Marketing classes. The intention of Thai students to participate in class discussions relates to who they are, what they want to be, and how they can take responsibility to achieve what they want to do. These questions reflect their personal identities and agency which are underpinned by individual experiences, histories, language competence, national identities, and background knowledge.

Petch finds independent learning far more productive because he can read marketing theories by himself and enjoy his leisure time as well.

Extract 24

29 P: *I just need to read and write assignments. I would prefer to read and*
30 *I understand the same as attending the lecture. I don't find the lecture*
31 *interesting. It's fun to discuss the case study. But if tutors just talk*
32 *about principles and theories, I lose my interest and attention. It's*
33 *more fun watching TV or movie for two hours than attending the*
34 *lecture, which is suffering.*

(Petch, English translation, 21/12/05)

This extract shows a contrastive picture compared to the EAP course where Petch appeared more enthusiastic and attentive because of his tutor's consistent support and encouragement for him to discuss and take part in classroom activities. In the postgraduate class, Petch becomes more independent and adopts a new learning strategy, allocating his study time himself because he realises that course assessment depends on success in assignments and not classroom participation. This clearly illustrates that Petch exerts his personal agency by actively making relevant choices and being responsible for his study. He deliberately positions himself as a 'mature' and 'independent' postgraduate student.

Having work experience as a marketing manager, Pekky deliberately positions herself as 'confident' and 'individualistic', and this influences her discussions regarding classroom engagement.

Extract 25

258 **K:** *Does knowing your classmates help you with a class discussion or*
 259 *participation?*

260 **P:** *For the class participation, I don't think it helped because it depends*
 261 *on me. Not depends on the person in the room. At the first term, even*
 262 *though I didn't know anyone, I wanted to answer because I feel like I*
 263 *could be more productive to answer. In the second term even I know*
 264 *more people, but I don't want to talk because I feel bored.*

(Pekky, Original in English, 03/04/06)

Pekky's behaviour in the postgraduate classroom echoes her active learning style in the pre-sessional course (see Extract 31, Chapter 4). Her individuality appears more salient than the influence of her classmates in determining whether to participate. She observes that she initially wants to answer in class during the first term but she withdraws later in the year because she does not find the lessons interesting. Her situation suggests that she exerts her agency in classroom participation in terms of recognising her personal, academic goals and taking responsibility for her study without being influenced by others. She is also realistic about her communicative competence based on her career goals in international business.

Extract 26

318 *...I think my*
319 *ability is able to communicate. But my expectation is quite high. I*
320 *want to improve a lot. But I cannot get that. So that's why I am not*
321 *that good. When I go back to Thailand, I think I can communicate and*
322 *do the business. Because we are still Thai anyway. If we deal with*
323 *overseas people, they don't expect us to be an expert.*

(Pekky, Original in English, 03/04/06)

Pekky imagines that when she returns to work in an international company in Thailand, she will be able to communicate with overseas customers but will not be expected to be an 'expert' like 'native speakers'. This is an interesting point because it shows the significance of how ethnic identity, language ideology, language legitimacy, and positioning, are related in an individual's perception of language use. For Pekky, being Thai means that she is not considered a 'legitimate' speaker of English by overseas customers, and thus she can position herself as a 'non-expert' who can communicate.

Similarly, Sharp's positioning is linked to his future career.

Extract 27

97 S: *I come here to study because I want to*
98 *work in a marketing field that does not require me to say things.*
99 *Marketing has many different fields. I don't want to do any*
100 *presentation. I just want to work on data, read, think, and plan. I*
101 *don't want to do or supervise any activities. I just want to do*
102 *market planning.*

(Sharp, English translation, 06/04/06)

It is important to take into account Sharp's intended marketing career which requires more reflection and planning than discussing. His self-reflection illustrates what he wants to do in his future career, which echoes Pavlenko and Blackledge's (2004) aspect of identities which is related to imagination, and enables Sharp to position himself in the classroom as a 'thinker' rather than a 'speaker'. Without such awareness of his future career plans, Sharp's classroom participation could be perceived as 'passive' and 'non-participative'.

Pook's decision to participate is situated and context specific.

Extract 28

80 P: ...In some classes, if I understand the lecture
81 and am sure about the answer, I'll answer. For example, in the last
82 Principles of Marketing class, I answered a lot because the lecturer
83 didn't mind what the answer was. He asked us what we thought about
84 Honda car. I shouted 'economical'. The lecturer said 'um'. What
85 we thought about Timberland, I shouted 'adventurous'. It's a short
86 answer. If the question was difficult, I couldn't answer it.

(Pook, English translation, 22/12/05)

This extract particularly illustrates a situated context and practice in the *Principles of Marketing* class, which Pook participates in because she feels comfortable offering short precise answers. The lecturer's elicitation technique also encourages her to take part since the lecturer wishes to ascertain students' general perceptions of certain products. This particular interactive context enables Pook to exert her action in response to the lecturer's question, and this results in her positioning as 'active' and 'knowledgeable' about the products. This incident illustrates that she engages with the activity situated in that particular moment in time and space.

Due to her lack of marketing background and work experience, Pinkie observes other students answering in class which fulfils lecturers' expectation of student participation.

Extract 29

53 P: First, there were people answering questions already. If no one
54 answered, I wanted to answer because I felt pity for lecturers that no
55 one understood what he taught. I also have a weak point that I have
56 no work experience and marketing background. Pekky could answer
57 because she worked before. She could see the whole picture, but I
58 couldn't. When I listened to others and I thought differently. But
59 tutors said their ideas were okay. So I thought that I might not have
60 enough information to answer. I was afraid that if I answered it
61 wrongly, tutors would think that his teaching was not good.

(Pinkie, English translation, 06/01/06)

There are two main reasons related to the feelings of the lecturer, which motivates her to answer. Firstly, she does not want the lecturers to feel embarrassed if there is no response from any student. Secondly, she does not want them to feel bad about their teaching if she answers incorrectly because it may indicate that they have not explained something clearly enough. She negotiates her identities with the lecturer in mind. This sensitivity to the lecturer's feelings may demonstrate her positive attitude towards classroom participation, which depends on the situated classroom dynamic in that particular time and space.

Oudy's decision to participate in class discussion is primarily due to her anxiety about being a 'non-native' speaker of English which she feels she must overcome.

Extract 30

123 O: *Try to overcome my fear of speaking English in front of other students*
124 *in a big class and that I am not a native speaker so that I can't deliver*
125 *my ideas to others in English comprehensively. In my mind, there're*
126 *two conflicts in myself. The first one is that I come here to study*
127 *master's degree only a year, I should get something more than that.*
127 *The other conflict is that whether I could do it because I have no*
128 *background in marketing and how I could start to do it. For now, I*
129 *could overcome my fear. But I don't think it's going to be smooth like*
130 *this forever because it's not a bed of roses because there are other*
131 *factors to stop from participating. Those factors could be boredom*
132 *and non-readiness in studying in class and managing time in my study.*

(Oudy, English translation, 04/01/06)

Oudy struggles to overcome her psychological conflicts as she not only feels that her spoken English might not be comprehensible to her classmates but she also lacks marketing knowledge. She realises, however, that if she wants to achieve her academic aims, she has to eliminate these personal fears. Through her self-reflection, she positions herself as a 'reflective', 'thoughtful' and 'realistic' person who is aware of other factors, such as, boredom, preparation, and time management, which all influence her participation.

As the course progresses, Oudy's comments on her academic ambition are noteworthy.

Extract 31

496 O: ...I never give up. I always think about I come here
497 because I want to study master and I want to get every opportunity that
498 I never get when I study in Thailand. When I come here even though I
499 don't understand the lecture, I try to concentrate on the lecture. I try to
500 learn as much as I can. This is my character. I want to be a good
501 master's student. I don't want my parents to feel upset because me.
502 That's why I try to study hard. But it doesn't mean that I come here
503 just only study, study and study. I come here because I want to learn
504 English language. I want to graduate master and I want to know my
505 friends from other countries or the friendship. I think if I study hard
506 and the result is really good, I'll be proud of myself and my parents
507 will be proud of me as well.

(Oudy, Original in English, 04/04/06)

Line 496 'I never give up' clearly represents her determination to be the best she can because she recognises that she cannot have this academic opportunity in Thailand. Her determination induces her agency to pay attention in class to become 'a good master's student' (Lines 500 – 501), which indicates she deliberately positions herself as 'active' and 'ambitious'. Line 501 'I don't want my parents to feel upset' clearly shows the influence of her parents on her agentive learning behaviour to achieve her academic and personal goals, namely, improving her English and making friends.

Julie's personal identities and agency leading to her classroom participation, depends to a large extent on the relationships she develops with her classmates.

Extract 32

183 J: ...Next term, I may change myself. You
184 have to wait and see. I think that why in a tutorial, I could speak.
185 When no one answered, I would answer first. Why I did dare to speak.
186 Maybe because I knew all the students, which were about 15 students
187 in the tutorial group. But in big classes, I didn't know everyone. I
188 didn't dare speaking at all.

(Julie, English translation, 04/01/06)

This extract reveals that she wants to exert her agency as an active and participative student who wishes to participate in the discussion as she said in Line 183 'Next term, I may change myself'. This statement is so powerful and remarkable that she can reposition herself in order to improve the current and unfavourable position of being 'non-participative' to be more 'participative'. Lines 183-184 'You have to wait and

see’ also suggests she is challenging me as a researcher to witness her potential to change.

She begins to notice her ability to communicate in a tutorial group as she would initially participate in the discussion when no one seems to answer. She starts to realise the importance of knowing people in the group as she could feel secure and know that they would understand what she is trying to say. In a big class, on the contrary, she does not know everyone, which causes tension for her and the other students, who may not understand what she says. Peer pressure adversely affects her participation, which could imply that she is quite a self-conscious person who needs to be accepted among people in groups. The issue of the large class size is discussed in greater detail in the following section.

In conclusion, to understand the Thai students’ positioning better in postgraduate classrooms, it is important to examine the complex relationships between each individual’s personal identities and agency, which are intertwined with educational, personal, and career goals, situated classroom contexts and practices, linguistic competence, educational backgrounds and experiences, and parental expectations. These issues underline the struggles individuals consistently have to face in the multilingual contexts and practices in the postgraduate classrooms.

5.4 Large Class Size

Thai postgraduate students encounter an unexpectedly large physical class size and a great number of students compared this with their previous classroom experiences either in Thailand or the EAP classes. The size of the class poses a challenge for Thai students to overcome in order to achieve their academic goals. Due to the large class size, Pinkie’s expectation of having a discussion in her postgraduate class is not realised.

Extract 33

73 P: *I’ve never thought that the class is this big. I think studying at*
74 *master’s level, it should be in a small group like I did in my bachelor’s*
75 *degree. Small classes allow us to cooperate and participate and*
76 *everyone can be involved. In big classes, I don’t know them all. If*

77 *lecturers don't control the class well, students will lose focus. I don't*
78 *like it. Classroom environment is not supportive to discuss.*

(Pinkie, English translation, 06/01/06)

Pinkie feels isolated and lacks concentration because there are so many students trying to share ideas, which requires appropriate facilitation from lecturers who have the ability to manage the class and create a more supportive classroom environment for discussion. Because the classroom environment is not conducive to supporting student engagement, she recognises that lecturers have a strong impact on classroom practices because they potentially enable students to engage in discussion.

Petch's classroom participation is an appropriate example to illustrate how lack of the lecturer's monitoring affects the way he positions himself from 'active' to 'passive'.

Extract 34

13 **K:** ***But in class Principles of Marketing, your tutor also asked you to***
14 ***discuss with friends.***

15 **P:** *Very little. It's not significant. We just talked a little bit. Some*
16 *students just chitchat, no real serious discussion. It's different from*
17 *the EAP course that everyone was monitored by our tutor because the*
18 *class was small. As I said, I never paid attention in class that much in*
19 *my life, but now my attention is over. The EAP course supported*
20 *me to be a good student and I was keen to study.*

(Petch, English translation, 21/12/05)

This extract is interesting because it shows how Petch modifies his positioning in two different classroom settings: the EAP and MSc Marketing one. The sociological aspects of the EAP classroom in terms of the tutor's consistent monitoring contributes to his desirable identity position as a 'good' language learner. The lecturer in the *Principles of Marketing* course, on the contrary, does not provide sufficient supervision for all students due to the large class size, and this adversely leads to students' irrelevant chitchatting.

This extract perhaps implies that to understand how Thai students position themselves and others, it is important to recognise the situated, interactive contexts. Upon entering the postgraduate class where independent learning is encouraged with little attention and monitoring from lecturers, Petch reveals that he is no longer an attentive

and active student. It is interesting to note how classroom contexts and practices significantly modify his self-positioning from ‘active’ to ‘passive’ which illustrates how fluid and changeable his identities are. His ‘positions’ in classroom participation are highly context-dependent and require positive reinforcement from close lecturers’ monitoring. He also claims that the nature of the lecture means little discussion is required.

Extract 35

273 **K:** *Is the class too big?*

274 **P:** *It doesn’t matter because it’s a lecture. It’s not a study group. It’s not*
275 *effective to have students in small groups in a big class. It’s better to*
276 *have small groups, 10 –15 students, in smaller classes like in the EAP*
277 *course, like a seminar. Students don’t really discuss in that small*
278 *groups in the big class.*

(Petch, English translation, 05/04/06)

Petch suggests that it would be better to have a seminar with a small number of students to discuss issues in a smaller classroom, similar to the EAP classes. He does not find having a discussion with groups of students in a big class effective. His view on a proper discussion is conditioned by the number of students and the physical classroom space, which establishes a more conducive learning and participating environment. For Julie, the large class size in the postgraduate programme means that she is unable to get to know every student in the class and this adversely affects her attitude towards participation.

Extract 36

349 **J:** *I think this one is too big class. Yeah*
350 *it’s too difficult to show your opinion or to do something. Maybe if I*
351 *compare with my English language class, we know everyone in our*
352 *class. Easy to communicate it. In a big class, we don’t know*
353 *someone. Maybe if you talk something, maybe with I think that it’s*
354 *not stupid, but some people if I answer it. Some people think that it’s*
355 *stupid thing. What should I do? Because we don’t know everyone in*
356 *this class. Maybe someone don’t like you, someone like you.*

(Julie, Original in English, 03/04/06)

Julie compares and contrasts postgraduate classroom contexts and practices with those of the EAP course where she deliberately positions herself as ‘participative’ and ‘confident’ about answering her tutors because she knows everyone in the EAP class. Her EAP classmates do not judge her answers as ‘stupid’ because she knows that they like her and want to support her. In contrast, in the MSc Marketing class where there are many unfamiliar postgraduate students, she worries that they might not like her and might view her answers as ‘stupid’, and this may position her as ‘stupid’ as well. Line 355 ‘What should I do?’ illustrates a ‘deliberate self-positioning’ situation when she questions herself about how she can handle the peer pressure in the large classroom environment, and thus she positions herself as ‘powerless’, ‘in-need-of-help’, and ‘non-agentic’ to overcome her own possible misconceptions and anxiety regarding her classmates, which are perhaps rather unhealthy and worrying. The large class size presents the possibility that classmates might dislike her and judge her answers and this unfortunately leads her to position herself as less competent than her classmates. It is a rather unpleasant learning experience for her in the sense that she was once an active and participative language learner in the EAP course but she becomes passive and anxious in the marketing context due to the large number of postgraduate students.

The large class size also affects Pook psychologically regarding her English competence and self-esteem.

Extract 37

32 P: ...I was scared of the big class. I thought that I wanted to
33 participate. But I was afraid of, firstly, my English because as the
34 class was so big that lecturers and classmates would not understand
35 me. Secondly, if I answered a question wrongly, I'd lose my face. In a
36 small class, like the EAP course, it's okay if my answer was wrong. I
37 was a bit tensed because of lots of people.

(Pook, English translation, 22/12/05)

It is interesting to note that ‘losing face’ matters in the postgraduate class because she is intimidated by the large number of students. Her reluctance to answer in class was socially constructed as she is cautious to reactions from her lecturers and classmates, and this adversely affects her self-confidence.

As the course progresses, Pook adopts an eclectic approach towards classroom participation depending on the types of questions posed by the respective lecturers.

Extract 38

29 P: *Because the class was too big. I was afraid that my answer would be*
30 *wrong. So I just answered to myself. Except for some questions that*
31 *only needed short answer and I knew the answer exactly, I would*
32 *answer.*

(Pook, English translation, 04/04/06)

This extract illustrates that in spite of her linguistic and anxiety issues towards classroom participation, she has the intention of answering the lecturers' questions on two main conditions. Firstly, the answers have to be short, and secondly, she has to be sure they are correct. Otherwise, she answers to herself because she does not want to risk losing 'face'. Pook's strategy suggests that she recognises her potential and demonstrates her intention to answer, which clearly illustrates her agency to overcome her fear of embarrassment.

Likewise, Sharp is not so keen on participating in a big class because he feels under pressure when he speaks.

Extract 39

134 K: *So what's the point of the class size?*

135 S: *I don't know, probably I am shy. In the big class, I don't want to a*
136 *centre of attention. I don't want people to look at me.*

(Sharp, English translation, 06/01/06)

He wishes to avoid being focused upon by other students in class, which echoes what he says about his shy personality in classroom participation during the EAP course (see Extract 32, Chapter 4) when he deliberately positions himself as 'reticent'. The situation in a postgraduate classroom may be more daunting for him as there are even more students than in the EAP classes, which could lead him to be quieter.

Oudy also finds it difficult to express her ideas in a huge class and prefers to study in a smaller class like those organised during the EAP course.

Extract 40

22 O: *Because I know my character. If I study in the small group or when I*
23 *studied in the EAP course, there are just only less than 20 students in*
24 *the class. That's why I feel comfortable to participate or to discuss*
25 *with other students. But when I study in huge class, sometimes I feel*
26 *a little bit I didn't want to explain some ideas. Maybe because*
27 *most students who have participate in a huge class, I think they came*
28 *from European countries. So maybe at the first time I thought they*
29 *have a great idea or how can I say opinion to explain what they*
30 *wanted to answer. And about their English is quite well or better than*
31 *us, I mean better than Asian students.*

(Oudy, Original in English, 04/01/06)

This extract reveals her underlying beliefs regarding the relationship between language ideology and students' national identities. She believes European students' English is far better than that of Asian students. She notes that the European students can participate in the discussion much better than Asian students due to the fact that they have better English. Having better English also means that they are 'legitimate' speakers who can explain their ideas clearly and are perceived as being knowledgeable. As a result, Oudy deliberately positions herself and other Asian students as 'less competent' and 'illegitimate' language users compared to the European students. She believes that Asian students' language proficiency is a barrier to classroom participation. Because the huge class constrains Thai students from taking part in the discussion, Julie explicitly relates this to particular flaws in the programme which she feels lacks practical relevance.

Extract 41

56 *I think studying marketing*
57 *should have more discussion. The room is too big for students to*
58 *engage in a discussion. There's a study group, which requires us to*
59 *have a discussion. There is a discussion about how to write*
60 *assignments. It's very difficult to engage in a big class. I think it's*
61 *better to have a small group discussion. Or after studying in a big*
62 *class, there should be a discussion in a small group.*

(Julie, English translation, 04/01/06)

This extract reveals that she has a series of expectations about the programme, anticipating that it would provide her with chances to be involved in discussion and debate about marketing case studies. She is an attentive and diligent student who

wants to gain more marketing knowledge in addition to her first degree in marketing. Though there is a study group, she does not find it useful for discussion since it focuses more on the demands of producing a written assignment and does not entail much discussion on marketing itself. She suggests that having a small group discussion at the end of the big class that would contribute to more effective classroom teaching and learning.

To sum up, although large class size seems to have sociological implications, such as, the roles of lecturers and classmates, and Thai students' personal identities and agency mentioned in the previous sections, I would like to highlight its significance in this section because it negatively affects Thai students' psychological well-being, in terms of, self-confidence, self-esteem, and anxiety, which adversely impacts on their willingness to participate in class discussions. They also feel that they have not been treated fairly by the programme. It is, therefore, advisable for the postgraduate programme to provide a more conducive and supportive learning environment, such as, smaller group discussions, for postgraduate students to promote effective classroom discussions because studying in the postgraduate programme in the UK should not be about quantity but quality and equality.

5.5 Chapter summary

Based on the theoretical framework underpinned by Creese and Martin's (2003) *multilingual ecological approach* and Pavlenko and Blackledge's (2004) *identities in multilingual contexts* and the analytical framework *positioning theory* (Davies and Harré, 1990; and van Langenhove and Harré, 1999), this chapter presents the findings of this study. Four key factors, namely, lecturers' teaching styles and methods and their linguistic diversity; overseas classmates' linguistic diversity and classmates' different subject disciplines; Thai students' personal identities and agency; and the large class size, all play significant roles in their interactions and relationships with lecturers and classmates in a variety of situated contexts in the multilingual MSc Marketing classrooms during the first (October – December 2005) and second terms (January – March 2006).

The findings suggest a number of important issues. Firstly, lecturers' initiation of discussions, the provision of student support, and practical marketing content, are all perceived as useful and positive, and allow Thai students to take up '*active*', '*attentive*', and '*enthusiastic*' positions in class. Lecturers' repetitive use of teaching materials and lack of practical marketing orientations, however, discourage these students from participating in classroom discussions, and thus they position themselves as rather '*passive*' and '*reluctant*'. The second issue is Thai students' perceptions of linguistic diversity. Their 'non-native' lecturers' spoken English is devalued, and results in their preference to study with 'native' lecturers. It, therefore, appears advisable for Thai students to develop more broad-minded attitudes towards multilingualism and varieties of English in multilingual, UK higher education because this may help to enhance their learning experience in a British university.

Power relations between Thai students and their overseas classmates related to linguistic diversity and subject discipline differences also crucially determine Thai students' positioning with their classmates. They position themselves and other Asian students, Chinese in particular, on equal terms because they share similar levels of English proficiency and are 'culturally close'. European students, on the contrary, are positioned as 'legitimate' speakers of English because of their perceived 'standard' English pronunciation. Thai students appreciate learning with students from other business programmes, such as, MBA and MSc Management, who play dominant roles in class discussions because they are mature and have more work experience to share within the class.

The exertion of personal identities and agency is prominent because Thai students recognise personal strengths and weaknesses with reference to their personality, individuality, sensitivity to lecturers' teaching and classmates' participation, and academic and career ambitions, which enable them to exert their agency to take up desirable identity positions within particular classroom settings. Finally, the large class size undermines Thai students' confidence and hinders them from participating in discussions due to different underlying concerns, such as, students' academic expectations, lecturers' teaching styles, classmates' relationships, and English language proficiency, which are interrelated and complex.

The following chapter draws together the findings of chapters 4 and 5 by discussing issues arising from both the EAP and MSc Marketing classroom contexts and practices. The first issue deals with the status of English as an International Language (EIL), as it is the language of instruction and communication among speakers of different first languages in a British university. The implications for the teaching and learning of EIL are, therefore, considered based upon McKay's (2002) comprehensive theory of teaching and learning of EIL in multilingual contexts because this offers an understanding of assumptions, goals, and approaches to teaching EIL, which are applicable to teaching speaking and listening skills in a pre-sessional EAP course. EIL pedagogy can be a useful tool to broaden Thai and other international students' viewpoints regarding multilingualism in British academic settings and has the potential to encourage them to become 'legitimate' speakers of EIL. Accordingly, they will feel empowered, confident, and proud of their spoken English, which may lead to more positive learning experiences in UK higher education.

CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

The two previous chapters demonstrate the importance of exploring Thai students' ongoing perceptions of classroom experience over an extended period of time from a pre-sessional EAP course to an MSc Marketing programme to reveal individual struggles and personal transformations in the multilingual classroom contexts. Without examining Thai students' perspectives of classroom participation from the outset in the pre-sessional EAP course, I would not be able to make any relevant connections between the EAP and MSc Marketing contexts and show how their views and behaviours in terms of classroom participation are influenced. It is evident that Thai students in this study find communication in the MSc Marketing classrooms more difficult than in the pre-sessional ones despite the fact that they are taught and given opportunities to practice listening and speaking skills through different communicative tasks in the pre-sessional course. It is, therefore, imperative to examine the current pre-sessional EAP provision at the Language Unit by scrutinising the speaking and listening syllabus and suggesting potential ways to improve the support that is offered to these students.

According to the syllabus document for speaking and listening skills (see Appendix 7), the pre-sessional course in this study aims to equip learners with relevant speaking and listening skills for their postgraduate degree programmes at a British university. EAP course designers place an emphasis on the following types of speaking skills: making suggestions, agreeing/disagreeing, giving and asking for opinions and clarification, organising group work, expanding ideas, and thinking critically. Under the listening skills syllabus, the following topics are covered: useful collocations, prediction, cause and effect, abbreviations, exemplification, digression, following arguments, guessing and coping with problematic words. Learners also practice pronunciation with regard to intonation, vowels, consonants and their endings, stress, suffixes, clusters, and tone units. Cultural aspects are also addressed in terms of developing cross-cultural understanding, reflecting on life in the UK, using politeness strategies, and making excuses and apologies. The pre-sessional course aims to develop international students' academic competence, study skills, and language proficiency to ensure their academic success during their postgraduate studies in a British university.

This study, however, reveals that Thai students' communication is constrained by certain sociological factors existing within the postgraduate classroom. These particularly stem from their classmates' linguistic, ethnic, and cultural diversity as well as different academic and career backgrounds, and the large class size. Influenced by socio-political power relations, 'standard' language ideologies and legitimacy, these sociological factors have a psychological impact, influencing the way the Thai students perceive their language use and view their 'non-standard' English as 'illegitimate' for classroom use. These students are, therefore, relatively reticent and hesitant to engage in postgraduate classroom settings. This phenomenon is reflected in the work of Jenkins (2000) who notes that 'non-native' speakers' (NNSs) reticence and lack of confidence in classroom communication arises from a belief that the varieties spoken by 'native' speakers (NSs) constitute 'desirable English' (p.8).

The problem of Thai students' disengagement in the MSc Marketing classrooms may be attributed to deficiencies in the current EAP course. This course does not acknowledge 'linguistic ecologies' in postgraduate classrooms in terms of the status and varieties of English and their impact upon language learners' attitudes, interactions, and inter-relationships with speakers of other languages. The findings of this study suggest that Thai students have more opportunities to interact with NNSs than NSs due to the relatively large number of international students, and thus English in the pre-sessional EAP and MSc Marketing courses functions as a medium of instruction and communication and can be perceived as an international language rather than as a foreign language. Pedagogy regarding English as an international language (EIL) in the pre-sessional course is, however, under-explored. In this chapter, I, therefore, aim to discuss the definitions and pedagogical implications of EIL drawing upon McKay's (2002) *comprehensive theory of teaching English as an International Language* which can offer promising solutions for EAP tutors and help to empower, encourage, and enhance international students' classroom participation in their postgraduate studies.

This chapter is divided into four sections. Following the definitions of EIL in section one, section two critically discusses McKay's assumptions about EIL regarding language use in multilingual contexts, 'native-speaker' models, and learners' attitudes

towards varieties of English. Section three emphasises the goals of teaching EIL, namely, the promotion of mutual intelligibility and the creation of comity in cross-cultural interaction. The chapter ends by examining approaches to teaching EIL with regard to the appropriate use of culturally sensitive materials, the recognition of local cultures of learning, and the acknowledgement of how socio-cultural and political issues impact upon classroom teaching.

6.1 Definitions of EIL

According to McKay (2002), English is quintessentially an international language that serves local and global communication for both speakers from the same country and between speakers from different countries. She further suggests that when English is used along with other languages in multilingual settings as an unmarked choice for purposes of wider communication, it can be considered as an international language (McKay, 2002, p.38). Drawing upon Kachru's (1990) three-circle model that distinguishes speakers of English in terms of three circles: the 'inner circle' which consists of the UK, the USA, Australia, which represent traditional bases of English, the 'outer circle' which includes countries, such as, India, Sri Lanka, Singapore, Malaysia, which use English as their second or official language, and the 'expanding circle' which includes speakers from China, Japan, and Germany, where English is studied as a foreign language, Seidlhofer (2005) claims that English, as a consequence of its international use, is being shaped not only by NSs but also by NNSs within and across 'circles' for intranational and international communication (p.339). Jenkins (2000) also notes that EIL can promote cross-cultural democracy due to the ownership of all who use it for communication regardless of who or where they are (p.4).

The concept of EIL is relevant for discussion in this study because the use of EIL in multilingual classroom settings reflects the increasing number of international students in UK higher education in recent years. Kennedy (2001) notes that universities in the 'inner circle' countries recruit more students from the 'outer circle' and 'expanding circle' countries as a source of income due to the cuts in government funding of higher education. Consequently, the English spoken by students and academic staff in a British university is not only considered as native to British people, but also as a common language for wider communication among students

from ‘outer circle’ and the ‘expanding circle’ countries. Tutors and a large number of international students enable Thai students to have interactions and establish relationships within and across different ‘circles’. Although English is used as a medium of instruction and communication in the institution at which this study takes place, Thai students primarily interact with students from the ‘expanding circle’ countries, such as China, Taiwan, Japan, Greece, and the ‘outer circle’ countries, like, Ghana, Nigeria, and Nepal, rather than with NSs from the ‘inner circle’ countries, such as, the UK and the USA. Coleman (2006) states that SOCRATES-ERASMUS exchange students in English-speaking countries socialise more with other foreign students than with NSs, and can better understand other NNSs than local students (p.11). As a result, English is used among NNSs who are the majority rather than NSs, and thus the use of English among NNSs offers a new perspective and opens a debate regarding English as an International Language (EIL) in multilingual classrooms.

6.2 EIL assumptions

McKay (2002) makes three assumptions that can inform a comprehensive theory of the teaching and learning of EIL, which include i) language use in multilingual contexts, ii) ‘native-speaker’ model, and iii) language variation (p.125), which will be discussed below.

6.2.1 Language use in multilingual contexts

Firstly, the theory of EIL teaching and learning must recognise the various ways in which English is used by bilingual speakers within multilingual settings (McKay, 2002, p.125). This assumption reflects the theoretical frameworks in this study. To reiterate, Creese and Martin’s (2003) ‘multilingual classroom ecologies’ concern the relationship and interactions between language users in particular classroom settings underpinned by linguistic ideologies and linguistic legitimacy. This impacts on how Thai students want to participate or withdraw from certain interactive situations because of the way they perceive their spoken English and that of others. In addition, there are power relations existing within and outside classrooms. According to Pavlenko and Blackledge (2004), these power relations affect language users’

These incidents suggest that the Thai students hold different views about the use of English and Thai in multilingual classrooms, and that they take various measures depending on their willingness to practice their spoken English, what opportunities they believe can allow them to use English, and what language learning goals they want to achieve. Recognising language learners' attitudes towards multilingualism in UK higher education could initially enable EAP tutors to understand their underlying rationale regarding their decision to study in the UK, and why and how learners want to improve their English, and course designers and language tutors could ensure the course and materials suit learners' needs.

6.2.2 'Native-speaker' model

McKay (2002) claims that 'many bilingual users of English do not need or want to acquire native-like competence for the following reasons: firstly, they may need to acquire NSs' registers for formal use only instead of their full range; second, they may not want to acquire native-like competence; and thirdly, there is no reason for some EIL users to provide NS standards for others because EIL belongs to its users' (p.126). This assumption is debatable because it depends on 'native-speaker' model regarding what it means to be 'native' and 'non-native' speakers of English. Davies (2003) notes that this fundamental opposition of these two terms concerns power and membership, which are determined by 'non-native' speakers' assumptions regarding confidence and identity, and thus speakers of EIL can be considered as native speakers in their own right (p.214). In this study, however, the terms 'native' and 'non-native' speakers expressed by Thai students were still based on the 'standard' English of 'inner circle' speakers. Initially, Pinkie expresses her willingness to communicate with anyone in English whether 'native' or 'non-native' speakers of English as she feels that speaking with them could help improve her train of thought.

Extract 2

121 P: *Speaking English to non-native speakers doesn't mean that you can't*
122 *practice. You just practice but it's different accent. And if you can*
123 *speak English, a native will try to understand you. That's okay.*
124 *Practise speaking is not necessary to speak to native speakers. You*
125 *can practice with everyone, your mum, your dad, even in the mirror*

It is thus relatively difficult to convince language learners not to consider adopting ‘native-like’ competence as their language learning model because each individual has different language learning goals and objectives. Unless they have experienced language use with others, they might not fully appreciate which model of English they aspire to use in multilingual classroom settings. Kirkpatrick (2007) claims that it is not necessarily true that learning a native-speaker model will help learners who plan to study in the UK, the USA, or Australia, because these host countries are likely to have a mixed multicultural population who speak ‘localised’ versions of their own variety of English (p.187). This point relates to the discussion, in the next section, of the third assumption regarding learners’ acknowledgement and exposure to other English varieties.

6.2.3 Learners’ attitudes towards other English varieties

Thirdly, McKay (2002) notes that EIL teaching and learning has to take English varieties into account, and thus students should be taught to acknowledge that all varieties of English are adequate, valid and appropriate for particular communicative demands in order to promote the equality of speakers (p.126). Davies and Harré (1990) note that speakers’ attitudes towards interlocutors are implicated in interactions; hence Thai students’ attitudes towards their spoken English with a Thai accent compared with other students’ varieties of English play a significant role in their discursive practices in the multilingual classrooms, and reveal how language ideologies affect interactions in contexts of language diversity. In this study, it is evident that there are various situations when Thai students express both positive and negative attitudes towards their and others’ spoken English, and that leads to different reactions in particular communicative contexts. Pekky, for instance, does not want to speak and socialise with Chinese students because she is afraid that she might ‘copy’ their ‘bad’ Chinese accent (see Extract 29, Chapter 4). For Pekky, a Chinese accent is viewed as an ‘infectious disease’, which can be caught, and that can lead to an unfavourable result. It is, therefore, better to avoid catching it in the first place by withdrawing herself from any language contact with Chinese students. Julie, on the contrary, perceives communicating with Chinese students as a way of improving her English regardless of ‘acquiring’ their accent (see Extract 26, Chapter 4), and thus she wants to interact more with Chinese students. Pekky’s and Julie’s perceptions of a

Chinese accent suggest that a ‘non-standard’ English accent is not equally valued, and that influences the ways they behave and react towards their Chinese counterparts, be it through engagement or withdrawal. Without having an appropriate tutor’s involvement and acknowledgement of English varieties following an EIL model, student discrimination and isolation are likely to take place.

McKay (2002) also suggests that learners should simultaneously be exposed to varieties of English spoken in their communities and encouraged to learn relevant varieties of English in order to develop better understanding of their appropriate use (p.126). A language tutor’s acknowledgement of EIL alone might not be sufficient because ‘standard’ English ideologies could be deeply rooted in learners’ beliefs. Thus encouraging them to expose themselves to other English varieties could enable them to gain ‘first-hand’ experience and recognise the relevance of EIL instruction. Because of Petch’s direct experience, he is aware of how the local accent sounds.

Extract 5

258 P: ...I know how the local accent sounds. For example, ‘cheers’ /tʃez/
259 or ‘thank you’ /θæŋki/. If you want to use them, you have to use
260 them correctly according to their local accent. Otherwise, it would
261 sound funny.

(Petch, English translation, 05/04/06)

Petch becomes more aware of varieties of English accent spoken by locals whom he normally encounters in daily activities and realises that it is more appropriate to accommodate those local accents in order to avoid ‘funny’ usage or pronunciation. In contrast, Sharp differentiated between ‘educated’ and ‘uneducated’ English accents, according to his ability to understand conversations.

Extract 6

214 S: ...At first, when I went to a restaurant, I couldn’t understand
215 what a waitress or a cashier is trying to say. I felt that their English
216 accents were different from the people in the University. People in a
217 restaurant tended to talk very fast. English people have two types of
218 accent, the educated and the uneducated. The educated ones will
219 speak English that I can understand, whereas the uneducated ones will
220 speak English that I can’t understand.

(Sharp, English translation, 06/01/06)

Besides being exposed to the local people in the British community, Sharp also relies on the media to improve his listening skills, and thus he could recognise and understand British accents.

54 S: ...When I
55 watch TV programmes, I understand them a lot more compared with
56 before I came here. I am not sure that it has improved because in
57 Thailand I listened to American programmes. I think I am used to
58 British accents so that I can understand TV programmes here better.
59 Though I can't catch every word, I understand it more.

Sharp reflects on his listening ability by comparing his comprehension when listening to television programmes before and after coming to the UK. They provide him with a benchmark for self-evaluation regarding whether he understands the message and recognises the British accent.

114 J: ...Outside the classroom, when I
115 said something, they didn't understand me. I didn't know if it's
116 because of my pronunciation. Like 'What do you want?' I had no

117 *stress and intonation, which they couldn't understand me. When they*
118 *didn't understand, I had to change the way I spoke for the second time*
119 *in order to make them understand.*

(Julie, English translation, 25/08/05)

Julie realises that when she speaks with local people, she has no stress and intonation which leads to unintelligibility, so she has to alter her way of speaking to get her message across. This incident draws my attention to the differences between speaking inside and outside the class. There is a relationship between what happens in class and how it could contribute to speaking encounters outside. On the one hand, classroom discussion, listening and speaking practice and grammar instruction contribute to Julie's confidence to experiment in her listening and speaking in social contexts. Social encounters and interactions, on the other hand, provide her with experiences and confidence, which motivates her to engage more with her tutors and peers. This situation clearly demonstrates the reciprocal relationship between the psychological and sociological aspects of society whereby Thai students can experience several linguistic ecologies that potentially contribute to their development of language proficiency and positive attitudes towards their language use.

To conclude, McKay's (2002) EIL assumptions enable us to understand the rationale of how English is used in multilingual settings, which models of English should be employed in teaching and learning, and what kinds of attitudes language learners should adopt, and that helps us to view the use of English in a different light. As a result, there are new teaching goals that can offer us more realistic outcomes for learners, and these will be discussed next.

6.3 Teaching goals for EIL

McKay (2002) claims that the spread of English has resulted in language change and variation, and this requires language teachers to ensure intelligibility among speakers of English because it is crucial to distinguish linguistic differences that may perhaps cause problems of intelligibility from those that could provoke negative attitudes (p.127). These two pedagogical goals: achieving mutual intelligibility and developing intercultural communicative strategies will be discussed below.

6.3.1 Achieving mutual intelligibility

The term ‘intelligibility’ is defined, according to McKay (2002, p.52), in its narrow sense, as the recognition of a particular expression, whereas, in its broader sense, the term ‘intelligibility’ includes ‘comprehensibility’ (knowing the meaning of an expression) and ‘interpretability’ (knowing what an expression signifies in a particular sociocultural context). For example, when a listener recognises the word ‘salt’ as an English word instead of Spanish, English is ‘intelligible’ to that listener; when the word ‘salt’ is known as a particular condiment, it becomes ‘comprehensible’; and when the expression ‘do you have any salt?’ is interpreted as a request for salt, the language is ‘interpretable’ (McKay, 2002, p.52). Jenkins (2000) claims that ‘intelligibility is dynamically negotiable between speaker and listener, rather than statically inherent in a speaker’s linguistic forms’ (p.79). Similarly, Rajadurai (2007) states that the goal of comprehensible communication is to recognise the dynamic and interactive nature of talk in multilingual contexts and the legitimacy of English varieties in order to improve mutual intelligibility and accommodation between interlocutors. The following section will elaborate the EIL teaching goals that entail how language teachers address EIL instruction and develop learners’ strategies for intercultural communication.

McKay (2002) states that in the teaching of EIL language educators need to address linguistic differences, including grammatical and phonological patterns, which may not only hinder mutual intelligibility but also lead to negative attitudes; lack of intelligibility may not result from linguistic differences but rather from social attitudes towards particular linguistic differences (p.127). The first aim of language teachers echoes the EAP tutors’ instruction in the pre-sessional course on several occasions. Pinkie remembers her tutor Ann explicitly pointing out Thai people’s difficulties with English (see Extract 3, Chapter 4). It seems, however, that EAP tutors not pay much attention to the social attitudes that affect Thai students’ language use in academic and social settings. Pook mentions that students in her class do not want to participate in class because of grammatical errors that are likely to cause misunderstanding among their classmates and tutors (see Extract 16, Chapter 4). Sharp expects the course to provide him with more daily expressions that could be useful for him when interacting with others in society (Extract 41, Chapter 4).

Pook's and Sharp's situations suggest that Thai students are aware of how discussion groups and wider society might react to their linguistic differences, and that this might isolate them or lead to discrimination against them and affect their willingness to take part. This issue has been prolonged in their postgraduate study and has become so pertinent that they are reluctant to engage in class discussion because of negative attitudes towards their linguistic differences. Pook, for instance, explicitly states that her disengagement in class discussion is due to her negative attitudes towards her spoken English that might not be intelligible to other students (see Extract 15, Chapter 5). Sharp also tries to avoid being observed by a large number of students in the class (see Extract 39, Chapter 5). This illustrates how classroom contexts significantly affect Sharp's language use. Because the issues of social attitudes towards Thai students' linguistic differences in their spoken English have not been addressed properly, Thai students feel 'marginal', 'incompetent', and even want to be 'invisible' from their lecturers and classmates.

McKay (2002) suggests that language tutors must emphasise the fact that English as an international language belongs to every language user, and that means students from every 'circle' can take ownership of English and can potentially alter the language as long as those changes do not hinder mutual intelligibility (p.127). EAP tutors can raise Thai students' awareness of 'standard' English pronunciation by drawing learners' attention to multilingualism in UK higher education. International students would then become more aware and prepared for what they will encounter in British university classrooms. Raising awareness that other English varieties should be equally valued could enhance self-confidence and self-esteem in terms of their spoken English. EAP tutors can raise this point by presenting international students with different contexts where linguistic differences, i.e. grammatical and phonological features or new lexical items, exist, and can be found in different media such as movies, television programmes, and songs, or even real-life contexts such as university campuses or city centres. They could develop a sense of ownership of their English variety and be proud of it. These additional goals of EAP teaching pedagogy could help equip international students to face challenges and be able to overcome their anxiety regarding their English, and this would contribute to more classroom participation and effective communication in their postgraduate programmes.

6.3.2 Developing intercultural communicative strategies

The second goal of EIL teaching is to encourage learners to develop strategies, such as seeking clarification, establishing rapport, and minimising cross-cultural difference to achieve comity and create friendly relations, and thus the teaching of EIL pragmatics should seek ways to accommodate cross-cultural differences (McKay, 2002, p.127-128). Establishing friendships among classmates is relatively important for these Thai students because it enables them to gain confidence in their speaking, and that becomes more evident in the pre-session course (see section 4.2.1 in Chapter 4) than in the MSc Marketing. To compare between these two classroom settings, there are two main reasons regarding the peer rapport and level of English proficiency that significantly impact on Thai students' classroom participation. The first reason is that, in the pre-session course, Thai students are more familiar and 'culturally closer' to their peers from the 'expanding circle' countries, like, China, Taiwan, and Japan, and thus cross-cultural differences are minimised and intercultural communication is promoted. In the MSc Marketing classes, however, Thai students face a tougher challenge when cross-cultural differences signify a wider gap in their communication because of the increasing number of students from the 'outer circle' and the 'inner circle' countries whom they have never met in the pre-session course. This causes tensions and anxiety among Thai students because they do not know how responsive or friendly their new classmates will be when they speak.

In addition, Thai students' knowledge and experience of the marketing and business fields lead to imbalanced power relations among students (see section 5.2.2, Chapter 5), and thus Thai students are anxious and worried about their spoken English in relation to the subject matter because it might not have been intelligible to others. Individual Thai students react differently to the change in classroom context, and that reveals how these Thai students develop strategies to deal with their insecurities and create a more convivial learning atmosphere in the MSc Marketing classrooms. Pekky, for instance, recognises the reciprocal effort between her and Greek students to achieve mutual intelligibility (see Extract 10, Chapter 5). Acquiring intercultural sensitivity is a gradual developmental process, which allows learners to move from denial of, defence from, and minimisation of cultural difference to acceptance,

adaptation and integration of difference that facilitates and enhances the language learning experience (Sellami, 2006).

Pinkie finds linguistic diversity in the pre-sessional EAP course positive. She employs a strategy in one of the MSc option courses that allows her and Chinese teammates to use their own native languages to discuss a particular topic before bringing ideas together by using English (see Extract 11, Chapter 5). Pinkie's open-minded attitude towards multilingualism not only enables her to be productive in her group discussions, but also provides her and her Chinese teammates a 'bilingual space' where they feel comfortable to contribute their ideas among themselves and within the group. Oudy, however, finds it difficult to develop any communicative strategy to gain her British teammates' attention and share her ideas because they ignore her views, and she blames this on ethnic differences (see Extract 23, Chapter 5). This incident suggests that it takes two parties to build a 'convivial space' for effective communication and mutual intelligibility within a group discussion. Curró (2005) notes that learning to communicate according to discipline-specific discourse is ongoing and involves a long-term developmental process, as well as learners' confidence and empowerment.

In sum, McKay (2002) notes that the goal of teaching pragmatics in EIL should be the acquisition of interaction strategies enhancing comity. This entails attempts by a speaker to establish and maintain friendly relations with others in order to create solidarity with and support for the listener (McKay, 2002, p.131). Brumfit (2006) claims that language teachers must avoid a preoccupation with American, British, or Australian pronunciation models that have been a feature of much curriculum planning, and recognise the changed linguistic environment and the fact that most NNSs will be interacting with other NNSs. Sellami (2006) suggests language learners develop both the knowledge and skills necessary for intercultural competence in order to achieve effective communication; otherwise, without sufficient preparation, they are likely to develop stereotypes, false assumptions, biased beliefs, misconceptions, and prejudices in class.

6.4 Approaches to the teaching of EIL

McKay (2002, p.116) mentions that the teaching of EIL in every classroom is influenced by a variety of local contextual factors embedded in political and social contexts (e.g. official language policies, the role of English in society, economic resources appropriate to ELT, linguistic and cultural attitudes towards EIL); the educational institutions (e.g. teaching aims and objectives, material resources, philosophy of learning, and class size); the teachers' background (e.g. their English training and philosophy of teaching), and students' background (e.g. age, previous exposure to English, and learning goals). Kumaravadivelu (2003) notes that the concept of context-sensitive, location-specific pedagogy should be based on the genuine understanding of local linguistic, sociocultural and political particularities. In this study, it seems important for EAP tutors to recognise the link between the pre-sessional and MSc Marketing classrooms in terms of the use of EIL in speaking and listening activities (such as group and whole-class discussions) to ensure appropriate teaching approaches are employed which support and promote language use more effectively in the MSc Marketing classes.

6.4.1 Being culturally sensitive to classroom diversity

McKay (2002) notes that the teaching of EIL needs to be culturally sensitive to the diversity of contexts in which English is taught and used, and suggests that the use of a source culture not only potentially minimises the marginalisation of values and lived experiences of language learners, but also enables them to share their own cultural insights by using EIL with students from other countries. Brumfit (2001) notes that there is a problem of mixing students from different academic disciplines in a pre-sessional course because the expectations of teachers and peers differ from field to field (p.62). In the pre-sessional course in this study, EAP tutors provide students with various topics of discussion that cater for students who plan to enrol on different postgraduate degrees, such as, TESOL, Mass Communication, Marketing, MBA, Management, and Engineering, and thus students have different expectations regarding their contribution to the topic. As a result, the Thai students in this study do not find some topics, such as language improvement, law, politics or the Internet, relevant and practical for their postgraduate study, and thus they do not attempt to talk

about their experience. Petch, on the one hand, wants to talk more with his classmates about lifestyles than improving English (see Extract 35, Chapter 4). Pekky, on the other hand, treats a group discussion as speaking practice instead of gaining facts and learning about other countries' 'music licence on an Internet', and thus she blames her group members as being too serious when they begin to discuss legal systems in each country as she has no interest or background knowledge (see Extract 22, Chapter 4).

Petch's and Pekky's situations suggest that in order to allow students to share cultural insights and create an 'intercultural space' effectively, language tutors must recognise students' interests and background knowledge. This could be done by an elicitation technique at the beginning of class, which would enable tutors to select relevant and practical topics for students to discuss; otherwise, a group discussion could lose appeal for students. It is also advisable for tutors to express their expectations regarding the objectives of the discussion as that can help students to recognise the significance of group discussion.

McKay (2002) notes that the cultural content of teaching materials should be taught reflectively by encouraging learners to realise why certain topics are chosen for discussion, and that this can provide learners with a sphere of interculturality whereby they learn about another culture as a basis for reflecting on their own (p.129). It is, however, important to recognise that learning about classmates' cultural insights is not necessarily confined to the classroom alone, but may also include informal settings outside class. Julie, for example, becomes interested in China's one-child policy and this opens an intercultural space to learn about Chinese values and beliefs regarding parental expectations and male and female children.

Extract 9

43 J: *I talk to my Chinese friends more and more. I talked to Kimi and*
44 *Right about their personal lives like their families, the reasons of*
45 *studying here, and one-child policy in China. I asked why Chinese*
46 *families paid more attention to sons than daughters. They didn't*
47 *know. So I asked if it's true if a family has a son, parents are not*
48 *allowed having another child. They said that's right. Then, I said it*
49 *meant that a Chinese family considers a son more important than a*
50 *daughter. But that's the way their country is, they said.*

(Julie, English translation, 11/09/05)

It should be noted that Julie is able to discuss her Chinese classmates' family lives because she knows them relatively well, and thus they feel comfortable to share ideas. Similarly, Pook is a good friend of a Japanese student, Sawako, whom she likes to socialise with, and she becomes aware of Japanese punctuality when she invites Japanese students to a Thai student party.

Extract 10

16 P: *I like Sawako very much because she always offers me help. I always*
17 *go to her room and chat. They are very confident and study hard.*
18 *They are very punctual. We had a party once and were supposed to*
19 *meet at 5:30 pm. But in typical Thai style, we were late. They*
20 *were ready by 5:30 pm. and felt upset. We apologised to them and*
21 *said that we misunderstood about the time.*

(Pook, English translation, 10/08/05)

This illustrates that Thai students are more relaxed than Japanese students, especially in informal, social situations, because Thai students like to take time to prepare dinner, and thus this party becomes an 'intercultural space' where Thai and Japanese students learn about each other's sense of timing. Byram *et al.* (2002) suggest that language learners should be aware of their own identities and those of their interlocutors, as this could result not only in more effective communication, but also in developing human relationships with people from other cultures. It is crucial for learners abroad to have access to the social networks which provide opportunities for engagement in interactions for their language development (Kinger, 2004).

In sum, language tutors should recognise the importance of formal and informal settings that can become potential channels for learners to create intercultural space. Bringing learners' experiences outside classroom into classroom discussion can allow richer and deeper recognition of cultural differences, and this will enable them to be more aware when socialising outside class. Acknowledging learners' source culture can potentially empower learners to be proud of their cultures and respect others', and can enhance communication through the use of English as an international language.

6.4.2 Recognising learners' 'cultures of learning'

McKay (2002) states that EIL teaching should recognise the local 'culture of learning' by examining classroom interaction between learners and teachers; thus stereotypes or received views of cultures regarding the traditional role of teachers and learners can be avoided (p.129). According to Cortazzi and Jin (1996), the term 'culture of learning' is defined as the framework of classroom behaviours, attitudes, expectations, values and beliefs of good learning and teaching methodology, but language teachers and learners are likely to be unaware of the impact of 'culture of learning' on the process of teaching and learning, and thus 'culture of learning' is part of the hidden curriculum (p.169). With reference to the stereotypes of learners, Asian students are likely to be perceived as passive and non-participative due to their collectivist cultures and reproductive approach to learning, which is often contrasted to Western learning approaches (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). Holliday (2005) argues that this essentialist perspective has a negative impact on Asian students because their approach to study is represented as negative, problematic, and inappropriate in Western academic settings. EAP tutors must not take for granted the way Asian learners learn in a pre-sessional course and assume that everyone knows how to behave according to conventions of British academia because this may cause anxiety for learners who are unaware of British study methods. Generalisation of the British academic system to Asian learners could be misrepresentative and threatening to their previous learning experience in their 'home' cultures of learning. It might, therefore, be more productive and relevant for EAP tutors to make a connection between their teaching and the expectations of particular postgraduate departments where their students plan to enrol, as this would illustrate a more specific 'culture of learning' which students can expect to experience.

In this study, EAP tutors' perceived expectations about student participation (see section 4.1.2 in Chapter 4) clearly illustrates the 'implicit' 'culture of learning' regarding EAP tutors' expectations about student participation, and thus these Thai students participate with their tutors not because of explicit classroom norms but rather because they believe their tutors expect them to participate. Dogancay-Aktuna (2005) claims that teachers need to consider appropriate teaching methodologies that correspond to the set of assumptions and expectations learners bring to class.

Although most of the Thai students in this study appreciate their new ways of learning, which are more spontaneous and require active participation (see section 4.1.1, Chapter 4), Pook feels that she is not given sufficient support from her EAP tutor. During the first few weeks of the pre-session course, although Pook recognises that the British education system promotes an independent learning approach, she wishes to have more tutor support to help her adjust herself to the new system.

Extract 11

38 P: *Now I can adjust myself to the education system here. It's different*
39 *from Thailand. Tutors always promote students to be independent*
40 *learners. In Thailand, teachers spoon-feed students. But here tutors*
41 *should also recognise students' backgrounds. Students have IELTS*
42 *less than 6. It means that they are not clever, right? Otherwise, they*
43 *could get IELTS 6 or 6.5. They should initially tell us what to do first,*
44 *not just telling us to study on our own, in order to let us familiarise*
45 *ourselves with the education system here.*

(Pook, English translation, 10/08/05)

Pook wants her tutors to recognise not only that her language proficiency does not meet the postgraduate programme's requirements but also her 'culture of learning' in Thailand that is teacher-dependent. Therefore, she deliberately regards herself as 'not clever' and 'in-need-of-help'. She expects more tutor guidance to enhance her academic study in the UK. She also knows that her tutor tries to persuade learners to discuss in groups, and that makes her recognise the importance of discussion in postgraduate study.

Extract 12

106 K: ***What do you think about learning English here?***

107 P: *It's different from studying Thailand. I think here they expect us to*
108 *participate with tutors and encourage us to discuss in a group maybe*
109 *because they want to prepare us to study at a master's level, which*
110 *requires students to have group discussions and group work. It's*
111 *different from studying in my first degree because I just took notes.*

(Pook, English translation, 10/08/05)

Pook realises that the way she learns in Thailand is not relevant for her postgraduate study in the UK, and that she has to put more effort into speaking in class. Pook's situation also suggests that she accepts her conditional offer from the University by taking the pre-sessional EAP course in order to meet the language requirements of the MSc Marketing programme. She inevitably has to adopt the EAP student identity if she wants to be accepted as a postgraduate student in the university because she knows that her language ability is not sufficient to meet academic language demands in the UK based on her IELTS score and she has to work towards the postgraduate programme's expectations.

It is advisable for EAP course designers and academic departments to collaborate in designing pre-sessional courses which are relevant to respective academic disciplines to help students perform relevant academic skills, such as participating in seminars or group discussions in mainstream postgraduate classrooms in the UK (Nomnian, 2006). In this study, the MSc Marketing programme aims to encourage students to work in groups, to develop their interpersonal skills, to share experiences and to support each other's learning. Learners' 'culture of learning' should not only be recognised by language tutors but also by fellow classmates, because in order to achieve effective team working skills and communication, learners have to be aware of their teammates' 'cultures of learning', and that can be a challenging task for learners as they are working with others from diverse linguistic, academic, and career backgrounds. Extract 13 reveals the impact of one student's intervention upon another, and depicts a dynamic classroom interaction where a Chinese student is so talkative that his classroom behaviour is non-preferred and eventually objected to by an American student.

Extract 13

141 P: *Some people talked too much. For example, one Chinese student*
142 *talked too much. I knew that he wanted to share his opinions. I think*
143 *he should know how to stop. I got annoyed. There was an American*
144 *student changed the subject in order to stop him talking. In our*
145 *culture, we could not do like that. If you didn't know what to answer,*
146 *it'd be better to keep quiet.*

(Pinkie, English translation, 05/04/06)

Lines 144 – 145 ‘In our culture, we could not do like that’ displays Pinkie’s essential views regarding Thai students’ ‘non-confrontational’ ‘considerate’, and ‘respectful’ classroom behaviours towards other classmates, which results in the way she learns by listening, understanding the subject, and not blatantly speaking out and dominating the classroom dynamic in contrast to the talkative Chinese student. The American student’s intervention to curb his talkative classmate could, however, be considered as disruptive or rude in relation to Pinkie’s ‘culture of learning’ in Thailand.

Oudy believes that not only does the Thai ‘culture of learning’ not support the participative nature of classroom teaching in the UK, but also, Thai students have to speak in English, and that creates a double jeopardy for them.

Extract 14

545 O: ...because when we study in schools in
546 Thailand, the Thai culture, they seldom teach us to have the participate
547 in the class or show off in front of other people. That’s why it’s like
548 Thai culture that they try to keep quiet. Even though they can answer
549 that question, they don’t want to answer the question in front of the
550 huge class. I think because of our language. We always think that we
551 don’t have good English language enough.

(Oudy, Original in English, 04/04/06)

EAP tutors must acknowledge the situation of individual language learners not only the expectations of postgraduate departments and set up relevant activities that will allow them to understand the ‘local’ culture of learning in their respective postgraduate programmes, but also raise their awareness about different students’ ‘cultures of learning’. Learners will, therefore, become more conscious of their own and others’ classroom behaviours, which are not right or wrong but different.

In MSc Marketing classrooms, there is a major issue regarding the large class size, which also impacts on Thai students because of the transition from the small-class ‘culture of learning’ in the pre-sessional course to the large-class ‘culture of learning’ in the postgraduate programme. The students have to adjust themselves to their new learning environment but have not been prepared for this by their EAP tutors. The large class size also creates more intense power relations between students and

powerful others because some minority students appear marginalised (see section 5.4, Chapter 5). Mann (2001) claims that, in higher education, there is an unequal balance of power between students and more powerful others, such as, lecturers or more experienced students, which estranges some students from the language, culture, and practices of the contexts, and positions them as outsiders who are invisible, voiceless, and incompetent. Holliday (1996) argues that the small-class culture could create a sense of harmony and encourage rapport between lecturers and students, whereas in the large-class culture, rapport between lecturers and students may be broken down and difficult to maintain. Despite the fact that there is a cut in government funding for higher education, this issue needs to be addressed by university policy makers who need to be more responsible in providing seminars and discussions in smaller classes. Universities have a responsibility to adapt to different students' needs, particularly in the case of international students, rather than coercing them to fit in with existing structures (Ryan, 2000). EAP tutors, therefore, not only need to consider learners' academic backgrounds and their cultures of learning, but also recognise the British 'culture of learning', and thereby attempt to smoothen language learners' transition from their 'home' culture to the 'British' one.

6.4.3 Raising learners' awareness of socio-cultural and political influences

McKay (2002) points out that what happens in a particular classroom is influenced by socio-cultural and political factors that exist in the wider community (p.129). Following increases in the number of international students, multilingualism in British universities has flourished. This needs to be explicitly addressed by language learners, particularly those whose sociocultural, linguistic, and academic backgrounds might be relatively monolingual in relation to British society and universities, such as the Thai students in this study. EAP tutors should be more cautious of multilingualism in a British university and consider it as a resource for language learners who can learn from other overseas classmates, as that can prepare them to face even greater linguistic diversity in postgraduate classrooms. Canagarajah (2006) points out the need to develop a more dynamic relationship between classroom and society as they are interrelated with one another in language learning. Svalberg (2007) notes that Language Awareness (LA) is important for teachers and learners in multilingual society because a person's linguistic competence and repertoire increasingly entails

different languages and varieties, and thus raising socio-cultural and linguistic awareness can mutually facilitate language learning (p.301). In this study, it is evident that English is not the only language used within multilingual classrooms; Chinese is another major language that the Thai students encounter within classrooms and at the main campus.

Extract 15

98 *There's Chinese language*
99 *everywhere in the University.*

(Julie, English translation, 11/09/05)

Classmates' linguistic diversity (see section 4.2.2, Chapter 4) clearly shows that multilingualism and English varieties in EAP classrooms exist, and that Thai students perceive and react to them differently according to their linguistic ideologies and language learning goals. Pekky, for example, avoids speaking English with Chinese or Thai students because she does not want her English to get 'worse' (see Extract 30, Chapter 4) while Julie, Pinkie, and Oudy enjoy interacting and learning their classmates' languages because they can create friendships which help them practice speaking English (Extracts 25, 27, and 28, Chapter 4 respectively). These attitudes towards multilingualism and English varieties remain in the MSc Marketing classrooms as Pekky prefers to study with 'native-speaking' lecturers from the UK and the USA rather than with the one from Sri Lanka (Extract 7, Chapter 5). Some Thai students are open to possible opportunities to make friends with students from other countries. Pinkie, for instance, is able to develop a communicative strategy that enables the use of Thai with her Thai team mates, and allows her Chinese counterparts to use Chinese to discuss a difficult topic, before using English for mutual intelligibility (see Extract 11, Chapter 5).

Jessner (2006), however, claims that teachers are likely to ignore the fact that their students are in contact with other languages, developing language learning strategies and metalinguistic awareness, and thus teachers waste valuable resources that can enhance LA in their multilingual classrooms. In this study, despite the fact that Thai students experience multilingualism and English varieties in both the pre-sessional and postgraduate classrooms, EAP tutors do not seem explicitly to address these

issues that later becomes challenges, as Thai students have to overcome their fears and anxiety regarding speaking in postgraduate classrooms. Jenkins (2007) suggests that it is important to raise learners' awareness of the global role of English, and that they should be provided with choices of both native and non-native varieties of English rather than necessarily falling back on the British Received Pronunciation (RP) accent or General American (GA) accent (p.9).

Some EAP tutors still emphasise the significance of 'standard' spoken English as the following extract reveals.

Extract 16

41 J: *I have a problem of listening, I know. I can practice speaking*
42 *everyday. I told him about my pronunciation problems. Two days*
43 *later, he suggested me a book on pronunciation.*

(Julie, English translation, 25/08/05)

Julie could have been given more useful and practical advice through a series of self-reflecting questions entailing her specific pronunciation issues, her attitudes towards other English varieties spoken by overseas classmates, her language learning goals, and the use of English in the postgraduate study, for example. Her tutor could have reflected on what he thought about multilingualism in British society and attitudes towards speakers of other 'non-standard' English varieties and their intelligibility. These questions and self-reflections could have positively stimulated her deeply rooted linguistic ideologies regarding 'standard' spoken English, and that could have instigated the formulation of 'realistic' goals and expectations for her spoken English thus enhancing her confidence and self-esteem. Scales *et al.* (2006) suggest that language teachers should consider how learners can become versatile in participating in a variety of interactions to achieve their communicative goals, and that such an approach can promote learners' intelligibility, and increase communicative flexibility and respect for accent diversity (p.735).

Jessner (2006) suggests that, prior to teaching LA to language learners, teachers have to experience consciousness-raising themselves as part of teacher education, and thus be able to integrate their own language learning experience by choosing the

appropriate teaching techniques to engage learners. In this study, EAP tutors could have pointed out the benefits of studying with students from diverse linguistic backgrounds because it might have helped the Thai students to familiarise themselves with particular English accents in their postgraduate study. Pinkie positively views learning English with Chinese students and this helps her to understand Chinese students' spoken English in the MSc Marketing classrooms.

Extract 17

347 K: Did the EAP course help you in group discussions?

348 P: *It helped me in a sense that I could understand Chinese students'*
349 *pronunciation. At first, I didn't understand at all. Chinese students*
350 *would not understand my accent. In the EAP course, it helped me*
351 *adjust to their accent because I could get used to my Chinese friends'*
352 *accent when studying in a master's programme. It helped me to*
353 *understand them better.*

(Pinkie, English translation, 05/04/06)

EAP tutors could have suggested the potential of living with international students which could help to improve Thai students' speaking proficiency. Oudy notices that living with her overseas housemates in student accommodation not only provides her with opportunities to socialise with them, but also to gain a better understanding of their cultures.

Extract 18

436 *...About my speaking,*
437 *I can improve because I try to speak English with my flatmates from*
438 *China and Cyprus. From Cyprus, just only sometimes because she*
439 *always stay with her friends and stay in her room. So I have a chance*
440 *to talk to my flatmate from China. I always spend times with my*
441 *Taiwanese friends. Sometimes I go out and have a party with my*
442 *friends from Greece. I can improve my English language but also I*
443 *can learn about their culture as well.*

(Oudy, Original in English, 04/04/06)

EAP tutors who promote multilingualism in academic and social settings while living and studying in the UK as a valuable resource for Thai students could enable them to reap this benefit in their future careers. Petch realises that this year in the UK offers him such a tremendous advantage that he would have never found in Thailand.

Extract 19

251 K: *What will this help in your future career?*

252 P: *At least if I want to do a market in England, I used to have a chance to*
253 *meet Chinese, Greek, Taiwanese, and British. I know what they are*
254 *like and think. I know more than before. I'll never know this in*
255 *Thailand. One day, I think this experience will be useful.*

(Petch, English translation, 21/12/05)

Extracts 17, 18, and 19, suggest that being optimistic about multilingualism in UK higher education would allow Thai students to acquire a comparative advantage in terms of understanding other people from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds, and that helps to widen their world views regarding the way they perceive themselves and others. International students should thus be viewed as valuable resources that provide an additional dimension to the academic and cultural life of a university (Russel, 2005). Academic staff and lecturers, therefore, must ensure that they meet the needs and expectations of international students in terms of academic achievement because international students have to adjust to British academic conventions regarding classroom participation and performance in their new learning environment (Ryan, 2000; Ryan and Carroll, 2005).

According to Alptekin (2002), appropriate pedagogical implications of EIL will help learners become successful, bilingual and intercultural individuals who can function well in both local and international settings (p.63). The teaching approaches suggested by EIL expand the boundaries of multilingual classroom ecologies by recognising the impact of social interactions on Thai students' linguistic awareness. Thai students as 'living organisms' can relocate themselves from one linguistic ecology to another and make sense of what goes on between classrooms and social contexts. Direct experience in social interactions can derive from individual agency which not only allows them to recognise the appropriateness of interaction in terms of situated contexts, interlocutors, and time, but also changes their attitudes towards their language use by allowing them to achieve communicative purposes. EAP tutors should, therefore, encourage students to meet other people in order to gain direct social, interactive experience, and this could help them to become more participative in class.

6.5 Chapter summary

This chapter discusses the pedagogical implications of EIL teaching and learning in multilingual contexts, which aim to enhance classroom participation and promote social inclusion for international students in British universities. McKay's (2002) comprehensive theory of the teaching and learning of EIL is employed as a useful theoretical framework to address the pedagogical implications of this study as it provides understanding of EIL and suggests assumptions, goals, and approaches to language teaching that can be applied to pre-sessional EAP courses. The term EIL is examined in conjunction with Kachru's (1990) three-circle model, useful to classify the use of English in the countries of the 'inner circle' (e.g. the UK, the USA, Australia), 'outer circle' (e.g. Malaysia, Singapore, India, Sri Lanka), and 'expanding circle' (e.g. China, Japan, Germany). EIL is thus employed in this study as it offers the widest range of speakers of English from all 'circles', and that reflects the multilingual classroom situations in this study.

Three concepts relevant to EIL include language use in multilingual contexts, native-speaking models, and learners' attitudes to English varieties (McKay, 2002). These are inter-related because, according to the Thai students' interview transcripts, their different ways of using language in multilingual academic settings are associated with their beliefs and attitudes towards 'standard', spoken English as well as other varieties of English. Some Thai students appreciate learning with overseas students because they can share their native languages and cultures with one another; some students prefer to speak only English with native speakers, find code-switching between Thai and English undesirable, and avoid speaking to students with lower English proficiency.

Two goals of EIL teaching and learning are to achieve mutual intelligibility and develop intercultural communicative strategies, and these can potentially empower language learners to claim their legitimacy as EIL speakers (McKay, 2002). EAP tutors need to acknowledge the significance of understanding the messages exchanged between speakers of other languages and realise that perfecting 'standard' pronunciation might not be a realistic goal over the short duration of the pre-sessional course. It is also important for EAP tutors to help learners develop intercultural

communicative strategies, such as asking for clarification, establishing rapport, and creating friendships with other overseas students, as this can promote more convivial interaction and understanding among international students and alleviate cross-cultural differences, bias, prejudices, and stereotypes.

McKay (2002) suggests three approaches to teaching EIL: be culturally sensitive to the diversity of classroom contexts; recognise learners' 'cultures of learning'; and raise learners' awareness of socio-cultural and political issues. EAP tutors must be more aware of learners' linguistic and cultural baggage and how this can be used as a valuable resource for learners to share their cultural insights, enhance understanding and promote more effective intercultural communication. Recognising learners' 'cultures of learning' can enable EAP tutors to provide relevant academic support for some learners who may not be familiar with the academic system of a particular British university, and thus bridge the gaps between learners' 'home' culture of learning' and the 'local' British university 'culture of learning' to help smoothen the transition from the pre-session course to the academic mainstream. It is important to raise learners' awareness of multilingualism in a British university by promoting positive attitudes to learning with students from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds because it will be useful for them when they study with other international students in the postgraduate programmes and work in international organisations in their future careers.

The pedagogical implications of EIL offer a promising development for teaching speaking and listening skills to international students in pre-session courses. This is because they recognise the status of English used in multilingual academic settings, and can widen international students' perspectives towards linguistic diversity and encourage them to claim their legitimacy as speakers of EIL. As a result, they will feel more empowered and confident about their spoken English, and will not only become more willing to participate in classroom and group discussions, but also develop better attitudes towards social inclusion and tolerance while living and studying in the UK.

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS

This final chapter draws together the threads of the study and comprises five sections. Following the presentation of the summary of this study, section two focuses on the key contributions of this study, which include addressing the gaps in the literature by adopting a ‘dynamic’ model to examine Thai students’ classroom experiences in UK higher education, and recognising linguistic diversity in British university classroom settings; secondly, offering relevant pedagogical approaches to train staff of the MSc Marketing courses to foster Thai students’ classroom participation; and finally, acknowledging the impact of social contexts on Thai students’ language use in language learning classroom ecologies. The limitations of the study are addressed in section three. Section four suggests directions and recommendations for future research which include focusing on students from wider linguistic and ethnic backgrounds, exploring academic staff’s attitudes towards international students, scrutinising other language skills, besides speaking and listening, and employing ‘Linguistic Ethnography’ (LE) as a research methodology. The chapter ends with concluding remarks regarding the ethical responsibilities of the British higher education system with regard to international students’ fair treatment in postgraduate programmes.

7.1 Summary of the Study

This study examines the dynamic trajectory of seven Thai students from the outset of their classroom experiences in a pre-sessional EAP course to an MSc Marketing programme, and develops a gradual understanding of the complex relationships and interactions they have with tutors and classmates in particular classroom contexts and practices. Their journey is, however, more of a roller-coaster ride than plain sailing. Their shifting subject positions, personal struggles and other transformations reflect their active and dynamic involvement in learning, and their interactions with other people from different linguistic backgrounds both inside and outside the classroom. Linguistic diversity inevitably becomes part of their lives while studying and living in the UK, and this does not go unnoticed. Whilst becoming more aware of linguistic diversity, the Thai learners react to multilingualism differently, depending on the contexts of interactions including the interlocutors, the topics of conversation, and the particular time and settings where they take place.

Drawing upon the theoretical frameworks of *multilingual classroom ecologies* (Creese and Martin, 2003) and *identities in multilingual contexts* (Pavlenko and Blackledge, 2004) and the analytical framework of *positioning theory* (Davies and Harré, 1990; Harré and van Langenhove, 1999), four key factors affecting Thai students' positioning regarding their classroom participation in the pre-sessional EAP course emerged. The first factor concerned the impact of EAP tutors in terms of teaching styles and methods as well as tutors' perceived expectations about student participation. It, therefore, seems advisable for EAP tutors to provide students with opportunities to practice speaking and listening with both tutors and classmates by creating conducive classroom environments and by avoiding harshly criticising students' answers, so students feel free to express their ideas. It also seems important for tutors to be explicit about their expectations of student participation as Thai students and other international students are in the process of adjusting to British academic conventions which may be relatively different from their previous learning experiences in their home countries.

The impact of classmates is the second factor that played a significant role in Thai students' engagement in class and group discussions. Classmate influences are divided into two categories: peer relationships and linguistic diversity. Although positive relationships increased students' participation, it should be noted that relationships among students from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds take time to be established. EAP tutors should perhaps be cautious about students' perceptions of linguistic diversity because some Thai students expressed negative attitudes towards the use of their classmates' first language and 'non-standard' English varieties, and that resulted in students' discrimination and withdrawal from taking part in group work.

The third key factor relates to Thai students' active involvement in discussions with tutors and classmates due to their personal identities and agency because they want to accomplish their language learning goals and be admitted to the postgraduate programme. Finally, the fourth key factor concerns the interplay between Thai students' classroom participation and their contact with people, both native and non-native speakers of English, outside the classroom. The role of social interaction should be acknowledged by EAP tutors because it appears to enhance Thai students'

speaking confidence and promote their linguistic awareness of different English varieties in a range of academic and social arenas.

The findings from the MSc Marketing classrooms are similar to the findings from the pre-session course in terms of the impact of lecturers' teaching methods and styles, classmates' linguistic diversity, and the exertion of Thai students' personal identities and agency. There are, however, additional factors that stem from lecturers' linguistic diversity, the inclusion of students from other subject disciplines, and the dramatic increase in student numbers that immediately enlarge class size. Firstly, the lecturers' linguistic diversity causes negative attitudes for some Thai students who strongly believe that studying in the UK should involve studying with 'native-speaker' lecturers rather than 'non-native' ones. Secondly, Thai students' attitudes towards the inclusion of students from MBA and MSc Management programmes during the second term are rather mixed because some Thai students enjoy listening to mature and experienced students who share their business knowledge in class and group discussions while others feel intimidated by MBA students' dominance. Accordingly, Thai students are likely to withdraw themselves from the discussion and allow those mature students to share their valuable experience. Finally, the large class size undermine Thai students' confidence to engage in discussions as they developed anxiety about their Thai accent which they believe does not sound 'native' or 'standard' compared with other varieties of English spoken by European students. Thai students thus sometimes position themselves as 'illegitimate' speakers in these circumstances. Interrelated and complex factors, such as, students' academic expectations, lecturers' teaching styles, classmates' relationships, English language proficiency, and the Thai students' personal identities and agency also seem to impact upon this situation and demand appropriate action from the postgraduate programme co-ordinators and course designers to ensure quality and equality, rather than quantity in terms of student numbers.

EAP pedagogy regarding speaking and listening skills does not seem to address the root causes of Thai students' negative attitudes towards their spoken English, and as a result, there is a tendency for Thai students to withdraw in MSc Marketing classrooms. English as an International Language (EIL) should be viewed, according to Holliday (2005, p.8), as the common language for anyone who speaks it worldwide

rather than as the property of native speakers. Despite the differences between Thai students and their interactive others in terms of their first language, ethnicity, cultures of learning, age, academic expectations, and work experience, they speak the ‘same’ language, i.e. English as an international language (EIL). These Thai students should acknowledge that EIL aims to create friendship and promote mutual intelligibility across nations. Within linguistically diverse classrooms, EIL is a ‘common thread’ connecting and bringing everyone together through active discussion and participation instead of passive observation, and this has the potential to change the way Thai students initially view themselves and others, and vice versa.

McKay’s (2002) comprehensive approach to EIL pedagogy is applicable for teaching speaking and listening skills to international students in a pre-sessional EAP course because it provides fundamental understanding of EIL and appropriate teaching goals. EIL teaching goals include the promotion of mutual intelligibility and the creation of convivial cross-cultural interaction, and teaching approaches emphasise the appropriate use of culturally sensitive materials, the recognition of students’ cultures of learning, and the sociocultural and political impact on classroom teaching. EIL pedagogy can enable EAP tutors to re-evaluate their current teaching practices, pay attention to multilingualism in postgraduate classrooms and employ practical and relevant teaching approaches that can enable international students to ‘fit in’ more appropriately and be able to take up desirable subject positions when interacting with their tutors and peers from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds during their postgraduate study.

7.2 The Contribution of this Study

This section discusses three key contributions this study makes by firstly, addressing the gap in the existing body of literature on international students in British higher education; secondly, by providing additional pedagogical implications for MSc Marketing lecturers; and finally, by considering the significant interplay between social contexts outside the class and multilingual classroom ecologies, and how this impacts upon British higher educational contexts.

7.2.1 Addressing the Gap in Literature

This study addresses the gap in the existing body of literature regarding international students in UK higher education (as discussed in Chapter 1) in two ways: firstly, challenging the ‘deficit model’ of Thai students’ characteristics and offering a more ‘dynamic’ model; and secondly, exploring their actual language use in the classroom through the multilingual classroom ecological approach.

Previous studies (see Cortazzi and Jin, 1997; Ryan, 2000; and Turner, 2006) portray international students, Asian students in particular, according to the ‘deficit model’ which entails highlighting their ‘essential’ characteristics which might not necessarily ‘fit in’ with British academic culture. This study aims to counterbalance such previous studies by challenging this static representation of international students, tutors, and home students and adopting a ‘dynamic model’ based upon ‘positioning theory’ (Davies and Harré, 1990; and Harré and van Langenhove, 1999) which suggests that individuals can position themselves (*reflexive positioning*) and position others (*interactive positioning*). This model implies their active involvement in the process of identity construction and negotiation. Based on the findings of this study, we can see that the concepts of ‘position’ and ‘positioning’ are relational and context-dependent according to the complex relationships between Thai students and other interlocutors, and that means there are no such things as ‘fixed’ roles (e.g. teachers or students) or ‘essential’ characteristics (e.g. passive or active) held by individuals in classroom interactions. Rather, these roles depend on how classroom contexts and practices foster the Thai students’ construction and negotiation of identities in relation to interaction with others, and this is wholly dependent on specific points in time and space. This allows us to see the shifting nature of the Thai students’ identities as well as to recognise dynamic patterns of classroom interaction. This study, in line with current trends in research, aims to understand learners’ positioning. Block (2007) claims that ‘before the 1990s there was little or no work examining how language learners position themselves and are positioned by others depending on where they are, who they are with and what they are doing’ (p. 2). Pavlenko and Blackledge’s (2004) work clearly suggests that identity construction and negotiation in multilingual settings is complex as it is associated with a number of factors, such as linguistic ideologies, local and wider socio-political power relations, and this can be illustrated

in the multiplicity of the students' identities in this study. International students should, therefore, be perceived as independent individuals who make decisions to be part of British academia and pursue their academic goals. This is demonstrated in Thai students' exertion of their personal agency in both pre-sessional EAP and MSc Marketing programmes (see Chapter 4, section 4.3 and Chapter 5 section 5.3).

The second contribution of this study is to recognise multilingualism in classroom contexts and practices in UK higher education. By employing Creese and Martin's (2003) multilingual classroom ecologies, this study highlights linguistic diversity in classroom settings and allows us to become more aware of the issue of linguistic inequality and unequal access to classroom participation. This in turn can lessen social segregation and uphold equality among overseas linguistic minority students in British higher education. The extent to which Thai students consider themselves as 'legitimate' speakers is contextually dependent, because linguistic 'legitimacy' is associated with how a particular group of people accept and legitimise the language or English varieties Thai students speak, and vice versa. As Hanks (2005) states, 'to speak a language is not to command a code, but to act in a world that one accepts tacitly' (p.76).

7.2.2 Pedagogical Implications for MSc Marketing Lecturers

Drawing upon the findings from the pre-sessional EAP and MSc Marketing classrooms, it is evident that the Thai students find it relatively difficult to participate in classroom and group discussions during their postgraduate study due to negative attitudes regarding their spoken English which are not addressed in their pre-sessional course. Chapter 6 suggests that the teaching of speaking and listening skills in the pre-sessional course should be re-evaluated to take into account the MSc Marketing classroom settings where speakers of different languages interact and develop relationships with one another through the use of English. McKay's (2002) comprehensive theory of EIL teaching offers practical and useful guidelines for pedagogy which could be applied to EAP teaching, and this may enable learners to gain confidence in their spoken English and negotiate their identities to attain more desirable subject positions. Although this study focuses on pedagogy related to the improvement of the Thai students' speaking and listening skills in a pre-sessional

course, it is also important to recognise that home and other international students who do not attend the pre-sessional course are relevant members of the postgraduate classrooms, and provide Thai students with broader views of language use in mainstream academic contexts.

The second key issue regarding MSc Marketing pedagogy is the dearth of practical marketing relevance in some courses, which does not meet Thai students' academic expectations, and thus their classroom participation is minimal. Although it is understandable that the MSc Marketing programme wants to provide both theoretical and practical marketing courses, the programme has to assess students' academic needs. The programme should aim to strike the right balance and negotiate between what students need and how the programme can compromise to provide a better learning experience for students, as this can promote better participation. Lecturers' repetitive use of outdated teaching materials, for example, should be avoided, and new and exciting media obtained from different marketing channels, such as, the Internet, television and radio programmes, movies, and music, which students can relate to. Lecturers have to remind themselves that marketing is not only a subject in its own right, but also that students have to experience its applications in their daily lives, and the practical and dynamic nature of the discipline makes this subject appealing to students. In this study, Thai students' perspectives on their classroom participation can not only help to inform academic staff's current classroom practices but also enhance their postgraduate study as a whole.

7.2.3 Relating Social Contexts to Multilingual Classroom Ecologies

Creese and Martin's (2003) multilingual classroom ecological approach suggests a link between classroom environments and wider socio-political environments (p.4). This study considers the significant interplay between Thai students' interactions in social contexts outside the classroom and their classroom participation. Thai students gain experience from interacting with speakers of other languages in social contexts while living in the UK, and this in turn enhances their confidence to speak during the pre-sessional course. The interrelationships between classroom environments and social environments in terms of language contact outside the classroom are illustrated in Chapter 4, section 4.4. This study also suggests that EAP tutors should allow

language learners to share their experiences regarding their social encounters outside the classroom with their peers, as this can not only enhance students' engagement but can also provide intercultural learning spaces.

This study reveals the extent to which linguistic ecologies regarding academic and social contexts may overlap and become mutually supportive. It is important to note that the city where the Thai students live provides an interesting experience for them in terms of multilingualism and multiculturalism outside the classroom, due to its sizeable British Asian communities and the increasing number of international students at the city's leading university. This cannot be taken as an indication that every city in the UK is equally multilingual and multiethnic. Harris (1997) notes that some cities are predominantly white with a relatively small minority population, and thus my argument mainly concerns the extent to which Thai students encounter different social interactions outside the classroom, especially in this specific location. It is, however, important to note that the impact of social interactions is not as pertinent in the MSc Marketing classrooms because the high academic demands and lack of time constrain the Thai students from socialising with local people, and they tend to prioritise academic study over the linguistic development that might ensue from building relationships within the local community.

7.3 Limitations of the Study

This section highlights three possible limitations of this study, which include the use of recording equipment, the ineffectiveness of the English speaking log, and the generalisability of the study.

7.3.1 The Use of Tape-Recording Equipment

The first limitation is related to the concept underlying 'positioning theory', which was briefly mentioned in section 2.3.2. Although it was ideal to acquire Thai students' conversations with their interactive others, it was not possible to obtain actual conversations due to the poor quality of recording equipment. Omni-directional recording equipment was tried out in my room with a few people prior to its actual use in a pre-sessional class, which proved to be satisfactory, and as a result it

was implemented along with classroom observation in order to capture classroom talk. The physical classroom space in the pre-session course was, however, relatively larger than my room and included more people. The noise and sound quality meant it was not possible to produce usable classroom transcripts. Harré and van Langenhove (1999), however, claim that interviews can be used to illustrate the 'positioning' triad (p.29), and thus interview transcripts allow us to examine Thai students' positioning. Despite the disadvantage of the poor quality omni-directional recording equipment, a series of semi-structured interviews and classroom observations enabled me to produce useful interview transcripts. It is, therefore, advisable for researchers, who intend to record classroom talk, to assess the physical classroom space and the number of students and attain specialist recording equipment.

7.3.2 The Ineffectiveness of English Speaking Logs

The second limitation concerns the use of the English speaking log which was not been as effective as expected although it did provide some useful insights and informed the interview schedule during the pre-session course. Despite its limitation was briefly spelled out in Chapter 3, section 3.4.2.1, this section elaborates further and suggests ways that can improve its use. This issue is not as pertinent in the pre-session course because Thai students are excited with their new learning and social environments. They are making new friends, meeting different groups of people, and visiting various places. They, therefore, have 'something' to record which also enables them to reflect on their experiences. During the MSc Marketing programme, however, the routine of writing a log turned into a burden because they felt that there was 'nothing' interesting to write about which are mostly involved assignment writing. At this stage, I should perhaps have been more reflexive and thought about the potential of the Internet. Employing e-mails as a way to gain insights into their life experiences could also have been a more practical option because this enables more instant and frequent correspondence. It is thus advisable for any researchers, who plan to use learners' written reflections as part of their data, to consider the potential benefits that e-mail could provide.

7.3.3 The Generalisability of the Study

The final point of the limitation regards the generalisability of this study. According to Mason (2002), generalisability involves the extent to which researchers can make some wider claims based on their study without stating that their analysis is entirely idiosyncratic and particular. As explicitly stated in Chapter 1, section 1.5 and Chapter 3, section 3.6, this study did not intend to generalise its findings. Yet, if any readers find some points that might be applicable to similar contexts, they can compare and contrast my interpretations with their own, and this can be a helpful starting point for future research. It is important to acknowledge that the choice of an interpretive/qualitative paradigm, and the interpretation of Thai students' classroom experience is undeniably value-laden as a result of my knowledge and experience of studying and living in the UK. This personal experience is, however, useful to help me better understand the perspectives of the Thai participants. The potential issues regarding my personal bias are addressed in greater detail in Chapter 3. Due to the nature of case study that might not be representative, and hence the findings of this study might not be able to draw completely accurate parallels between these seven Thai students and other Thai students in UK higher education in general. It was also believed that different Thai students had different perceptions of their classroom experience. Therefore, the results of other researchers with another group of Thai students in British universities might not be the same. Despite having different results, similar research is encouraged in order to expand better understanding about Thai students' learning experience in the UK. On that note, the following section will provide some recommendations for future research.

7.4 Directions and Recommendations for Future Research

This study suggests new and alternative perspectives for examining Thai students' identity construction and their language use in British university classroom settings drawing upon a multilingual classroom ecological approach. This study cannot, however, be considered as the end of the research journey, but as a stepping-stone for other exciting and valuable studies into multilingualism in UK higher education. The following, therefore, provides some possible directions and recommendations for future studies.

7.4.1 Exploring Wider Linguistic and Ethnic Backgrounds

First of all, it is advisable to investigate students from wider linguistic and ethnic backgrounds, be they home or international students, and to explore their attitudes towards their own and others' language use within particular classroom settings. This can potentially make explicit linguistic ideologies underpinning individuals' assessment of their own and others' language use. As a result, we can become more aware of different parties' psychological and sociological perspectives regarding language use within particular classroom settings, and that can enrich our understanding regarding the extent to which speakers of different languages develop positive and negative attitudes towards their classmates' language use and its varieties. This recommendation highlights a limitation of this study: it focuses only on Thai students' linguistic backgrounds. Therefore, this study offers a starting point for other researchers and scholars who are interested in learning about linguistic minority students' classroom experiences in British higher education.

7.4.2 The Attitudes of Academic Staff towards International Students

The second recommendation relates to EAP tutors and postgraduate lecturers who are responsible for creating supportive classroom environments in order to accommodate and facilitate students' engagement in class and group discussions. Although this study emphasises Thai students' views of classroom learning in a British university, the views of academic staff could also have been useful in terms of suggesting potential pedagogical issues to investigate, and would be a worthwhile focus for future research on learners' language use and linguistic and cultural differences that impact upon the student recruitment process, curriculum design, course implementation, and programme evaluation. This investigation could bring issues and problems to the attention of university policy makers, and help to lessen tensions and promote positive collaboration among academics in the university in the hope that students would have better learning experiences in UK higher education.

7.4.3 Investigating other Language Skills

Although the main focus of this study is on listening and speaking skills, issues related to the students' written assignments, projects, and their dissertation studies are frequently mentioned during the interviews. Thus it becomes apparent that examining international students' academic writing skills can be another fruitful direction for future research. Previous studies regarding academic writing seem to focus on learners' academic enculturation into a particular written genre or a set of rhetorical features and textual conventions in certain academic institutions (see Bartholomae, 1986; Casanave, 2002; Connor, 1996; Haneda, 2005; Prior, 1998). There is not yet a study which examines learners' academic writing from a linguistic ecological approach, and thus some of Haugen's (1972) linguistic ecological questions, such as: 'What is the nature of its written traditions?' and 'To what degree has its written form been standardised?' remain unanswered. It is thus imperative to conduct further investigations on academic writing skills involving international students' perceptions of conforming to 'standard' British academic writing conventions and styles, as this can potentially reveal further tensions and difficulties in their postgraduate study.

7.4.4 Employing Linguistic Ethnography (LE) as a Research Methodology

Finally, the findings of this study recognise different issues affecting Thai students' language use in the classroom, which include linguistic ideologies, power relations, adapting to large class sizes, and the wider social contexts they experience outside the classroom, and this suggests how complex and sophisticated the interplay is between what is going on inside and outside the classroom. Accordingly, the recently emerging concept of 'Linguistic Ethnography' (LE) could be a potential research methodology that can capture this complexity. This section, however, does not intend to explain its historical and current development in detail, but rather to address its pertinent ideas that could be useful for the theoretical and methodological implications in future studies. According to Rampton *et al.* (2004, as cited in Creese, 2008, p.229), LE considers:

Language and social life are mutually shaping, and close analysis of situated language use can provide both fundamental and distinctive

insights into the mechanisms and dynamics of social and cultural production in everyday activity.

Claiming that LE emphasises language rather than culture, Creese (2008) states that the development of LE has been underpinned by studies regarding literacy, ethnicity and identity, ideology, classroom discourse and language teaching, and thus discourse analytic tools can enable better understanding of the role language plays in social life (p.235). She also notes that the *UK Linguistic Ethnography Forum* (www.ling-ethnog.org.uk) can bring together informed discussions among scholars who are interested in linguistic diversity and multilingualism, alongside other relevant topics including education, feminist post-structuralism, New Literacy studies, reflexivity, representation and translation, and urban heteroglossia (Creese, 2008, p.239). Consequently, this study and other future research of this nature can potentially offer contributions towards and simultaneously benefit from this ‘state-of-the-art’ theoretical and methodological LE development.

7.5 Concluding Remarks

This study concludes by asking two fundamental questions: ‘why do international students matter in British higher education?’ and ‘what has British higher education done for them?’ Answers to these questions are open to interpretation depending upon each institution’s educational policies and circumstances. This study, however, offers some insights that might stimulate and create intellectual space for other scholars to reflect. This study strongly argues that international students *do* matter because they create different intellectual and social climates in a university’s landscape, and thus it is important for British higher education ethically and responsibly to enable quality and fairness for *all* students, including international students who are likely to be placed at a disadvantage. Students’ ‘real-life’ learning experiences should enable them to raise their awareness of justice, social inclusion, and tolerance of diversity in a British university, and create a more inclusive and tolerant society.

REFERENCES

- Alptekin, C. (2002) Towards intercultural communicative competence in ELT. *ELT Journal*, **56** (1), 57-64.
- Arksey, H. and Knight, P. (1999) *Interviewing for Social Scientists: An Introductory with Examples*. London: Sage Publications.
- Bamford, J., Marr, T., Pheiffer, G., Weber-Newth, I. (2002) Some features of the cultural and educational experience and expectations of international postgraduate students in the UK. Paper presented at the *BEST Conference: Supporting the Teacher, Challenging the Learner*, April, 2002. (On-line: <http://www.business.ltsn.ac.uk/events/BEST%202002/Papers/Weber-Newth.PDF>. Accessed: 02/12/07).
- Barnes, M. (2004) The use of positioning theory in studying student participation in collaborative learning activities. Paper presented at the *Annual Meeting of the Australian Association for Research in Education*. Melbourne, November 28 - December 2, 2004 (On-line: <http://www.aare.edu.au/04pap/bar04684.pdf>, Accessed: 12/06/2007).
- Bartholomae, D. (1986) Inventing the university. *Journal of Basic Writing*, **5**, 4-23.
- Bell, J. (1993) *Doing Your Research Project: A Guide for First-Time Researcher in Education and Social Science*, (2nd ed.). Buckingham: Oxford University Press.
- Blackledge, A. (2008). Language ecology and language ideology. In Creese, A., Martin, P. and Hornberger, N.H. (eds.) *Encyclopedia of Language and Education*, (2nd ed.). Vol.9: Ecology of Language., New York: Springer, 27-40.
- Block, D. (2007) *Second Language Identities*. London: Continuum.
- Brock, C., Wallace, J., Herschbach, M., Johnson, C., Raikes, B., Warren, K., Nikoli, M., and Poulsen, H. (2006) Negotiating displacement spaces: Exploring teachers'

stories about learning and diversity. *Curriculum Inquiry*, **36** (1), 35-62.

Brumfit, C. (2001) *Individual Freedom in Language Teaching: Helping Learners to Develop a Dialect of their Own*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Brumfit, C. (2006) What, then we must do? Or who gets hurt when we speak, write and teach. In Edge, J. (ed.) *(Re-)Locating TESOL in an Age of Empire*. Hampshire: Palgrave Macmillan, 27-48.

Burgess, R. (1984) Keeping a research diary. In Bell, J., Bush, T., Fox, A., Goodey, J., and Goulding, S. (eds.) *Conducting Small-Scale Investigations in Educational Management*. London: Harper and Row, 198-205.

Burns, R. (2000) *Introduction to Research Methods*, (4th ed.). London: Sage Publications.

Burr, V. (1995) *An Introduction to Social Constructionism*. London: Routledge.

Byram, M., Gribkova, B., and Starkey, H. (2002) *Developing the Intercultural Dimension in Language Teaching: A Practical Introduction for Teachers*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe.

Cadman, K. (2000) 'Voices in the air': Evaluations of the learning experiences of international postgraduates and their supervisors. *Teaching in Higher Education*, **5** (4), 475-491.

Canagarajah, A.S. (2006) TESOL at forty: what are the issues? *TESOL Quarterly*, **40** (1), 9-34.

Casanave, C.P. (2002) *Writing Games: Multicultural Case Studies of Academic Literacy Practices in Higher Education*. NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Clandinin, D.J., Huber, J., Huber, M., Murphy, M.S., Murray Orr, A., Pearce, M., and Steeves, P. (2006) *Composing Diverse Identities: Narrative Inquiries into the*

- Interwoven Lives of Children and Teachers*. London: Routledge.
- Clough, P. (2002) *Narratives and Fictions in Educational Research*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., and Morrison, K. (2000) *Research Methods in Education* (5th ed.). London: Routledge Falmer.
- Coleman, J.A. (2006) English-medium teaching in European higher education. *Language Teaching* 39, 1-14.
- Connor, U. (1996) *Contrastive Rhetoric: Cross Cultural Aspects of Second Language Writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Cortazzi, M. (1993) *Narrative Analysis*. London: The Falmer Press.
- Cortazzi, M. and Jin, L. (1996) 'Cultures of learning': Language classrooms in China. In Coleman, H. (ed.) *Society and the Language Classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 169-206.
- Cortazzi, M. and Jin, L. (1997). Communication for learning across cultures. In McNamara, D. and Harris, R. (eds.) *Overseas Students in Higher Education: Issues in Teaching and Learning*. London: Routledge, 76-90.
- Corti, L. (1993) Using diaries in social research. *Social Research Update*, University of Surrey (On-line: <http://www.soc.surrey.ac.uk/sru/SRU2.html> Accessed: 29/06/06).
- Creese, A. (2003) Language, ethnicity and the mediation of allegations of racism: Negotiating diversity and sameness in multilingual school discourses. In Creese, A. and Martin, P. (eds.) *Multilingual Classroom Ecologies: Inter-relationships, Interactions and Ideologies*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd., 61-76.

- Creese, A. (2008) Linguistic ethnography. In King, K.A. and Hornberger, N.H. (eds.) *Encyclopedia of Language and Education*, (2nd ed.), Vol.10: Research Methods in Language and Education. New York: Springer, 229-241.
- Creese, A., Bhatt, A., Bhojani, N., and Martin, P. (2006) Multicultural, heritage and learner identities in complementary schools. *Language and Education*, **20** (1), 23-43.
- Creese, A. and Martin, P. (2003) Multilingual Classroom Ecologies: Inter-Relationships, Interactions and Ideologies. In Creese, A. and Martin, P. (eds.) *Multilingual Classroom Ecologies: Inter-Relationships, Interactions and Ideologies*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd., 1-7.
- Creese, A. and Martin, P. (2006) Interaction in Complementary School Contexts: Developing Identities of Choice – An Introduction. *Language and Education*, **20** (1), 1-4.
- Creese, A. and Martin, P. (2008) Classroom ecologies: a case study from a Gujarati complementary school in England. In Creese, A., Martin, P., and Hornberger, N.H. (eds.) *Encyclopedia of Language and Education*, (2nd ed.), Vol.9: Ecology of Language. New York: Springer, 263-272.
- Creswell, J.W. (2003) *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Method Approaches*. London: Sage Publications.
- Curro, G. (2005) A theoretical framework for academic language development. *Journal of New Business Ideas and Trends*, **3** (1), 9-18.
- Davies, A. (2003) *The Native Speaker: Myth and Reality*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd.
- Davies, B. (1990) Agency as a form of discursive practice: a classroom scene observed. *British Journal of Sociology of Education*, **11** (3), 341-361.

- Davies, B. and Harré, R. (1990) Positioning: The discursive production of selves. *Journal of the Theory of Social Behavior*, **20** (1), 43-63.
- Dawson, C. (2002) *Practical Research Methods: A User-Friendly Guide to Mastering Research Techniques and Projects*. Oxford: How To Books Ltd.
- Denscombe, M. (2002) *Ground Rules for Good Research: A 10 Point Guide for Social Research*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Denscombe, M. (2003) *The Good Research Guide: For Small-scale Social Research Projects*, (2nd ed.). Berkshire: Open University Press.
- De Vita, G. (2005) Fostering intercultural learning through multicultural group work. In Carroll, J. and Ryan, J. (eds.) *Teaching International Students: Improving Learning for All*. London: Routledge, 75-83.
- Dogancay-Aktuna, S. (2005) Intercultural communication in English language teacher education. *ELT Journal*, **59** (2), 99-107.
- Drever, E. (1995) *Using Semi-Structured Interviews in Small-Scale Research: A Teacher's Guide*. Edinburgh: SCRE Publication.
- Edwards, J.R. (1985) *Language, Society and Identity*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell Ltd.
- Etherington, S. (2006) Becoming a different kind of learner: a case study of a Japanese EAP learner, *The East Asian Learner*, **2** (2), 1-10. (On-line: http://www.brookes.ac.uk/schools/education/eal/eal-2-2/vol2_2_etherington.pdf) (Accessed: 13/12/07).
- Gill, S. (2007) Overseas students' intercultural adaptation as intercultural learning: A transformative framework. *Compare*, **17** (2), 167-183.
- Godley, A.J., Carpenter, B.D., and Werner, C.A. (2007) 'I'll speak in proper slang': Language ideologies in a daily editing activity', *Reading Research Quarterly*, **42**

(1), 100-131.

- Grundy, A.L., Pollon, D.E. and McGinn, M.K. (2003) The participant as transcriptionist: Methodological advantages of a collaborative and inclusive research practice. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, **2** (2), 1-19.
- Gumperz, J.J. (1986) Introduction. In Gumperz, J.J. and Hymes, D. (eds) *Directions in Sociolinguistics: The Ethnography*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell Ltd., 1-25.
- Hammersley, M. (2004) Research design: Science or art? In Boag-Munroe, G. and Houghton, G. (eds.) *Papers from the Student Conference 2004*, School of Education, University of Birmingham, 3rd June, 9-16.
- Haneda, M. (2005) Investing in foreign-language writing: A study of two multicultural learners. *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education*, **4** (4), 269-290.
- Hanks, W.E. (2005) Pierre Bourdieu and the practices of language. *Annual Review of Anthropology*, **34**, 67-83.
- Harré, R. and van Langenhove, L. (1999) The dynamics of social episodes. In Harré, R. and van Langenhove, L. (eds.) *Positioning Theory: Moral Contexts of Intentional Action*. Oxford: Blackwell, 1-13.
- Harris, R. (1997) Overseas students in the United Kingdom university system: A perspective from social work. In McNamara, D. and Harris, R. (eds.) *Overseas Students in Higher Education: Issues in Teaching and Learning*. London: Routledge, 30-45.
- Harris, R., Leung, C., and Rampton, B. (2002) Globalisation, diaspora and language education in England. In Block, D. and Cameron, D. (eds.) *Globalisation and Language Teaching*. London: Routledge, 29-46.
- Haugen, E. (1972) *The Ecology of Language*. CA: Stanford University Press.

- Hawkey, R. and Nakornchai, C. (1980) Thai students studying. *ELT Document of Overseas Students*. London: British Council, 70-78.
- Heller, M. and Martin-Jones, M. (2001) Introduction: Symbolic domination, education, and linguistic difference. In Heller, M. and Martin-Jones, M. (eds) *Voices of Authority: Educational and Linguistic Difference*. Westpoint, CT: Ablex Publishing, 1-28.
- Hitchcock, G. and Hughes, D. (1995) *Research and the Teacher: A Qualitative Introduction to School-Based Research*. NY: Routledge.
- Holliday, A. (1996) Large- and small-class cultures in Egyptian university classrooms: A cultural justification for curriculum change. In Coleman, H. (ed.) *Society and the Language Classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 86-104.
- Holliday, A. (1999) Small cultures. *Applied Linguistics*, **20** (2), 237-246.
- Holliday, A. (2002) *Doing and Writing Qualitative Research*. London: Sage Publications.
- Holliday, A. (2005) *The Struggle to Teach English as an International Language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Holmes, H. and Tangtongtavy, S. (1995) 'Working with the Thais', as reported in Adamson, J. (2002) *Revisiting interview data: analysing turn-taking in interviews with Thai participants through 'layers of insight'*, Unpublished Ed.D Thesis, University of Leicester.
- Hornberger, N.H. (2003) Multilingual language policies and the continua of biliteracy: an ecological approach. In Hornberger, N.H. (ed.) *Continua of Biliteracy: An Ecological Framework for Educational Policy, Research, and Practice in Multilingual Settings*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters, 315-339.

- Howarth, D. (2000) *Discourse*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Hughes, C. (2003) *Disseminating Qualitative Research in Educational Settings*,
Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Hymes, D. (1986) Models of the interaction of language and social life. In Gumperz, J.J. and Hymes, D. (eds.) *Directions in Sociolinguistics: The Ethnography*.
Oxford: Basil Blackwell Ltd., 35-71.
- Ippolito, K. (2007) Promoting intercultural learning in a multicultural university: Ideals and realities. *Teaching in Higher Education*, **12** (5), 749-763.
- Janesick, V.J. (2000) The choreography of qualitative research design: Minuets, improvisations, and crystallization. In Denzin, N.K. and Lincoln, Y.S. (eds.) *The Handbook of Qualitative Research*. CA: Sage Publications, 379-399.
- Jenkins, J. (2000) *The Phonology of English as an International Language: New Models, New Norms, New Goals*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Jenkins, J. (2007) *English as a Lingua Franca: Attitude and Identity*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Jessner, U. (2006) *Linguistic Awareness in Multilinguals: English as a Third Language*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.
- Jones, J. (1999) Language and class. In Thomas, L. and Wareing, S. (eds.) *Language, Society and Power: An introduction*. London: Routledge, 117-133.
- Kachru, B.B. (1990) World Englishes and applied linguistics. *World Englishes*, **9** (1), 3-20.
- Kearney, C. (2003) *The Monkey's Mask: Identity, Memory, Narrative and Voice*. Stoke-on-Trent: Trentham Books Ltd.

- Keats, D. (2000) *Interviewing: A Practical Guide for Students and Professionals*, Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Kennedy, C. (2001) Language use, language planning and EAP. In Flowerdew, J. and Peacock, M. (eds.) *Research Perspectives on English for Academic Purposes*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 25-41.
- Kettle, M. (2005) Agency as discursive practice: from 'nobody' to 'somebody' as an international student in Australia. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education*, **25** (1), 45-60.
- Kinginger, C. (2004) Alice doesn't live here anymore: foreign language learning and identity reconstruction. In Pavlenko, A. and Blackledge, A. (eds.) *Negotiation of Identities in Multilingual Contexts*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd., 219-242.
- Kirkpatrick, A. (2007) *World Englishes: Implications for International Communication and English Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Koehne, N. (2005) (Re)construction: Ways international students talk about their Identity. *Australian Journal of Education*, **49** (1), 104-119.
- Krizmanic, M. (1990) Cross-cultural interview techniques. *The Advising Quarterly*, **11**, 1-4.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (2003) Problematising cultural stereotypes in TESOL. *TESOL Quarterly*, **37** (4), 709-719.
- Lankshear, C. and Knobel, M. (2004) *A Handbook for Teacher Research: From Design to Implementation*. Berkshire: Open University Press.
- Lapadat, J.C. and Lindsay, A.C. (1998) Examining Transcription: A Theory-Laden Methodology. Paper presented at the *Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association*, San Diego, CA, April 13-17, Eric Document Number ED 419 821). (On-line: <http://www.indiana.edu/~educy520/readings/lapadat98.pdf>)

(Accessed: 13/02/06).

Lincoln, Y.S. and Guba, E.G. (1985) *Naturalistic Inquiry*. CA: Sage Publications.

Mann, S.J. (2001) Alternative perspectives on the student experience: alienation and Engagement. *Studies in Higher Education*, **26** (1), 7-19.

Marshall, C. and Rossman, G.B. (2006) *Designing Qualitative Research*, (4th ed.). London: Sage Publications.

Martin, D. (2003) Constructing discursive practices in school and community: bilingualism, gender and power. In Creese, A. and Martin, P. (eds.) *Multilingual Classroom Ecologies: Inter-Relationships, Interactions and Ideologies*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd., 77-92.

Martin, P.W. (2003) Interactions and inter-relationships around text: practices and positionings in a multilingual classroom in Brunei. In Creese, A. and Martin, P. (eds.) *Multilingual Classroom Ecologies: Inter-Relationships, Interactions and Ideologies*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd., 77-92.

Martin, P., Bhatt, A., Bhojani, N., and Creese, A. (2006) Managing bilingual interaction in a Gujarati complementary school in Leicester. *Language and Education*, **20** (1), 5-22.

Martin-Jones, M. and Heller, M. (1996) Introduction to the special issues on education in multilingual settings: discourse, identities, and power. Part I: Constructing legitimacy. *Linguistics and Education*, **8**, 3-16.

Mason, J. (2002) *Qualitative Researching*, (2nd ed.). London: Sage Publications.

May, S. (2001) *Language and Minority Rights: Ethnicity, Nationalism, and the Politics of Language*. Harlow: Pearson Education Ltd.

- McDonough, J. and McDonough, S. (1997) *Research Methods for English Language Teachers*. London: Arnold.
- McDonough, J. and Shaw, C. (2003) *Materials and Methods in ELT: A Teacher's Guide*, (2nd ed.). Oxford: Blackwell Publishing Ltd.
- McKay, S.L. (2002) *Teaching English as an International Language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Morita, N. (2004) Negotiating participation and identity in second language academic communities. *TESOL Quarterly*, **38** (4), 573-603.
- Morrison, M. (2002) What do we mean by educational research? In Coleman, M. and Briggs, A.R. (eds.) *Research Methods in Educational Leadership and Management*. London: Sage Publications, 3-27.
- Nomnian, S. (2006) A course designer's perceptions of needs analysis, means analysis, and the role of the academic department for EAP courses: A case study. *The Journal*, **2** (1), 81-96.
- Norton, B. (2000) *Identity and Language Learning: Gender, Ethnicity and Educational Change*. Harlow: Pearson Education Ltd.
- Nunan, D. (1992) *Research Methods in Language Learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- O'Donoghue, T. (2007) *Planning Your Qualitative Research Project: An Introduction to Interpretivist Research in Education*. Oxon: Routledge.
- Palmer, D.D. (1997) *Structuralism and Poststructuralism for Beginners*. London: Writers and Readers Ltd.
- Pavlenko, A. and Blackledge, A. (2004) *Negotiations of Identities in Multilingual Contexts*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

- Pellegrino, V.A. (2005) *Study Abroad and Second Language Use: Constructing the Self*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Phillion, J., He, M.F., and Connelly, F.M. (2005) The potential of narrative and experiential approaches in multicultural inquiries. In Phillion, J., He, M.F., and Connelly, F.M. (eds.) *Narrative and Experience in Multicultural Education*. London: Sage Publication, 1-14.
- Phillipson, R. (2006) English, a cuckoo in the European higher education nest of languages? *European Journal of English Studies*, **10** (1), 13-32.
- Poland, B.D. (1995) Transcription quality as an aspect of rigor in qualitative research. *Qualitative Inquiry*, **1** (3), 290-310.
- Pole, C. and Morrison, M. (2003) *Ethnography for Education*. Maidenhead: Open University Press.
- Prior, P. (1998) *Writing/Disciplinary: A Sociohistoric Account of Literate Activity in the Academy*. Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Probyn, M. (2008) Policy, practice and power: Language ecologies of South African Classrooms. In Creese, A., Martin, P. and Hornberger, N.H. (eds.) *Encyclopedia of Language and Education*, (2nd ed.), Vol.9: Ecology of Language., New York: Springer, 207-223.
- Rajadurai, J. (2007) Ideology and intelligibility. *World Englishes*, **26** (1), 87-98.
- Rampton, B., Tusting, K., Maybin, J., Barwell, R., Creese, A., and Lytra, V. (2004) UK Linguistic Ethnography: a discussion paper, (as cited in Creese, A. (2008) Linguistic ethnography). In King, K.A. and Hornberger, N.H. (eds.) *Encyclopedia of Language and Education*, (2nd ed.), New York: Springer, 229-241.
- Rao, K. (2005) *A Guide to Studying and Living in Britain: Up-to-date Information and Advice for International Students in the UK*. Oxford: Howtobooks.

- Raymond, P.M. and Parks, S. (2004) Chinese students' enculturation into an MBA program: Issues of empowerment. *Critical Inquiry in Language Studies: An International Journal*, **1** (4), 187-202.
- Ritchie, S.M. (2002) Student positioning within groups during science activities. *Research in Science Education*, **32**, 35-54.
- Russel, M. (2005) Marketing education: A review of service quality perceptions among international students. *Marketing Education*, **17** (1), 65-77.
- Ryan, J. (2000) *A Guide to Teaching International Students*. Oxford: Centre for Staff and Learning Development.
- Ryan, J. and Carroll, J. (2005) 'Canaries in the coalmine': International students in Western universities. In Carroll, J. and Ryan, J. (eds.) *Teaching International Students: Improving Learning for All*. London: Routledge, 3-10.
- Sabat, S.R. and Harré, R. (1992) The construction and deconstruction of self in Alzheimer's disease. *Ageing and Society*, **12**, 443-461.
- Saldaña, J. (2003) *Longitudinal Qualitative Research: Analysing Change through Time*. California: Altamira Press.
- Scales, J., Wennerstrom, A., Richard, D. and Wu, S.H. (2006) Language learners' perceptions of accent. *TESOL Quarterly*, **40** (4), 715-737.
- Seale, C. (1999) *The Quality of Qualitative Research*. London: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Seale, C., Gobo, G., Gubrium, J., and Silverman, D. (2004) *Qualitative Research Practice*. CA: Sage Publications.
- Seidlhofer, B. (2005) English as a lingua franca. *ELT Journal*, **59** (4), 339-341.
- Sellami, A. (2006) Slaves of sex, money and alcohol: (Re-)locating the target culture

- of TESOL. In Edge, J. (ed.) *(Re-)Locating TESOL in an Age of Empire*. Hampshire: Palgrave Macmillan, 171-194.
- Silverman, D. (2001) *Interpreting Qualitative Data*, (2nd ed.). London: Sage Publications.
- Singh, I. (1999) Language, thought and representation. In Thomas, L. and Wareing, S. (eds.) *Language, Society and Power: An Introduction*. London: Routledge, 17-30.
- Sridhar, K.K. (1996) Societal multilingualism. In McKay, S.L. and Hornberger, N.H. (eds.) *Sociolinguistics and Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 45-76.
- Stake, R.E. (1994) Case studies. In Denzin, N.K. and Lincoln, Y.S. (eds.) *A Handbook of Qualitative Research*. London: Sage Publications, 273-285.
- Stake, R.E. (1995) *The Art of Case Study Research*. CA: Sage Publications.
- Sturman, A. (1999) Case study methods. In Keeves, J. and Lakomski, G. (eds.) *Issues in Educational Research*. Oxford: Elsevier Science Ltd., 103-112.
- Svalberg, A. M-L. (2007) Language awareness and language learning. *Language Teaching*, **40**, 287-308.
- Tatar, S. (2005) Classroom participation by international students: The case study of Turkish graduate students. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, **9** (4), 337-355.
- Thomas, L. and Wareing, S. (1999) (eds.) *Language, Society and Power: An Introduction*. London: Routledge.
- Thornborrow, J. (1999) Language and identity. In Thomas, L. and Wareing, S. (eds.) *Language, Society and Power*. London: Routledge, 135-149.

- Todd, E.S. (1997) Supervising overseas students: problem or opportunity?' In McNamara, D. and Harris, R. (eds.) *Overseas Students in Higher Education: Issues in Teaching and Learning*. London: Routledge, 173-186.
- Trahar, M. (2007) *Teaching and Learning the International Higher Education Landscape: Some Theories and Working Practice*. Bristol: Higher Education Academy.
- Turner, Y. (2006) Chinese students in a UK business school: Hearing the student voice in reflective teaching and learning practice. *Higher Education Quarterly*, **60** (1), 27 – 51.
- UK Council for International Students Affairs (2007) *Higher education statistics* (On-line: www.ukcosa.org.uk/about/statistics_he.php, Accessed: 06/12/2007)
- Usher, R. (1996) A critique of the neglected epistemological assumptions of educational research. In Scott, D. and Usher, R. (eds.) *Understanding Educational Research*. London: Routledge, 9-32.
- van Langenhove, L. and Harré, R. (1999) Introducing positioning theory. In Harré, R. and van Langenhove, L. (eds.) *Positioning Theory: Moral Contexts of Intentional Action*. Oxford: Blackwell, 14-31.
- Walford, G. (2001) *Doing Qualitative Educational Research*. London: Continuum.
- Walker, R. (1993) The conduct of educational case studies: Ethics, theory, and procedures. In Hammersley, M. (ed.) *Controversies in Classroom Research*, (2nd ed.). Buckingham: Oxford University Press, 163-195.
- Wareing, S. (1999) What is language and what does it do?' In Thomas, L. and Wareing, S. (eds.) *Language, Society and Power*. London: Routledge, 1-15.
- Woolard, K.A. (1998) Introduction: language ideology as a field of inquiry. In Schieffelin, B.B., Woolard, K.A., and Kroskrity, P.V. (eds.) *Language Ideologies*.

Oxford: Oxford University Press, 3-47.

Yin, R.K. (1993) *Applications of Case Study Research*. London: Sage Publications.

Yin, R.K. (2003) *Case Study Research: Design and Methods* (3rd ed.). London: Sage Publications.

Appendix 1

Interview schedule

Interview No. 1 (Beginning of an EAP course)

1. What is your name, age, place of birth, and previous job, if any?
 2. Where did you gain your first degree? In what area?
 3. Why did you decide to study in England?
 4. Why did you decide to study in Leicester?
 5. What were your fears and expectations before coming here?
 6. What is your IELTS or TOEFL score?
 7. How do you feel about your spoken English? Excellent? Good? Poor?
 8. Did you have a chance to speak English in Thailand? If so, on what occasions?
 9. How easy or hard was it for you to speak English during the aforementioned events?
 10. In general, when do you feel comfortable speaking English?
 11. In general, when do you feel uncomfortable speaking English?
 12. What opportunities do you think you will have to speak English with native speakers of English? And with non-native speakers of English?
 13. Between native and non-native speakers of English, whom do you think you will have more chances to talk with? Why?
 14. What do you expect to gain from Course EAP?
 15. Will you participate in the class discussion if you have an opportunity? Why? Why not?
-

Interview Nos. 2 & 3 (During an EAP course)

1. How was your class this week?
 2. Why did or didn't you participate in classroom discussion?
 3. What were you thinking when the teacher posed that question?
 4. What did you think about other classmates who participated and who didn't?
 5. What did you think about your tutor's instruction?
 6. Did s/he encourage you to join the conversation? Why? Why not?
 7. How do you feel about your participation now?
 8. Do you think this class will help you with the MSc? How?
-

Interview No. 4 (Beginning of MSc Marketing class)

1. How was the result of your English exams?
 2. How did the course help you with your English skills?
 3. What do you think about your English now?
 4. What opportunities do you have to speak English?
 5. What courses will you take in Term 1?
 6. What is your expectation and fear about Term 1?
 7. How will you prepare for Term 1?
 8. What do you think about classroom participation at a postgraduate level?
-

Interview No. 5 (conducted at the end of Term1 December 2005)

1. What are your general impressions of term 1?
 2. What did you enjoy about the course?
 3. What difficulties did you have? How did you deal with it?
 4. How was your class discussion and participation in course X?
 5. What did you think about other classmates' participation?
 6. Do you have any comments about your lecturers?
 7. What kind of academic skills do you improve and need to improve?
 8. What do you think about your English abilities?
 9. What opportunities do you have to use English?
 10. How is your typical day?
 11. What do you expect for Term 2?
 12. What courses will you take?
-

Interview No. 6 (conducted at the end of Term 2 April 2006)

1. What are your general impressions of term 2?
 2. What did you enjoy about the course?
 3. What difficulties did you have? How did you deal with it?
 4. How was your class discussion and participation in course X?
 5. What did you think about other classmates' participation?
 6. Do you have any comments about your lecturers?
 7. What kind of academic skills do you improve and need to improve?
 8. What do you think about your English abilities?
 9. What opportunities do you have to use English?
 10. What do you think about your academic life at the University?
 11. What will you suggest for new Thai students who will come next year?
 12. What kind of supports will be useful for international students?
 13. What are your future plans?
 14. What do you think about being part of this project?
-

Appendix 2: A sample transcript

Julie's Final Interview: 03/04/06 (English original)

- 1 **K:** **What are your general impressions about the second term?**
- 2 J: For me the first thing is about my flatmates. It's very nice. It's very
3 kind. Yeah. Always I speak with them. But about my lecture is so so,
4 the same thing. But maybe I can improve my listening. But speaking I
5 can't speak anything in my class. Just sit and listen. Sometimes it's so
6 boring.
- 7 **K:** **Why is that? Why didn't you talk in class or when the teacher**
8 **asked you questions why didn't you answer?**
- 9 J: I don't know, just keep quiet.
- 10 **K:** **Why? Why?**
- 11 J: Maybe because I think I'm afraid that my English is not good. Maybe
12 sometimes some people answer a lot, you know? Yeah I just keep
13 quiet. Yeah, sometimes I know what should I answer. But I don't
14 want to answer, just talk with my friend. That's okay.
- 15 **K:** **That's because you're afraid that your English is not good, that's**
16 **it?**
- 17 J: Maybe it's not my English is not good. Maybe too many people.
- 18 **K:** **Too many people?**
- 19 J: Yeah about one hundred something. That's why I don't want to
20 answer them. Yeah. If maybe about the small class, about twenty or
21 thirty, I think I will do it. Yeah. It's the same English language course.
22 I'll answer when my teacher ask me. Yeah. But in here, it's a big
23 class. And you know some people I don't know. Yeah. I just familiar
24 with my friends, my Thai friends, and maybe Chinese friends,
25 or Taiwanese friends. That's it, that's why I don't want to answer it.
- 26 **K:** **When you don't answer your teacher's question, do you feel that**
27 **you don't learn?**
- 28 J: I don't think so. I can learn something from the lecturer. But it not
29 mean I didn't learn something. I can learn from listening.
- 30 **K:** **What did you what did you learn from group discussion?**
- 31 J: From group discussion?

- 32 **K:** **Yeah, when you had a group discussion.**
- 33 J: We can share opinion and we can practice English language. It's good.
34 I think so. This one is very good for a group discussion. But just some
35 some option is not. I think only two options we got group discussions.
36 Yeah, it's useful for me.
- 37 **K:** **So it's useful in terms of you share opinions?**
- 38 J: You share opinion and you can practice English language. Maybe it's
39 useful for you in career in the future. You have to discuss always
40 about the topic or about maybe the business. It's very good.
- 41 **K:** **You said you share knowledge, you share opinion.**
- 42 J: Yeah.
- 43 **K:** **So in the discussion, if there are different opinions, how did you**
44 **deal with it?**
- 45 J: For me, my habit always argue with some somebody. I mean we will
46 discuss this one is my opinion, why you think that, why me think that
47 and share opinion together.
- 48 **K:** **When you share opinion, if you don't agree with someone, how did**
49 **you deal with it?**
- 50 J: I'll tell something about my opinion with them. Why I think that and
51 have reasons to support my idea.
- 52 **K:** **How did you come to the conclusion?**
- 53 J: Conclusion. Maybe put together and develop it. Yeah it's more useful
54 to use it.
- 55 **K:** **What's the difficulty you think in a group discussion?**
- 56 J: I think too many students, many ideas. And some people think that,
57 for me think that, another friend think that. That's why many many
58 ideas in this one topic. We have to share which one is better or maybe
59 this one is best, this one is good, that one is good as well. We can mix
60 together and use it.
- 61 **K:** **So you think it's helpful.**
- 62 J: It's helpful for me. But for me, I think, marketing course should
63 separate in small group. I mean you know one hundred something and
64 maybe we have about lecture. Okay, one hundred something, that's
65 okay. And share in small group maybe thirty or thirty-five people.
66 Small one and you have discussion about the same topic again. And or

67 about the topic we study today lecture today and what you think about
68 this one. Is it good or not good? Maybe it's better than now.

69 **K: What did you enjoy about your study?**

70 J: In here?

71 **K: In this term.**

72 J: In this term. Firstly about the options that I chose by myself, I like it
73 about International Marketing and HRM. But for HRM, sometimes
74 it's difficult for me because I never study for HRM. The lecturer
75 speaks it too fast because she's from USA, California. But I think
76 that's okay. She's energy to teach students. That's why encourage
77 students to study with her. That's good. About international
78 marketing, I think the lecturer is very good. He always explains
79 something very clear and you can understand it. Two modules, one is
80 brand communication. Sometimes, I think the lecturer I feel boring.
81 His sound is too smooth. I want to sleep. I think if he taught
82 something, you can use it or practice for communication. I think that's
83 okay. But something is more theory. You know what does I mean.

84 **K: Yeah.**

85 J: It's more theory. I don't know why I have to study this one. It's
86 difficult and I can't understand, what does you mean, this one what
87 does you mean. Oh my God. And another one is product policy. This
88 one is very good. It's more specific details for marketer. I never study
89 that one, only product, price, place, promotion. But this one is specific
90 only for promotion and innovation. It's very useful. We finish early.
91 Maybe I'll forget it. Have two exams for brand communication and
92 product policy but I forgot it already.

93 **K: Why did you choose international marketing and Human**
94 **Resource Management?**

95 J: The first one international marketing, I think this one is relate with my
96 subject. I study marketing. Maybe I want to export my business. I
97 want to run my business abroad. I think international marketing is
98 useful for me. You have to learn something maybe different. Another
99 one, HRM, the first thing I don't want to study HRM but I no choice.
100 The first time I think that university will have retail marketing or
101 service marketing. But this year, no. Don't have it. That's why I
102 chose HRM. I think maybe if I learn something about manage people,
103 maybe it's useful for me as well.

- 104 K: What kind of difficulties did you experience in your study?**
- 105 J: Difficult for me. I think I get used to it here. The difficult one may be
 106 to study and to do the assignment and two exams. I think assignment
 107 is okay because we have time to arrange it. To manage your
 108 assignment is very good. I think the more difficult for me is the
 109 exams. I think when have exams, it's more pressure. I think when I do
 110 it, it's not very well.
- 111 K: So you have problems about writing assignment.**
- 112 J: Writing assignment, just a bit. But not...
- 113 K: Oh you talk about prepare for exams.**
- 114 J: Preparing for exams is more difficult. We have time only two hours,
 115 it's not enough. Sometimes I forgot what should I write.
- 116 K: Did you understand the question?**
- 117 J: Sometimes the question is so complex. I can't understand it. But I
 118 always recognise and know it.
- 117 K: Now we will go deeper in different classes. Product innovation,
 118 what did you like about this course?**
- 119 J: If you ask me about I like this course, I don't like it more than I like it.
 120 Because the first time I came here I think about this course is very
 121 good. I think it maybe can develop my skill a lot.
- 122 K: What kind of skills?**
- 123 J: I mean speaking and listening, that's okay. And maybe it's about
 124 marketing. I'll learn something more. But I'm not sure now I learn
 125 more or not because you know I graduated from marketing. I think
 126 now my knowledge from undergraduate maybe I'm not sure. I'll tell
 127 you again if I get knowledge or not.
- 128 K: Did the teacher encourage you to participate in class?**
- 129 J: No, Product Policy and Brand Communication, no discussion. Only
 130 international marketing and HRM, we have a discussion in a small
 131 group. Product policy we had one about presentation. You know my
 132 responsibility have to present it, but the lecture is cancelled. It's the
 133 same as Petch's group. Two groups cancelled on that day. That's why
 134 I didn't present it.
- 135 K: Before you present it, you have to talk with your...**
- 136 J: Yep, my friend, in here. With Kimi and Wan Ling and my friends.

- 137 **K:** **Was it difficult to prepare for the presentation?**
- 138 J: It's difficult to prepare for presentation because we got something
139 about twenty pages for read it and present for another students. We
140 have to conclude and to analyse and to answer the questions.
- 141 **K:** **What topic did you do?**
- 142 J: About Orange, about Mobile Phone. CRM Customer Relationship
143 Management, how the company encourages people by using CRM. I
144 prepare already. I got it now. But didn't present it. We have to share
145 ideas together. Which one we want to put it in Power Point and
146 present it. We discussed before. We chose something if the topic is
147 related and find some information to use it. It's very useful.
- 148 **K:** **But was the presentation evaluated? You have to get the grade?**
- 149 J: No, no. Just present for somebody.
- 150 **K:** **How about Brand and Communication? You think the lecturer is**
151 **very boring?**
- 152 J: It's very boring. In two or three lectures very boring. All of them is
153 about theory. Theory for Brand Communication. Theory for
154 Advertising. All of them is about theory. I don't know why I have to
155 study it. I think this one is not useful because we can't adapt for
156 practical to use it. Just study "Who think that?" "Why think that?"
157 It's so boring. But uh about uh maybe four or five lectures, it's very
158 useful, study about the advertising but use something to develop a
159 company and customer.
- 160 **K:** **But he didn't have any group discussion.**
- 161 J: No, he don't have any group discussion.
- 162 **K:** **Did he ask?**
- 163 J: Yes. He always asking about questions for "what do you think about
164 this advertising", "Is it good or not?" "How you develop it?" "Why
165 it's important for customers?" He always ask it. But no one answer
166 him.
- 167 **K:** **Why didn't you answer him?**
- 168 J: I don't know. I don't know why. Sometimes I just listen and kept
169 quiet. I don't want to answer. Sometimes, it's so boring. You know
170 some pictures I saw it many many times, more than ten, about the
171 kitchen one. You know the first time Petch came, he was very excited
172 for this lecture. But I told him why you were very excited with this
173 advertising. He always skips class. You know the advertising

174 sometimes is very very old, maybe five or ten years ago, not up-to-
 175 date.

176 K: But did you learn any thing from the class?

177 J: Yes. I learn something, how to develop brand communication.

178 K: How about Human Resource Management?

179 J: I think this HRM, some people told me that it's very boring. But the
 180 first time I went to class, it's not boring. She can make me encourage
 181 to study with her.

182 K: Why?

183 J: I think her behaviour look like Nik, you know? He always talk
 184 walk, walk, walk and explain something, use something it's uh up to
 185 date. It's not about five or ten years ago. When she speak, when she
 186 spoke, I don't know how I can explain, maybe has something about
 187 energy to encourage students to study with her. Maybe she study too
 188 fast or something like that. Sometime I can't understand.

189 K: You mean she speaks too fast.

190 J: Yeah, yeah, she speaks too fast. We always have a group discussion
 191 about the topic, about the lecture.

192 K: Did you like it?

193 J: I like it.

194 K: Why?

195 J: I think about the group discussion, you can show your opinion. You
 196 can do something it's good or not good about the topic. Maybe you
 197 can get some information from your friend. Okay. Maybe you can
 198 share your opinion with your friend. You can speak. You can learn
 199 something. Maybe different nationality, different idea. We can get it.
 200 And very useful for me.

201 K: What did you think about having other students from disciplines I
202 mean from MBA and Management to study?

203 J: You mean HRM and International Marketing? I think it's the same.

204 K: Do you think is it helpful or not?

205 J: It's helpful. But, I think all of MSc Marketing, and Management,
 206 MBA students, the background sometime the same. I think maybe just
 207 some people got something higher than some people. I think the

208 background is the same. We can talk together. But maybe some
 209 students from MBA got ideas more than me when I speak to. Some
 210 people I can learn something from them.

211 K: In one class of HRM, you were supposed to be a human resource
212 manager deciding policies for the expat, remember?

213 J: In the library hall?

214 K: In the library hall. How did you feel about that activity?

215 J: Very good. This activity is really good. Some people told me that it's
 216 useless. But I think it's very good. Because we can learn. Yeah. If
 217 you want to run the business, you have to encourage employees to do
 218 it. How you can attract employees to stay with you. And you have to
 219 give something for employees and employees give something to
 220 employers as well. It's very useful.

221 K: Was it difficult for you to deal with other students?

222 J: Sometime different nationality, different pronunciation. Sometime I
 223 can't understand Black, Black people, you know from Nigeria,
 224 Ghana or something like that speak with me. It's very difficult to
 226 communicate.

226 K: How about...

227 J: But Asia people, that's okay. Chinese, Japanese no Japanese,
 228 Taiwanese, that's okay.

229 K: In that group, there were Greek people as well.

230 J: Yeah. Yeah. Greek for Vicky. I get used to with her pronunciation.
 231 That's why I can get used to with her friend.

232 K: Oh, I see.

233 J: Maybe.

234 K: So knowing Vicky, is it easier for you to discuss with the rest of the
235 Greek students?

236 J: Yeah. Yeah. It's not difficult for me.

237 K: But Pekky seemed to talk more in the group but you just listened.

238 J: Because she was talking, I didn't want to interrupt her. That's okay. If
 239 in one group, somebody speaks a lot, I will keep quiet.

- 240 K: Did you want to say something?**
- 241 J: Yes. I want to say something. I told somebody. But I think that's
242 okay. I didn't want to say. That's it. You know what does I mean.
- 243 K: If your opinion is different from theirs, what will you do?**
- 244 J: I just keep quiet as well. You know, some questions, I disagree but I
245 told her I disagree.
- 246 K: What's the point of having discussion if you don't say what you
247 think?**
- 248 J: Because the first time we do something about the paper together before
249 we put something in the group. We talk and share our opinion
250 together. That's it I share in here. But to collect in a group, I didn't
251 say it.
- 252 K: What did you mean?**
- 253 J: The first time we had to separate in two small groups. I share my
254 opinion in this group. When we collected together, Pekky talked about
255 this one.
- 256 K: You were sharing the group with Pekky.**
- 257 J: Yeah. I was talking with Pekky, Lana, Oudy, and Iris in a small group.
258 Then we gathered with Greek people again.
- 259 K: When you gathered in a small group, which language did you use?**
- 260 J: English language because we have some Taiwanese friends.
- 261 K: Why do Thai students usually group together?**
- 262 J: I don't know why. I sit here and my friends want to sit here. That's
263 okay. I don't want to move. But some of my Thai friends want to sit
264 with Chinese or Taiwanese students.
- 265 K: So you spend most of the time talking in Thai then?**
- 266 J: Yes. I think so.
- 267 K: Do you have any chances practice speaking in English with other
268 students from other countries?**
- 269 J: For me, I think in my lecture I didn't practice English language, only
270 listening. The first thing for me is listening. But for me speaking in my
271 flat. I'll speak English language everyday about more than one or two
272 hours with my flatmates.

- 273 **K:** In the class discussion, when you stay in a same group of Thai
274 people, will you learn the same ideas?
- 275 J: No, when we have a group discussion, we need to separate, sometimes,
276 only sometimes because we sit there, another person is there, not only
277 Thai nationality.
- 278 **K:** Was there any group discussion in International Marketing class?
- 279 J: We had a group discussion only one time, maybe in the Library Hall.
280 We talked about Brand performance. This time, we speak in Thai
281 language.
- 282 **K:** Why?
- 283 J: Because all of my group is Thai friends. We speak in Thai language. I
284 can't understand the question either.
- 285 **K:** You cannot understand the question.
- 286 J: Just a little. I think maybe this one is answer but I'm not sure.
- 287 **K:** Do you feel more comfortable speaking in Thai?
- 288 J: I think so, but I don't mind speaking in English.
- 289 **K:** How about when the lecturer walked around and asked question?
- 290 J: Chat with me. That's okay. I will answer him when he asks me.
- 291 **K:** What did you think having different lecturers from different
292 countries?
- 293 J: So so. It's not good, not bad. In HRM, the first lecture, the lecturer is
294 from USA. The first lecture was very difficult for me. Lecture two is
295 okay. International marketing, he is from Sri Lanka. But I think his
296 English, I can understand it. Maybe it's the same as Shanara. That's
297 why I can understand because she's from Sri Lanka as well. I think
298 easy, easy, one is British people. British teacher is really good.
299 British teacher is easy to understand, not speak too fast or too slow.
- 300 **K:** It's a good thing to have teachers from other nationalities.
- 301 J: It's good. I prefer British people or USA.
- 302 **K:** Why?
- 303 J: I think I will copy or imitate some pronunciation.

304 **K:** **Really? You think you can imitate.**

305 J: Maybe, not sure.

306 **K:** **Have you ever?**

307 J: No.

308 **K:** **You haven't.**

309 J: Just some sentence. That's fine. That's okay, easy, easy sentence.

310 **K:** **What observations do you have about your classmate's**
311 **participation?**

312 J: My classmate?

313 **K:** **Yeah. You know some students discussing in class. What do you**
314 **think about that?**

315 J: You mean all of my MSc Marketing or only my group or...

316 **K:** **Well, the ones in your marketing class. What do you think?**

317 J: Some people have strong idea. You know what does I mean. And
318 sometime difficult to explain something.

319 **K:** **It's difficult for him or you?**

320 J: For me to understand. We have discussion. If somebody have
321 strong ideas, maybe he don't want to give in.

322 **K:** **In a big class.**

323 J: Yeah, in a big class.

324 **K:** **What do you think about that? How do you feel?**

325 J: That's okay.

326 **K:** **When someone has strong ideas.**

327 J: Maybe I think they will think that this one is a good good idea, maybe
328 because of culture, maybe because of nationality.

329 **K:** **When you said when they have strong ideas, did you agree or**
330 **disagree with them?**

331 J: Sometime. Yeah, sometime I agree. Sometime, I disagree.

332 K: And when you disagree, what did you do?

333 J: I don't know. Sometime, I just share my opinion. In small group,
334 that's okay. But in the class, no.

335 K: No?

336 J: Yeah. Keep quiet. I will chat with my friend I disagree. Just keep
337 quiet and I told my friend why I disagree with this one.

338 K: But that person never knows.

339 J: Yeah. Yeah. No one know. Just my friend.

340 K: But your friend, does your friend has the same idea as you? I
341 mean disagree with you.

342 J: Yeah.

343 K: Do you think she disagreed with that guy as well?

344 J: She just listen.

345 K: She just listen to you?

346 J: Yeah. Yeah.

347 K: Why didn't you say it in the class to show that you know I think
348 your idea not good?

349 J: In the first interview I told you. I think this one is too big class. Yeah
350 it's too difficult to show your opinion or to do something. Maybe if I
351 compare with my English language class, we know everyone in our
352 class. Easy to communicate it. In a big class, we don't know
353 someone. Maybe if you talk something, maybe with I think that it's
354 not stupid, but some people if I answer it. Some people think that it's
355 stupid thing. What should I do? Because we don't know everyone in
356 this class. Maybe someone don't like you, someone like you.

357 K: And then what?

358 J: What! I care about this one.

359 K: You care about it.

360 J: Yeah!

361 K: You care if someone might not like you too. When that guy said,
362 you might not like him.

363 J: You know the Chinese guy with the long tall man. When he talk, I
 364 think sometime his idea is very good. But many people don't like him.
 365 I don't know why. His idea sometime it's not always I agree with him.

366 K: So he took the chance to say it in class, why didn't you?

367 J: I don't know. I am shy.

**368 K: You think because you are shy or because you got scared from
 369 other people might say.**

370 J: I think I'm scared from many people think that maybe your English is
 371 not good, why you answer that. It's not related with the question. I
 372 think it's better to keep quiet.

**373 K: So you are afraid first of all with your English and then your
 374 answer that might sound stupid.**

375 J: Yeah. And I think my class is too big.

376 K: If the class is smaller, you would say it.

377 J: I would say it.

378 K: How small?

379 J: About twenty or thirty. You know in my friend's university, she study
 380 in Bradford University. Always she has a big class, maybe eighty or
 381 ninety people in one class. But in the afternoon, she has something
 382 about the small lecture. She has a group discussion again about this
 383 topic. Everybody have to chat. And we know everyone in this one in
 384 this group.

385 K: But in this class, you don't know all of them.

386 J: Yeah. You know maybe I don't know half. I know only half. Maybe
 387 just a quarter.

388 K: Why? Why? You study almost six months.

389 J: Because we don't have chance to maybe to talk with somebody.
 390 Maybe Chinese friend stick with Chinese friend. Turkey friend stick
 391 with Turkey friend. You can see it. All of people, all of nationality
 392 stick together.

393 K: Do you feel that you are part of the classroom community?

394 J: Yes. I think.

395 **K:** **You think you are part of it but you don't know all of them.**

396 J: I don't know all of them.

397 **K:** **What do you think that the postgraduate student should do?**

398 J: You mean what postgraduate student should do for studying here?

399 **K:** **Yep.**

400 J: Speak a lot.

401 **K:** **Speak a lot.**

402 J: Listen a lot, go to class.

403 **K:** **Now think about yourself.**

404 J: Yeah. For me?

405 **K:** **You think you are a good postgraduate student?**

406 J: I think so. I'm a good postgraduate student because I alway go to
407 lecture. And I read a lot, have to do assignment, you know? That's 408
why I have to read it. I think I'm good postgraduate student.

409 **K:** **So think about being a language student in course EAP, what's the**
410 **difference between a language student and a postgraduate**
411 **student?**

412 J: Firstly, English language class is so small, if compare with
413 postgraduate course I mean marketing, it's too big. You can see what
414 the difference. You can familiar with your friends when you study
415 English language course. But you can't familiar with your friends in
416 MSc marketing course. Very different. Secondly, you can use
417 something from English language class to develop your knowledge
418 when you study postgraduate. I mean we can learn a lot in English
419 language course. I think it's very useful for me. I think I studying
420 hard in English language class than maybe master degree,
421 postgraduate. I alway go study everyday from 9'o clock until 4. But
422 for postgraduate, we have time. You study only short time and you
423 have to do assignment and exam, finish. In English language course,
424 you can learn more people. You can know about their behaviour
425 because we know everyone. But in postgraduate course, you can't
426 learn it. You can't learn about I mean you can't get a new friend. You
427 know, all of my friends from MSc Marketing from English language
428 course. It's not new friend.

- 429 K: Why didn't you make other new friends?**
- 430 J: I try to make other new friends but it's not easy. I find something it
 431 difficult. I can know something. You know Vicky study the same
 432 course with me. I can know her friend, many many Turkey, many
 433 many Greek friends. I can know from her. But another people, no. I
 434 don't know why. Maybe I have a new friend because of we have
 435 group discussion. Maybe group tutorial together, Jo, Bonny, and
 436 maybe Bao. Something like that.
- 437 K: Do you think that you participated enough?**
- 438 J: In my lecture?
- 439 K: In your lecture in each class this second term.**
- 440 J: It's the same as semester one.
- 441 K: It's the same. You think you participate enough.**
- 442 J: I think it's not enough for me. If I can choose it, I'd prefer to study
 443 MBA small group. You can discuss maybe 2 hours or 3 hours per day.
- 444 K: So, you would prefer to study MBA.**
- 445 J: Yeah. I may choose to study at other university, have a small group.
 446 It's different from here.
- 447 K: Do you have any comments about your course instructors?**
- 448 J: I think lecturers are okay. The class is too big. The options are not
 449 good for this year. We don't have choice. You know the first time 450
 many friends told me that the prospectus got different one. She came
 451 here because of the prospectus. But this year they change it. We don't
 452 want to complain. I don't know if I complain what happens. Just
 453 ignore it.
- 454 K: Did you have a chance to talk with your course instructors outside
 455 the class?**
- 456 J: We met friends in City Centre or when we have a party. If you go out
 457 or have a party, we can talk in English language. The same as last
 458 time, I went to pub with my friends, we met MBA students. All of
 459 people are MBA students. We had a party after we finish semester. I
 460 went as well with Oudy, Pooky, and Natalie. I met my friends and I
 461 talked a lot, in English language, not a Thai language. Only four Thai
 462 students went to this party.

- 463 K: When you met them outside, what did you talk about?**
- 464 J: Talk about the course, the lecture, assignment, exams. About general
465 thinking in my country and their countries.
- 466 K: Is it different from inside and outside class?**
- 467 J: Not different. It's the same.
- 468 K: When you meet them outside in the pub or something and meet
469 them again in the class, does it help you to talk more?**
- 470 J: Yes. It helps me to talk more. You know some people, they didn't
471 study in English language. I know them because of my friend
472 introduced them to me. After that when I saw them, we can chat
473 together every time. When I go out, always my friends introduce her
474 friends to me. Next time, if I meet her, we'll chat together.
- 475 K: How about lecturers? Have you met them outside the class?**
- 476 J: If I have a problem about my assignment, I'll ask. The last time, I ask
477 Nimal about international marketing assignment.
- 478 K: Is it different from talking with him personally?**
- 479 J: It's easy to talk personally. If I can't understand, I ask him to explain
480 to me again 'What does you mean about this one?' 'Can you explain
481 this one again?' 'Can I do this one about assignment or not?' or 'I can't
482 do it'.
- 483 K: What academic or English ability you have improved over the
484 year?**
- 485 J: You know, I don't know how can I know I improve it or not. You
486 know, now if I improve English language. How can I know? I ask 487
many many people.
- 488 K: What do you think?**
- 489 J: For me, I think my listening is improve, but I'm not sure. If I go back
490 to Thailand, maybe I'll forget it.
- 491 K: How about your academic ability?**
- 492 J: You mean writing?
- 493 K: Well...in anything.**

494 J: If you talk about writing I think it's okay. I can manage and organise
495 my assignment and exams. About listening is very good to practice. If
496 you go to lecture, always you can practice listening. Speaking, just a
497 little. I mean in lecture, not in here. I think reading is really really
498 improve now. I read a lot before the exams or before I do my
499 assignment. I think now I read faster than before.

500 K: When you discuss something in class, do you use any marketing
501 terms?

502 J: Of course. In discussion, we talk something about marketing. You
503 have to use something about the theory or about the general marketing
504 to adapt your ideas or to support your ideas. 'Why you think that?'
505 You have to use examples to support your ideas.

506 K: How can you learn those words or vocabulary?

507 J: Sometimes from lecture, from reading, sometimes from my friends.

508 K: From your friend?

509 J: Yeah.

510 K: What do you mean by from your friends?

511 J: Sometimes my friend, her English is better than me. I mean Vicky.
512 She's English is really good because she finishes Linguistics.
513 Sometimes I don't know how to speak these words. I ask her. I can
514 learn. When you read a lot, you can recognise it. This sentence you
515 can use in this sentence about the specific vocabulary from marketing,
516 sales volume or CRM or Brand Communication or Brand Loyalty. We
517 have many thing about specific one about marketing.

518 K: When you read a case study, is it important to know something
519 about life experience outside the lecture?

520 J: Yes. If we have to learn about case study, we need to know about the
521 background of case study. Because in the case study, in a short
522 paragraph, maybe don't tell you more, the limitation. If you can find
523 or you can learn something about the background. Maybe mission or
524 vision of the company, you can know why they think that.

525 K: For example, you did a case study on Orange, you discussed
526 something about the case study, did you use outside experience to
527 discuss?

528 J: I discussed about the outside information about mobile phone. I
529 always use my opinion and my experience to do my presentation. If
530 you go to mobile shop, the staff will encourage you to buy it. The

531 company will do something to encourage people to buy it, to create
532 brand loyalty.

533 K: If you never go out or see things outside, when the lecturers discuss
534 something...

535 J: You don't know. You can't understand. You have to go out. I think
536 going out is not useless. It's very useful for you. If you don't go out,
537 you don't know traditional in here. You don't know if you want to buy
538 something, why people get in the queue. Take the bus, why people get
539 in the queue. If you go out, you can learn more. Why this time, many
540 shops discount. Why this shop has to discount 50%. Or maybe you
541 can learn, don't buy it now, next time, we'll buy one get one free. You
542 may know that.

543 K: All these things help you in your...

544 J: Yeah. When you go out, you can learn something about marketing.
545 Why they want to encourage people to buy something. Why they want
546 to discount at this time. You learn more and you can think it. Maybe
547 in the future you can adapt it in Thailand. Sometimes, about the
548 Mobile Phone company to create a promotion to buy more and use
549 more. You can learn from this one.

550 K: So going out and studying.

551 J: Yeah. Don't stay at home. You can go around here. And maybe in
552 London, you can learn more. Different Leicester, Manchester,
553 Birmingham, different people. You can do something in Leicester, but
554 you can't do something in London. You can do something in London,
555 you can't do it in Leicester. It means about the shop. If you can sell
556 something luxurious brands in London. But some shops are closed
557 down here because no one wants to buy it. It's an expensive one.

558 K: So what you learn in class, what you listen to the teacher and
559 discuss and the thing you see outside helps your thinking.

560 J: Yes. I think so. I'd prefer to study with lecturers who give more
561 details. I can learn and imagine it. Don't speak about the lecture but
562 can't give an example.

563 K: What areas of academic or English ability you need to improve?

564 J: Most important is speaking.

565 K: Why?

566 J: If you can speak well, you can communicate. You have chance. I
567 have confidence. Writing is okay. Sometimes, if you don't write
568 correct grammar, some people can understand it.

569 **K:** But now you speak less or more than before. Or you need to
570 improve it.

571 J: Now I speak more than before with my flatmates. But in a lecture, I
572 didn't speak more.

573 **K:** When you go home, what kinds of skills will be important?

574 J: Speaking and listening. I want to work in an international company
575 and I know that we have to interview in English language. I still want
576 to work in a big international company about 2 or 3 years. And after
577 that I want to run my own business.

578 **K:** In class, you don't talk. Outside class, you talk. Are you satisfied
579 with your speaking ability?

580 J: Yes. I think so. I'm very lucky to stay here. If I don't speak in my
581 lecture, I can always speak here.

582 **K:** Speaking outside the lecture, you don't need to use any marketing
583 terms.

584 J: No, I don't think so. You know when we stay here, I always explain
585 about marketing. Bonny explains to me about game theory about
586 Economics.

587 **K:** Why did you talk about that?

588 J: I want to explain to her about my assignment or my topic and she
589 wants me to listen about her presentation.

590 **K:** Do you have any comments about your classroom experiences
591 throughout the year?

592 J: Not good, not bad. You know sometime, I don't want to go. I don't
593 want to study. But okay, only 3 or 4 hours, if you can't get knowledge,
594 you can practice listening.

595 **K:** For example, what class is that?

596 J: About Brand communication when I study lecture 2. Lecture 1
597 finished already. Lecture 2, I think maybe it's the same thing. It's so
598 boring. I don't want to study. But I think I spent a lot of money in
599 here. You have to get something. Maybe listening, that's okay.

600 **K:** So basically when you went to class, some class you didn't
601 understand at all.

602 J: Yeah. Yeah.

603 K: But you went there because you want to practice your English.

604 J: Some class I didn't understand at all. But some part I can understand,
605 only some topic or some paragraph I can understand. But I can't
606 understand all.

**607 K: Based on your experience, what advice or suggestion would you
608 offer to the new Thai students?**

609 J: For study here? Difficult. If I suggest somebody to study here, I think
610 you have to talk with somebody and not keep quiet. Chat with your
611 friend or maybe to get a new friend from abroad. And maybe you
612 don't only study, not only study. You have to learn more from maybe
613 go out, maybe go party. You can learn.

614 K: You can learn, learn what?

615 J: I mean you can learn something. It's different in lecture. In lecture
616 didn't tell you anything about the topic or about in this area, but you
617 can find some information you can learn more when you go out. You
618 can use the real situation and adapt your idea. You can create it why
619 this shop has to do this one, why uh we have to buy one get one free,
620 why we have discount. You can learn it. In lecture didn't tell you why
621 we have to do it. We study only about the theory. I mean why the
622 benefit for buy one; get one free, the benefit for discount. But we
623 didn't study when we have to use it, why we have to use it, why it's the
624 most important for encourage customers to buy many thing.

Appendix 3: English Speaking Log (I)

ENGLISH SPEAKING LOG*

Name: _____

Date	Place	English Speaking Activities
25/07/05	MY CLASS	my teacher asked me that "Where did you go on weekend?" I told him that "I went to the city centre and buy some food." And He asked me that "Do you enjoy on weekend?"
26/07/05	HSBC BANK	I went to HSBC Bank in the city centre. I want to know about open a bank account. I asked a banker about "How can I open a bank account?" She told me that "you should apply online."
27/07/05	MY CLASS	I talked with my classmate about the project. I asked her "Did you do your project?" She told me that "No" and I asked her "What is your topic?"
28/07/05	CLARE HOUSES	In the morning, I had breakfast and talked with my flatmate. I asked her about "Where do you go after class?" and "Why do you go to the city centre?"
29/07/05	MY CLASS	I asked my classmate "How can I submit my project?" She told me that "go to the Ken Edward Building on the 6th floor." My teacher asked me "What is about your project?"
30/07/05	Birmingham & train station	go to Birmingham with my friend. I bought tickets at train station. I told her that "Can I get a group of ticket to Birmingham?" and "How much is it?"
31/07/05	ASDA	In the afternoon, I went to ASDA. I couldn't find mushroom & chicken pie. I asked shopper that "Where is mushroom & chicken pie?"

*English speaking log is a record of English speaking activities that you have practiced with native and non-native speakers of English on your day-to-day basis. Please write it as clear as possible. For example, on Monday 18th, on the bus (Place), I asked a bus driver how to get off at the University, "Please tell me when to get off" and he nodded his head (Speaking Activity). Please try to write all activities you did in a day as many as possible. It is better to record it as soon as you did a speaking activity so that you will not forget the event. You can write on the back of this paper if you have a lot of activities on any particular day by indicating the date clearly. If there is not any English speaking activity on any particular day, please leave the line blank. The log will be collected every Monday. Thank you for your corporation.

Appendix 4: English Speaking Log (II)

Date	Place	English Speaking Encounters
Oct. Mon. 17 2005	My classroom My flat	I asked my friend that "Have you read journal?" "Do you understand it, or not?" In the evening, I have dinner with my flatmate. I asked her that "Why do you cook the same dish every day?" "Are you boring?"
Oct. Tue. 18 2005	My flat	I talked with my flatmates about dinner and her class. I asked Vikki (my friend from Greece) about Marketing. I asked her that "Do you understand the question of assignment?" and "How can you find this journal?" "Tomorrow, do you want to go to the university with me?"
Oct. Wed. 19 2005	My classroom Ken Edwards Building My flat	I can't understand about assignment. I asked my friend "What does methodology tradition mean?" and "How can I write about my assignment?" I went to the 5 th floor of Ken Edwards Building. I asked her "Can I get AGC form?" I asked my flatmate "Do you go back to your country in this Christmas?"
Oct. Thu. 20 2005	My classroom	I discuss about methodology assignment in my group at the university. I asked my friend "Can you explain the question 2 for us?" "Why do you think that?" I go to the library. I asked my friend "Can you find the 658.052 book?" My friend told me that "He can't find it." I asked him "What do you think if I find another book?"
Oct. Fri. 21 2005	My classroom My flat	I went to my classroom in the afternoon. And I asked my friend "Have you started your assignment?" "Are you understand the lesson?" In the evening, My flatmates knocked my door. I asked my friend "Did you have dinner?" "What time do you want to cook?" I asked Sawako "Tomorrow, what time do you start a party?" "Is it possible if I want to invite a Thai friend to go to a party?"
Oct. Sat. 22 2005	My flat	I stayed in my flat. I have a party with my flatmates. My friend invited her friend to join together. I make a new friend. I asked him "What's your name?" "What are you studying?" I talked with Sawako about this Christmas. I asked her "Where will you go on this Christmas?" she told me that "She will go to New York."
Oct. Sun. 23 2005	My flat	I talked with Bonnie about her boyfriend because Bonnie called. I asked her "Do you have some problem?" You can tell me. She told me that "her boyfriend called her many time." "What time do you have dinner today?"

Appendix 5: Classroom observation field note

Rosh chose Starbucks.

Ray, Sharp, chose about food.

So the lecture decided to talk about their poster.

~~Other~~ some groups members didn't talk either.

21/03/06

Human Resource Management.

School of Ed Lib. Hall

Pekky, Lane, Julie, Iris, Oudy sit in the same row

Lecture 6: International Assignments + HRM

Lecturer seems to talk + students sit + listen

Lecturer show DVD about HSBC commercials.

Lecturer asks ~~to~~ S. to divide in groups of 3 role play
as expats, repats + HR

Lectures divide

^{Coming back}
Pekky + Julie are in Human resour managers groups.

Think individually first

Oudy is an ~~repatriate~~ ^{expat} talk to British girl

→ ~~repatriate~~ ^{expat} issues

: family friends

→ what position am I going to be?

→ who am I going to deal with?

→ what roles + responsibilities will I be doing?

China

→ Legal Health

→ Accidents

→ Life style

Pekky seems to be the central of the group discussion

Q: What is

Rekky + Julie is a group of Greeks, Taiwanese, Thai (10 people)

Q: How do you find the experience?

Only with Natas with British, Chinese, Taiwanese, South African, Malaysia. (11 people)

Only responds to one girl regard language differences.

Q: What difficulties do you find when discussing with them?

Rekky also uses Thai to explain to Lana + discuss w/ Julie.

Q: Why Julie uses Thai in discussion

Q: What did you notice when you discuss with them?
3 of you seem to speak to one another + seem to ignore the others.
(Rekky, Julie, + Lana)

Lecture 7: Organizational Structure + HRM

Rekky let other members to talk

Lecturer tries to stimulate classroom discussion but Thai seem to sit silently + not to talk.

Q: How do you find the class discussion?

Q: What do you think when others is Greek, British, Pakistani talk? Why not you?

It seems that all European people seem to discuss but not Thai, Chinese, Taiwanese.

Lee just use the handouts + power point.

Q: What do you think about it?

Q: What do you learn from classroom discussion?

Appendix 6: Informed Consent Form

Dear _____,

I am a Thai doctoral student in Applied Linguistics and Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) at the School of Education, University of Leicester. As part of my doctoral research funded by the Thai Government Higher Education Commission, I am examining what opportunities exist for Thai postgraduate students in a UK institution in speaking English in different communities of practice, which include language class (Course D), Masters class, and daily life. The project has 2 phases: July – September 2005 (Course D) and October 2005 – June 2006 (MSc Class).

There are three research tools for research participants in this project:

1. Interview

Interview aims to gather your thoughts about your participation in classroom and social contexts. You will be asked questions regarding factors affecting your participation in that particular moment. There will also be questions about your social life on your daily basis. The interview will take about 45-60 minutes. The interview will be in Thai language, or in English if you prefer.

2. English Speaking Log

This log will help you to keep record with English speaking events outside your classrooms. You can record it at any time you like and we will discuss the events about once a month.

3. Classroom observation

A series of classroom observations will be conducted in Course D and Marketing classes. The observation will be conducted once a week. It will help me to observe different speaking opportunities, which may occur in your particular classes. Classroom disruption will be kept at its minimal.

In a study like this, you may be worried that something you say may be used against you or misunderstood. I understand your concern. When I write up my report, I will never use your own name. I will not mention the name of any place you have studied or lived. The only people who will be able to see all the information I collect are my supervisors at the School of Education and me. This institution has very strict rules that protect the privacy of people who take part in research studies. I will do all I can to make sure that your privacy is respected. If you wish, you may leave the study at any time. Once the study is finished, I would like permission to publish the study in journals and books and to present it at conferences. You are also entitled to have a copy of the study upon request.

Best regards,

Singhanat Kenny Nomniam

Dear Singhanat,

I have read your letter above describing the research project you plan to do. I agree with the project and am willing to take part in (please tick the box ☐)

☐ Interview

☐ English Speaking Log

☐ Classroom observation

I understand that I can leave the project at any time.

Signed:_____ Date:_____

Appendix 7: EAP Syllabus (Speaking and Listening Skills)

SKILLS TAUGHT- COURSE D 2005 SPEAKING AND LISTENING

Listening:

- Useful collocations
- Prediction
- Cause and effect
- Abbreviations
- Leaving space in notes (collaboration)
- Exemplification
- Digression
- Importance markers
- Following argument
- Intonation
- Rhetorical questions
- Guessing & coping with problematic words
- Trends

Speaking:

- Make suggestions
- Agree/ disagree
- Give opinion
- Ask for opinion

Clarify

- Ask for clarification
- Organise group work
- Structure points
- Greet & farewell
- Make appointments
- Apologise/ make excuses
- Paraphrase
- Expand ideas
- Think critically

Presentations:

- Organisation & focus
- Brain-storming
- Recognising pronunciation problems
- Clarifying
- Engaging audience
- Intonation
- Handing over
- Pace & volume
- Body language
- Use of notes/ visual aids

Pronunciation

- Indirect questions (intonation)
- Vowels
- Consonants
- Stress
- Intonation
- Suffixes
- Clusters
- Consonant endings
- Tone units

Culture

- Introduce and say goodbye
- Develop cross-cultural understanding
- Reflect on life in UK
- Politeness strategies
- Making excuses/ apologies